

**ENTREPRENEURSHIP
VIA CREATIVITY
FOR EUROPEAN CITIZENSHIP
IN EDUCATION**

Editor

**Assoc. Prof. Dr. Osman TİTREK
Sakarya University- Turkey**

otitrek@sakarya.edu.tr

INDEX

PART I CREATIVITY AND EDUCATION

- 1. CREATIVITY AND EDUCATION.....6**
Osman TİTREK - Demet ZAFER-GÜNEŞ - Gözde SEZEN-GÜLTEKİN

- 2. THE PROGRESSION MODEL FOR INITIAL TEACHER
EDUCATION AND HOW TO FOSTER CREATIVITY IN THE
CLASSROOM.....18**
Carlos REIS - Teresa PAIVA - Rosa TRACANA

- 3. THE CREATIVITY IN INCLUSIVE
EDUCATION.....26**
Miloň POTMĚŠIL - Monika KUNHARTOVÁ

- 4. GIFTED AND TALENTED CHILDREN IN OUR
CLASSROOMS.....59**
Monika Kunhartová - Miluše Jílková - Michaela Čachotská - Hana
Křištofová

- 5. LEADING CURRENT SCENARIOS TOWARDS
INNOVATION, CREATIVITY AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP: THE
CASE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF
ZARAGOZA.....75**
Luisa Esteban Salvador - Charo Ramo Garzarán - Fernando Repullés
Sánchez

- 6. BASICS OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN
EDUCATION.....88**
M. Cüneyt BİRKÖK

7. ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION AND ENTREPRENEURIAL CULTURE DEVELOPMENT: PERSONAL SKILLS, VALUES AND PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES OF FOSTERING ENTREPRENEURSHIP.....102

Danguole SIDLAUSKIENE - Ginta SNIPAITIENE

8. ENTREPRENEURSHIP SKILL FORMATION ORGANIZING PRACTICAL TRAINING IN HIGHER EDUCATION.....118

Marinescu Mariana - Valentin Blândul - Mos Irina Cornelia

9. HIDDEN PRIVATISATION IN PUBLIC EDUCATION. SPANISH EDUCATION REFORMS AND NEW ACTORS OF INFLUENCE.....138

Mohammed EL HOMRANI - Geo SAURA

PART II EUROPEAN CITIZENSHIP AND DEMOCRACY

1. EUROPEAN UNION CITIZENSHIP AND DEMOCRACY.....154

Osman TITREK - Demet ZAFER-GÜNEŞ - Gözde SEZEN-GÜLTEKİN

2. INTERRELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN FORMAL EDUCATION AND NON FORMAL EDUCATION IN THE TRANSMISSION OF EUROPEAN VALUES.....165

Alfonso CONDE LACÁRCEL - Mohamed EL HOMRANI

3. DIMENSIONS OF THE EUROPEAN CITIZENSHIP AND CIVIC COMPETENCE ACQUISITION.....193

Marinescu Mariana - Vasile Marcu - Anca Albu

4. EDUCATION PROMOTING ACTIVE CITIZENSHIP WITHIN THE EU	209
Romalda Kasiliauskiene - Odeta Gruselioniene	
5. EUROPEAN CITIZENSHIP STARTS WITH CULTURE	226
Indra Kalniņa - Aira Klampe - Līga Eņģele	
6. DIVERSITY IN THE CLASSROOM AND EQUALITY IN DEMOCRACY	245
Sabine Grull	
7. RECOGNIZING CULTURAL DIFFERENCES AND TAKING LEADERSHIP DECISIONS IN A MULTI-CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT	263
Michael Koniordos	
8. THE EDUCATION OF SELECTED GROUPS OF PERSONS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS IN THE CONTEXT OF EUROPEAN UNION	281
Michal Ruzicka - Jiri Kantor	
9. UNDERSTANDING, RESPECT AND APPRECIATION OF DIVERSITY IN THE CONTEXT OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION	301
Jiri Kantor - Michal Ruzicka	

PART I

CREATIVITY AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP

CREATIVITY AND EDUCATION

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Osman TİTREK

Sakarya University, Turkey- otitrek@sakarya.edu.tr

Assist. Prof. Dr. Demet ZAFER-GÜNEŞ

İstanbul Sebahattin Zaim University, Turkey

Res. Assist. Gözde SEZEN-GÜLTEKİN

Sakarya University, Turkey

Abstract

Creativity is one of the most important features of humans. Creativity is a phenomenon that has always fascinated lay people as well as scientists. In old times, creativity thought a feature of artists and musicians. However nowadays, we are hearing this word for all job issues. Creativity related cognitive, environmental and personal issues and all these features can be developing via education. If you would like to develop creativity via education, encourage children to identify and surmount obstacles, sensible risk-taking, and tolerance of ambiguity and help children build self-efficacy, find what they love to do, teach children the importance of delaying gratification, and provide an environment that fosters creativity.

Keynote: creativity, charesteristics, steps of creativity, education,

Introduction

According to Ryhammar and Brolin (1999), producing new ideas or novel products is one of the essential characteristics of human beings. Creativity is one of these characteristics and it is a magical key for human beings to tackle with the challenges of the 21st century and to solve problems in daily life (Yılmaz, 2011).

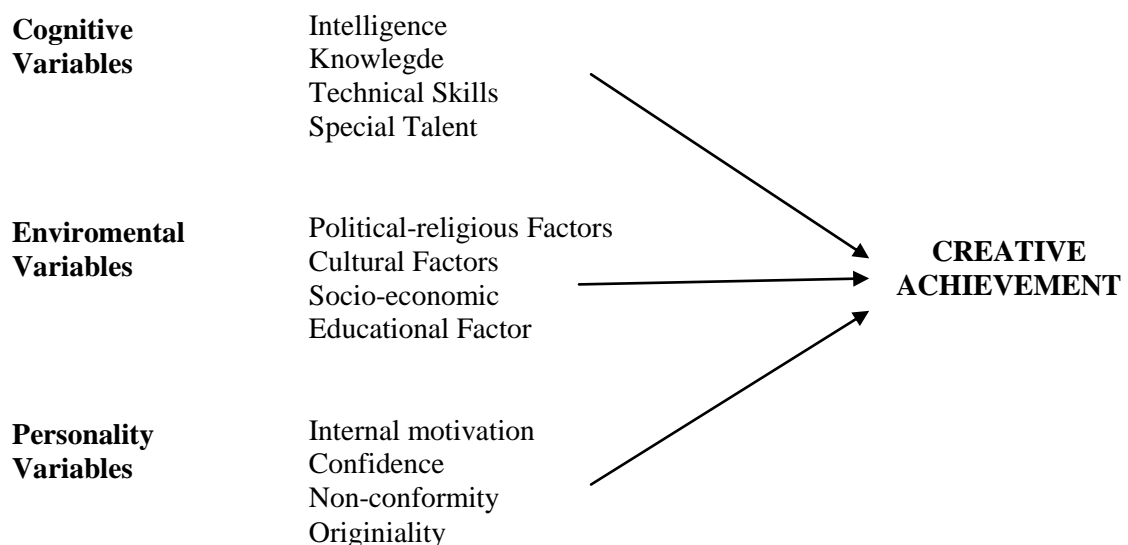
According to Woodman (1981), creativity is a phenomenon that has always fascinated lay people as well as scientists. It is for example valued as a property of pieces of art or literature, musical compositions, scientific works, narrations, witty comments, decorations, and technical or social inventions. In all these various facets, creativity is a prime source of cultural progress and responsible for a multitude of small contributions to our everyday enjoyment and well-being. Because of these effects, it is also appreciated as an attribute of employees, artists, entertainers, scientists, friends and mates. Its social and cultural importance led just about every major personality psychologist of the 20th century –be it Freud, Jung, Adler, Skinner, Maslow, Murray, Rogers, Kelly, Guilford, Cattell, or Eysenck – to write about creativity (Penke, 2003).

People often use the concept of creativity and innovation in an interchangeable way; “others view them as symbiotically related phenomena necessary for the development of new systems, products, and technologies” (Ford, 1996). However, “creativity is a prerequisite of innovation”(Batey & Furnham, 2006). Creativity is composed of domain relevant skills, which are knowledge of the individual about the domain, skills and talents required to complete the task. Creativity relevant skills are the creativity trait of the individual and training on generating new ideas (Özakar, 2010). According to Guilford (1950), creativity is “a behavior pattern which includes the following factors; sensitivity to problems, perception, fluency, novel ideas, flexibility of mind (ease with which one changes set), synthesizing ability, analyzing ability, reorganizational or redefinition ability, complexity or intricacy of conceptual structure of which one is capable, motivational factor, attitudes and temperament“ (Antley, 1966).

The definition of creativity is associated with four potential research paradigms: the creative person, the cognitive processes of creativity, environment issues to shape or inhibit creativity, and the product of creative performance (Batey & Furnham, 2006). In the literature, creativity is defined in two senses; the first direction is describing creativity as a personal trait. This trait is the trait of originality; originality in this case is the ability to make unusual associations. The second is creativity as a unique achievement, the achievement of a finished product (Eysenck, 1993). Creativity as a personal attribute is often measured simply as occupation, raising the question of domain-generalty versus domain-specificity of creativity (Batey & Furnham, 2006).

Creative achievement depends on many different factors: (a) cognitive abilities- for example, intelligence, acquired knowledge, technical skills and special talents (e.g. musical, verbal, numeric); (b) environmental variables – such as political-religious, cultural, socio-economic, and educational factors; (c) personality traits- such as internal motivation, confidence, nonconformity and originality. All or most of these, in greater or lesser degree, are needed to produce a truly creative achievement (Eysenck, 1993).

Figure 1. Factors interacting synergistically to produce creative achievement



The Characteristics of Creativity

In creativity literature, various and considerable efforts have contributed to the knowledge of creativity from the perspective of cognitive (e.g., Diakidoy & Kanari, 1999), personality (e.g., Helson, Roberts, & Agronick, 1995), humanistic (e.g., Gardner, 1993), social (e.g., Shalley, Gilson, & Blum, 2000), environmental (e.g., Niu & Sternberg, 2003), psychology (e.g. Amabile, 1996), and neurobiology (e.g., Mumford & Caughron, 2007). Because of the diverse frameworks of each approach, the results of this phenomenon cause conceptual and empirical fragmentation. Against this backdrop, however, a substantial number of creativity scholars have contributed to a repertoire of theoretical frameworks, which delineates creative achievement under the influence of possible variables, including cognitive ability (e.g., HyounSook & Jin Nam, 2009), personality factors (e.g., Kim, Hon, & Crant, 2009), cognitive style (e.g., James & Asmus, 2000), motivation (e.g., Amabile, 1983), knowledge (e.g., Baer, 2003), environment (e.g., Oldham & Cummings, 1996), and the contextual influences (e.g., Woodman et al., 1993; Tsai, 2013).

Steps to the Creative Process

Creativity comes through a process which includes many steps. Runco and Chand (1995) state that the creative process can be partitioned into problem finding, ideation and evaluation of the processes. Creative performance is typically operationalized in one of three ways: divergent thinking tasks; insight tasks or external judgments of creative products (Murray and Johnson, 2010).

According to Guilford, there are five steps to the creative process. This process does not take place in neat steps, always forward. It always much teetering back and forth between experiencing and focusing or illumination and the sudden perception or order or meaning. It is a process which takes time, but the time may be a five minutes or several years. These steps are as follows (Guilford, 1973):

1. Preparation (acquisition skills, techniques and information),
2. Concentrated effort (to find a solution or suitable form),

3. Withdrawal from the problem,
4. Insight or illumination,
5. Verification, evaluation and elaboration.

However, one of the interesting analyses is presented by Arthur Foshay in Alice Mile's book, 'Creativity in Teaching'. The parts of the creative process are described as follows (Guilford, 1973):

1. **Openness**: Deliberate letting in of data and new experiences with no effort to give order to or to judge. What comes in may be threatening, disorganizing; the creative person sometimes tries to handle the threat by delaying tactics, elaborate arranging of materials, and similar rituals.

2. **Focusing**: Back-and-forth mental efforts to give order and meaning to the data, the experiences.

3. **Discipline**: The self-discipline, concentration, hard work and the creative person works out his ideas or product.

4. **Closure**: The product is finished when creator feels it is, he might destroy it start over, or simply decide unfinished is the best he can do.

Promoting Creativity in Classrooms

According to Duffy (2006) in all communities, there is a need for creative people who can deal with difficult problems, comprehend the connections between past and present knowledge and understand the values of their own culture and those of other cultures (Yılmaz, 2011). For this reason, education is very important in order to train such people.

There are ten different lenses of creativity that help to inform teaching, learning, and curriculum of creativity in higher education: (a) creativity as an ordering process, (b) creativity as rhythm and cycle, (c) creativity as originality and spontaneity, (d) creativity as the irrational, (e) creativity as problem solving, (f) creativity as problem stating, (g) creativity as inspiration, (h) creativity as serendipity, (I) creativity as resistance to the uncreative, and (j) creativity as withdrawal and absence (Bleakley, 2004).

Viewing creativity as a habit, Sternberg (2007) observed that creative people habitually look for ways to see problems that others do not look for, take risks that others are afraid to take, have the courage to defy the crowd and to stand up for their own beliefs, and seek to overcome obstacles and challenges to their views that others give in to, among other things. He then provided 12 keys for promoting the creativity habit in children: redefine problems, question and analyze assumptions, do not assume that creative ideas sell themselves, encourage idea generation, recognize that knowledge is a double-edged sword and act accordingly, encourage children to identify and surmount obstacles, encourage sensible risk-taking, encourage tolerance of ambiguity, help children build self-efficacy, help children find what they love to do, teach children the importance of delaying gratification, and provide an environment that fosters creativity (Tsai, 2013).

In order to have a place in this exciting future, teachers need to be constantly aware of the new skills required for the next century and to be receptive to learning these skills so as to impart them to their students (Fatt, 2000). Therefore, teachers should develop the ability to identify the creative potential in students, to recognize creative outcomes, and to encourage the cognitive processes related to creativity. For the sake of development of creativity, teachers should utilize creativity-fostering pedagogy, including a set of skills: pattern recognition, connectivity to diversity, synthesis training, and a schema of problem-solving and divergent thinking exercises (Johnson and Arunachalam, 2013).

According to Torrance (1981), the purpose of creative teaching is to create a “responsible environment” through high teacher enthusiasm, appreciation of individual differences, and so on (Fasko, 2000). Teachers should develop a learning orientation that motivates students to advance creative self-efficacy to engage in creative activities. Taken together, the feelings of enhanced capacities or competencies are likely in turn to heighten creative effects. Teachers can reap the benefits of student’s creativity by the careful use of a reward and evaluation system, providing ample opportunities for free play with tasks, making intrinsic motivation as

a conscious factor, focusing on the intrinsically enjoyable aspects of activities, and training students as active and independent learners (Johnson and Arunachalam, 2013).

Feldhusen and Treffinger (1980) and Davis (1991) also believed establishing a “creative climate” was important to stimulate creative thinking (Fasko, 2000). For this reason, classes need not be conducted in the traditional way. Students can have lessons outside the classroom in parks, on the road, even in the canteen, so that they can use the surroundings to stimulate their thinking and come up with unexpected ideas (Fatt, 2000).

Teachers should realize that there is no lack of thoughts for promoting creativity in the classroom (Fatt, 2000). Thus, Feldhusen and Treffinger (1980) suggested some several recommendations for establishing a classroom environment conducive to creative thinking by (cited: Fatt, 2000:754-755):

1. Support and reinforce unusual ideas and responses of students.
2. Use failure as a positive to help students realize errors and meet acceptable standards in a supportive atmosphere.
3. Adapt to student interests and ideas in the classroom whenever possible.
4. Allow time for students to think about and develop their creative ideas. Not all creativity occurs immediately and spontaneously.
5. Create a climate of mutual respect and acceptance between students and between students and teachers, so that students can share, develop, and learn together and from one another as well as independently.
6. Be aware of the many facets of creativity besides arts and crafts: verbal responses, written responses both in prose and poetic style, fiction and nonfiction form. Creativity enters all curricular areas and disciplines.
7. Encourage divergent learning activities. Be a source provider and director.
8. Listen and laugh with students. A warm, supportive atmosphere provides freedom and security in exploratory thinking.

9. Allow students to have choices and be a part of the decision-making process. Let them have a part in the control of their education and learning experiences.

10. Let everyone get involved, and demonstrate the value of involvement by supporting student ideas and solutions to problems and projects.(p. 32)

11. Allow students to design websites based on their desired themes. (p. 754)

12. Engage students in thought-inspiring activities like debates on both local and international issues. (p. 754)

13. Get students to role play real-life cases or problems. (p.754)

14. Plan extracurricular activities that involve problem solving tasks like organizing certain school events (inter-school or inter-class competitions, exhibitions, carnivals, fund-raising and charity projects, etc.) (p.754)

15. Encourage students to share their interests in class by getting them to talk or to write about their hobbies, reading habits, outside and family experiences. This can improve their knowledge of each other and set the tone for group work which can inculcate group effort in generating ideas and sharing risks. (p. 755)

16. Reward class participation and creative answers with points or words of encouragement. (p. 755)

Universities and schools should not be constrained by budget to increase the number of books and computer programs on creative thinking. These should be easily accessible to students doing library research. Furthermore, information can be made more accessible to students if universities and schools have a page on creativity on the internet (Fatt, 2000). Therefore, the following possible avenues can be suggested so as to facilitate creativity in the classroom:

✓ **Knowledge Construction:** Dominant-relevant skills, such as knowledge, intelligence, and expertise, are an essential component that affects individuals with creative potential. These skills are determined by

antecedent conditions (e.g., in-born talent), experience, and education (Amabile, 1998).

✓ **Creative Thinking: Sternberg (2003)** maintained that teaching creative thinking could benefit the students' academic performance. He also provides suggestions toward creative thinking: redefine problems, analyze solutions, defy the crowd, take risks, open minds, tolerate uncertainty, and be patient.

✓ **Motivation and Self-Efficacy:** Teachers should develop a learning orientation that motivates students to advance creative self-efficacy to engage in creative activities (Johnson and Arunachalam, 2013).

✓ **Goal Setting and Work Group:** Goal setting is a useful strategy to overcome the reluctance of involvement in creative attempts, thanks to inertia and attachment to one's comfort zone (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2008).

ANNEX

Figure 2. 25 ways to develop creativity

25 Ways to Develop Creativity

The Prerequisites

1. Modeling creativity
2. Building self-efficacy

Basic Techniques

3. Questioning assumptions
4. Defining and redefining problems
5. Encouraging idea generation
6. Cross-fertilizing ideas

Tips for Teaching

7. Allowing time for creative thinking
8. Instructing and assessing creativity
9. Rewarding creative ideas and products

Avoid Roadblocks

10. Encouraging sensible risks
11. Tolerating ambiguity
12. Allowing mistakes
13. Identifying and surmounting obstacles

Add Complex Techniques

14. Teaching self-responsibility
15. Promoting self-regulation
16. Delaying gratification

Use Role Models

17. Using profiles and creative people
18. Encouraging creative collaboration
19. Imagining other viewpoints

Explore The Environment

20. Recognizing environmental fit
21. Finding excitement
22. Seeking stimulating environments
23. Playing to strengths

The Long-Term Perspective

24. Growing creatively
25. Proselytizing for creativity

1. Do you really care about teaching? Does it renew or exhaust you? Is it a way of life and not just a way or earning a living?
2. Do you teach today the same as you did one year ago? Five years ago? Twenty years ago?
3. Are you doing highly unusual, different, and exciting things in your teaching this year? Are you experimenting with new teaching materials, methods, and ideas?
4. Do you read about education in general (not just your own speciality) and about areas other than education?
5. Do you really care about children? Do you respect them? Do you anticipate differences in each child? Do you see children not as gifted or retarded, average or accelerated, alike in some basic ways and yet each unlike any child encountered before or to be encountered again, each unique, different from other people, and exciting in potential?
6. Do you let some children feel inferior to other children? Do you put one child against another, "See what neat work John does?"
7. Do you emphasize sex roles? Do you say, "Girls usually like this," or "Let's not do that, Sue, that is for boys"?
8. Do you sometimes use flashes of insight which come to you? When a pupil says, "Hey, I just got a crazy idea," and tells you about it, do you say, "That's an interesting idea; let's try it out"?
9. Do you welcome changes in curriculum, such as the so-called "new" mathematics or "new" science? Do you seek information about such changes eagerly, receptively, yet critically? Or do you resist changes and speak of the "good old days when children learned their numbers without all this nonsense?"
10. Do you rely primarily in your teaching on the textbook? Is most of your class period devoted to talk about what is in the textbook?
11. Do you set up the daily schedule and make all classroom decisions? Do children feel free to suggest changes in classroom procedures? Are their suggestions ever adopted?
12. Do you need and require specific and authoritative answers to most questions?
13. Do children in your class feel free to express ideas contrary to yours and those in the textbook?
14. Is there much purposeful movement and activity in your room on an average day?
15. Do you allow time regularly for individual study projects? (kel)

16. Does your classroom invite new experiences and individual 1.0 projects? Is there a good classroom library? Materials for examination and handling? Readily available art and construction materials?

17. Do you use a wide variety of teaching materials and methods; such as, films, filmstrips, recordings, charts, demonstration, and dramatics?

18. Do you ever discuss controversial issues in your classroom?

19. Outside the classroom, are you deeply involved in some community activities or causes? Have you acquired any exciting new interests in the last five years?

20. Do you feel competent to think about and come to some conclusions about such big questions as, "What is the purpose of life?" and "What is the purpose of education?"

Reference: Guilford, 1973

REFERENCES

Amabile, T. M. (1998). How to kill creativity. *Harvard Business Review*, 76(5), 76-87.

Antley, E. M. (1966). Creativity in Educational Administration. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, 34 (4), 21-27.

Batey, M., & Furnham, A. (2006). Creativity, Intelligence, and Personality: A Critical Review of the Scattered Literature. *Genetic, Social & General Psychology Monographs*, 132(4), 355-429.

Bleakley, A. (2004). 'Your Creativity or Mine?': A Typology of Creativities in Higher Education and the Value of a Pluralistic Approach. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 9 (4), 463- 475.

Eysenck, H. J. (1993). Creativity and Personality: Suggestions for a Theory. *Psychological Inquiry*, 4 (3), 147-148.

Fasko, D. (2000). Education and Creativity. *Creativity Research Journal*, 13 (3-4), 317-327.

Fatt, J. P. T. (2000). Fostering Creativity in Education. *Education*, 120 (4). 744-757.

Ford, C. M. (1996). A theory of individual creative action in multiple social domains. *Academy of Management. The Academy of Management Review*, 21(4), 1112-1142.

Guilford, J. P. (1973). Characteristics of Creativity. *Illinois State Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield. Gifted Children Section*. <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED080171>. Access date 19.01.2014.

<http://blogs.wsd1.org/plc/files/2012/12/25-Ways-to-Develop-Creativity.pdf>. Access date 19.01.2014.

Johnson, N. & Arunachalam, N. (2013). Promoting students' creativity through leadership styles. *Aarhat Multidisciplinary International Education Research Journal (AMIERJ)*, 2 (3), 9-22.

Mayfield, M., & Mayfield, J. (2008). Leadership techniques for nurturing worker garden variety creativity. *The Journal of Management Development*, 27(9), 976-986.

Murray, G. & Johnson, S. L. (2010). The clinical significance of creativity in bipolar disorder. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 30, 721–732.

Özakar, A. D. (2010). *Harnessing Children's Creativity in Contextmapping Activities*. Unpublished master thesis. The Graduate School of Natural and Applied Sciences of Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Penke, L. (2003). *Creativity: Theories, Prediction and Etiology*. Unpublished thesis. The Department of Psychology, University of Bielefeld.

Sternberg, R.J. (2003). Creative thinking in the classroom. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 47(3), 325-338.

Tsai, K. C. (2013). Leadership Recipes for Promoting Students' Creativity. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 3 (5), 1-9.

Yılmaz, S. (2011). *Pre-service and In-service Preschool Teachers' Views Regarding Creativity in Early Childhood Education*. Unpublished master thesis. The Department of Early Childhood Education, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

THE PROGRESSION MODEL FOR INITIAL TEACHER EDUCATION AND HOW TO FOSTER CREATIVITY IN THE CLASSROOM

Carlos REIS

Politechnica Guarda, Portugal- creis @ipg.pt

Teresa PAIVA

Politechnica Guarda, Portugal

Rosa TRACANA

Politechnica Guarda, Portugal

Abstract

In this paper we discuss the Lisbon Strategy and the Budapest Agenda on Entrepreneurship Education. This takes us to present the Progressing Model for Initial Teacher Education on Entrepreneurship Education, which gives us an opportunity to stress the importance of creativity. Finally we give some suggestions to foster creativity in the classroom as an essential aim of education, overall considered, and as main feature for Entrepreneurship Education.

Keywords: teachers, entrepreneurship, creativity, models

1. From the Lisbon Strategy to the Budapest Agenda on Entrepreneurship Education

The Lisbon Strategy (European Commission, 2000) acknowledged entrepreneurship contribution to the EU economy and recently Europe 2020 Strategy (European Commission, 2010) has also drawn on its development

One could ask what we mean when we refer to “entrepreneurship”. The Green Paper on Entrepreneurship in Europe (Commission of the European Communities, 2003), states that entrepreneurship is multi-dimensional and it can occur in different contexts, aside the business field, but it always involves the exploitation of creativity or innovation. *“Entrepreneurship is first and foremost a mindset. It covers an individual’s motivation and capacity, independently or within an organization, to identify an opportunity and to pursue it in order to produce new value or economic success. It takes creativity or innovation to enter and compete in an existing market, to change or even to create a new market. To turn a business idea into success requires the ability to blend creativity or innovation with sound management and to adapt a business to optimise its development during all phases of its life cycle. This goes beyond daily management: it concerns a business’ ambitions and strategy”* (Commission of the European Communities, 2003, pg.4).

Although entrepreneurship is a conditional asset required by competitive economies, we should keep in mind that the aim of the European Union doesn’t confine only to economy. The EU also aims to be an intelligent and sustainable society; issues that pertain social cohesion, employment, inclusion and sustainability, among other desiderata, like freedom, democracy and emancipation. Being these, in our point of view, the really aims our societies long for. Thus we should be aware of the priority that creativity takes over entrepreneurship. If it is rather consensual that the later requires creativity, education should not aim to it only for entrepreneurship sake, but because it is an intrinsic component of education central aim: human perfectibility (Pring, 2003). However we should keep

in mind the maxim from Toshiro Kanamori, who proposes that education has to correspond to “happiness” as a human general “telos”.

So we do not really aim to raise entrepreneurs at the age of ten, but to raise creative people that can be successful entrepreneurs in all areas of their lives. *“Yet there are certain common characteristics of entrepreneurial behaviour, including a readiness to take risk and a taste for independence and self-realization”* (Commission of the European Communities, 2003, 5-6).

The *“Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council on key competences for lifelong learning”* states that competences are *“a combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to the context. Key competences are those which all individuals need for personal fulfillment and development, active citizenship, social inclusion and employment”* (2006, 13). Among the eight key competences the *“sense of initiative and entrepreneurship”* is put forward as *“an individual's ability to turn ideas into action. It includes creativity, innovation and risk-taking, as well as the ability to plan and manage projects in order to achieve objectives. This supports individuals, not only in their everyday lives at home and in society, but also in the workplace in being aware of the context of their work and being able to seize opportunities, and is a foundation for more specific skills and knowledge needed by those establishing or contributing to social or commercial activity. This should include awareness of ethical values and promote good governance”* (European Parliament and the Council, 2006, 17).

As it has happened before regarding several European issues, it became broadly recognize that teachers have a critical role to play in the development of entrepreneurship education. In fact, a study mapping *“Teachers’ preparation for entrepreneurship education”* has confirmed that successful implementation of entrepreneurship education is strongly dependent on teachers’ interventions in the classrooms (Gibb, 2005). Thus, it is very wise to focus in fostering EE among teachers’ educators as well as to give them the suited training on the subject and related fitted pedagogies. Besides, we also need to foster a new paradigm that envisages

education institutions as entrepreneurial organizations, classrooms as entrepreneurial places and teachers as enterprising people.

This new way to educate teachers is crucial for the success of the entrepreneurship spirit and attitude implementation in all levels of education. European Commission researcher's state that the core skills and values linked to entrepreneurship should be focused on creativity and a new culture to support the creative and innovative approaches to learning needed.

Taking the above mentioned into special account, the European Commission has been making a strong effort to develop effective teacher education systems for entrepreneurship, since the High Level Symposium on "Entrepreneurship Education: Teacher Education as critical success factor" which took place in Budapest on 7-8 April 2011. The main concern of the Symposium was to determine "how best to equip teachers with the skills, knowledge and attitudes they need to foster the entrepreneurial mind-sets of young people". The results of the Symposium came to be known as the Budapest Agenda for Entrepreneurship Education (EE).

Two workshops were then organized during 2012 aiming at: discussing the current state of the art; presenting the challenges; collecting and sharing good practice examples; inviting people to discuss new ideas; discussing and refining a progression model for implementation.

Accordingly to the former, the aim of the 'Budapest Agenda' is to provide a catalogue of measures to be drawn upon by stakeholders at all levels within the worlds of education, business and the wider community in order to take forward the development of teacher education in entrepreneurship. It draws on the work and experiences of practitioners and policy makers from across Europe, EU partner countries from the EU pre-accession and Mediterranean neighborhood regions, and is backed up by good practices, as evidenced by report of the "*First workshop on enabling teachers for entrepreneurship education – initial teacher Education*" (Baldassarri and Curavic, 2012).

2. The Budapest Agenda and the Progressing Model for Initial Teacher Education

The Budapest Agenda is intended to be used by all those with an interest in the subject, who can select measures and tailor them to their own particular circumstances. Each action indicates the relevant actors. As a reference document it states the monitoring of the following strands: A) Initial Teacher Education (Entrepreneurship education for all; Curriculum content and pedagogy; Assessment; Selection of student Teachers; Partnerships); B) National Support (Strategies; Entrepreneurship education curricula; Assessment of the entrepreneurship key competence; Incentives; Resources; Communication; Communities of entrepreneurial Teachers); C) Continuing Professional Development (Curriculum content, pedagogy and assessment; Buy-in and ownership; Businesses and the wider community as a resource; Recruitment and promotion of teachers; Continuing professional development in national/regional strategies); D) Local School Support (Entrepreneurial school strategies; Entrepreneurial leadership; Resources; Community networks and partnerships).

The Progression Model for Initial Teacher Education considers three domains:

1.ENTREPRENEURIAL TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS;
2.ENTREPRENEURIAL TEACHER EDUCATORS; and
3.ENTREPRENEURIAL TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMMES. For each domain several subjects are displayed under a scale of four development levels: Baseline; Start-up; Development and consolidation phase; and Mainstreaming phase. The overall score gives an insight of the institution progress regarding Initial Teacher Education for Entrepreneurship.

3. Fostering creativity in the classroom

One my ask where new ideas come from and how can we have more innovative people and organizations. From an environmental perspective some contexts are more propitiatory than others. Some recurrent patterns seem to emerge from such contexts (Johnson, 2010): **1.** most innovative

ideas need a long period to evolve, they result from a slow hunch of two or three years of gestation; this is because great new ideas come from the “collision” of small ideas; Tim Berners Lee idea of a world wide web could be taken as an example of the phenomenon, it took ten years for him to come up with a network of ideas that resulted in the final insight;

2. We need the opportunity for an idea someone had come to meet another idea from another person or the same person, which require a space where ideas can mingle and swap to create new forms; a great driver of innovation has been the historical increase of connectivity, which facilitates the process of access and borrow other people ideas, sometimes from very distant places. In order to combine apart ideas that get combined into something new; 3. Serendipity also plays a productive part in creative processes and it has been favoured by the increase of connectivity ICT came to provide.

In principle, creativity always entails a response from imagination. To foster creativity in the classroom one should remember that creativity takes time. In this particular excessive stress could be counterproductive, thus planning and time management are essential to get good results. Explaining deadlines and assigning flexible tasks are also a requirement. The exploration of wild scenarios is also a must, if we want creativity to have a chance to stem out from the proposed tasks. This means divergent thinking gets the right condition to flow and bloom. A broad range of sources that expose students to a wide variety of stimuli –like films, news, books, blogs and so on–, is also very important. Creativity is very favoured by social and cooperative settings, so we should arrange classrooms in order to propitiate this kind of ambiances, where participants can express freely their differences and debate their perspectives on the subjects. Creating classroom corners of informal interaction and using natural surroundings are very good options. Mind maps and colored schemes can also be powerful tools to foster divergent thinking.

REFERENCES

Baldassarri, S. & Curavic, M (2012). *First workshop on enabling teachers for entrepreneurship education – Initial teacher Education*. European Commission, Directorate General for Enterprise and Industry, Printed document.

Commission of the European Communities (2003). *The Green Paper on Entrepreneurship in Europe*. Available online: http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/site/en/com/2003/com2003_0027en01.pdf

European Commission (2000). *Lisbon strategy*. Available online: http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/ec/00100-r1.en0.htm

European Commission (2010). *EUROPE 2020 -A strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth. Communication from the Commission*. Available online: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2010:2020:FIN:EN:PDF>

European Commission (2011). *Entrepreneurship Education: Enabling Teachers as a critical Success Factor*

European Parliament and the Council (2006). *Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council of 18 December 2006 on key competences for lifelong learning*. Available online: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2006:394:0010:0018:EN:PDF>

GHK (2011). *Mapping of teachers' preparation for entrepreneurship education. Final Report by GHK for DG EDUCATION AND CULTURE, 2011. P 6-7. Available online: http://ec.europa.eu/education/moreinformation/doc/2011/mappingsum_en.pdf*

Gibb, A. (2005), "The future of entrepreneurship education – Determining the basis for coherent policy and practice?". In P. Kyrö & C. Carrier (Eds.), *The Dynamics of Learning Entrepreneurship in a Cross-Cultural University Context*. University of Tampere: Research Centre for Vocational and Professional Education.

Johnson, S. (2010). *Where good ideas come from: The Natural History of Innovation*. New York: Riverhead Books.

Pring, R. (2003). La educación como “práctica educativa”. In M. Amilburu (Ed.), *Claves de la filosofía de la educación* (pp.29-48). Madrid: Dykinson.

THE CREATIVITY IN INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

Miloň POTMĚŠIL

Palacky University-Olomouc, Czech -
mvpotmesil@gmail.com

Monika KUNHARTOVÁ

Palacky University-Olomouc, Czech

Abstract

The article presents actual topic of inclusion with results of research PdF_2011_005, which was about attitudes of teachers to students with special needs. The article describes the basic symptoms and consequences of special needs and then suggests some creative solution for people with special needs (FRVŠ 2012/2300). The paper shows some from creativity in work of special educators.

Keywords: inclusive education, disabled person, creativity

Introduction

Everybody knows for example Bill Gates, David Beckham, Oprah Winfrey, Brad Pitt, they are lovely, nice, clever, successful, they have money, property, popularity. They are surely creative and enterprising. Different people live among us, study and work with us, this process is called integration/inclusion. One of large group consists of people with special needs. They have less possibilities to be successful, to study, to earn money, even some of them are not clever, nice, beautiful. Some of them can't communicate with others, they can't take care of themselves. So their success, studying, working, communication, independence depend on our creativity, enterprising. Let me introduce people with special needs, then the issue of inclusion and finally the creativity in special education.

People with hearing impairment

Any people don't hear anything or only very loud sounds. Some people can hear sounds, speech, music, they have rest of hearing different degree. Hearing impairments are divided into sensorineural, conductive and mixed. Very simply: conductive hearing loss is caused in middle and/or external ear, sensorineural hearing loss is caused in inner ear. Children, who were born with hearing loss or children, who lost their hearing before the end of speech development, until 6-7 years are called pre-lingual hearing loss. Post-lingual loss of hearing appears after the end of speech development, after 6-7 years. Hearing impairment (HI) brings a lot of consequences in communication, relationships, education and work. Speech development is influenced by the degree of impairment. Children with mild degree have delayed speech development, but their speech is intelligible, sometimes they make mistakes in pronunciation or in word order. Sometimes they don't know the meaning of any words. More serious impairment, the greater problems. The speech becomes more noticeable (bad pronunciation, voice disorders, different melody) or they are not able to learn talking, so they use sign language, dactyl. If the sign language is primary language, deaf people have problem with understanding language of majority (Czech, English, Turkish, ...). Here communication and

information barriers are built. Deaf people often can't communicate with hearing people, communication is difficult or limited (few hearing people can sign language or only one possibility is writing). Deaf become segregated. As stated deaf people don't understand majority language, that's why they can't read newspapers, textbooks, books, look for the information on the internet (Potměšilová, 2010). People often think about deaf that they are stupid. One of possibilities for better understanding in interpersonal communication is lipreading, but it is very challenging. People with hearing impairment have to be concentrated, have to watch face of speaker, have to recognize movement of vocal organs. Another way of understanding can be nonverbal communication (facial expression). Problems in content page speech includes an ignorance some of words (disregard, sensitive, independent,.....), a misunderstanding in common conversation, they don't understand irony, saying (metaphor). For the above reasons the establishment of relationships is very difficult. Deaf become segregated easily. Inability to communicate, few friends, information barriers can bring low self-esteem.

There is a list of problems in everyday life:

- people with hearing loss (HL) don't hear dangerous sounds (cars, trams, explosion, falling object, warning: Stop! Attention!). That's why they have to be more careful, more concentrated and they can require more care from us.
- We should use touches as a tool of contact these people. The best place are shoulders or arms, don't touch them on back, legs, abdomen.
- Deaf people can't listen to music, phone, watching TV. But in The Czech Republic we have possibility to "listen" to music for these people, music is expressed by the movement of arms, facial expression and whole body. Phone is replaced by writing sms.
- Sometimes they have a problem with stability. The center for stability, perception of movement and posture is located in inner ears, so if the hearing loss is caused in inner ears, defect can affect this centre.

- Pupils/students with hearing loss can't listen to teacher and write notice at the same time.
- Because these people don't hear, they can't control themselves, so they can breathe, eat, sneeze, speak very loudly.
- Hard of hearing and deaf need compensatory aids based on light (light/vibration ring, alarm clock, watch) or aids for amplification (Kompenzační a komunikační pomůcky pro neslyšící po celé ČR, 2014).
- Their pace of work is slower. They can be tired faster.
- Everything what is out of their field of vision doesn't exist.

People with intellectual disability

Psychologists diagnose intellectual disability when the person has IQ less than 70 (for better imagination average IQ is 90-110) (O testování, 2014). Etiology of intellectual disability is different; genetic condition, problems during pregnancy/childbirth (lack of oxygen, heavy, difficult childbirth, icterus, illness of mother during pregnancy), infectious diseases, injury can cause reduced intellect. If intellectual disability occurs within two year from childbirth, we speak about mental retardation, If it occurs later, we speak about dementia.

World health organization (ICD-10, 2010) divides mental retardation into these degrees:

- mild mental retardation,
- moderate mental retardation,
- severe mental retardation,
- profound mental retardation.

People with mild mental retardation are usually able to learn read, write and count. In early childhood the development of speech can be delayed, these children have bad pronunciation more often than intact children, they don't understand the meanings of words. They are able to talk about usual theme, talk about activities, people, things, what people with mild degree know. But if we ask them on something, what they don't know, they can be sheepish. Vocabulary can be smaller, mistakes in syntax can occur, they can't use grammatical rules. These people can take care of

themselves, they can live alone with occasional supervision of caregivers. They work rather manually (Müller, Valenta, 2007).

People with moderate mental retardation learn the basics of reading, writing and counting. These people are slower in perception and processing of stimuli in the central nervous system, their thinking is concrete without any abstraction, without logical thinking. They don't understand the sequence of things and phenomena, absence of the correct perception of the logical links and temporal succession. They pay attention shorter time than intact people, their memory is mechanic. The level of communication is variable, some people with moderate mental retardation are able to social interaction and communication, but their speech is poor, with a lot of mistakes and bad pronunciation. Some of them use only few words, failure in conversation. They need the supervision of caregivers (Švarcová, 2006).

People with severe mental retardation have severe limitation in self-care, continence and mobility. Disorders of perception and processing occur. They aren't able to learn, reason, make decisions and solve problems. The inclusion into majority is less common, they rather live in special institution. They don't like changes and they require system and order. Sometimes they self-injury, When these people don't understand the situation around them or the communication, they can be aggressive. Some of them are apathy, that means they lack of interest, they don't feel pleasure, sadness, anger, their movements are slow. Some of them are hyperactive, their attention is very short, things around them disperse them, they are impulsive. They don't talk, better way of communication is alternative and augmentative communication systems: pictures, photos, pictograms or real subjects (Švarcová, 2006).

Profound mental retardation cause the lack of independence, lack of self-care, immobility, severe disorders in perception, neurological disorders. Their communication is based on basic signals (pulse, breath, muscle tone, scream, facial expression). They need whole day care of caregiver (Müller, Valenta, 2007).

People with physical disability

Physical disability includes all of deviations which influence motor skills of an individual, deviations are caused defect on body, cerebral palsy, stroke, muscles and nerve diseases, trauma, pre-, peri- and post-natal causes. Symptoms which can occur are immobility (inability to move), involuntary movements (when person want to make a movement or stay calm, body suddenly doing, what it wants), inaccurate movements, slow movements, discoordinated movements. Next symptoms are delayed development of sensory perception, of mind because stimuli are unavailable due to reduced motor skills. Physical disability influence orofacial muscle too, that' why people with this kind of disability have speech disorders (Pipeková, 2010).

Cerebral palsy is one of the most common nervous system disease, which manifests by physical disability. Cerebral palsy is divided into spastic group, dyskinetic group, mixed group and cerebellar. People with spastic cerebral palsy have increased muscle tone, it is something like spasm, it is barrier to the movement, to the voice and speech. Spasm can affect legs, whole body or one half of body (right or left). Intellectual disability joins in spastic cerebral palsy. Dyskinetic group is characteristic involuntary movement of hands, legs, tongue. Intellect is often normal. People with physical disability have troubles in everyday activities, at work, in sport, in writing, painting, in oral motor skills, in manipulation with objects (fine motor skills), in walking, sitting. As you can see, problems are a lot (Kraus, 2005).

People with visual impairment

One of the most widespread visual impairment is myopia and farsightedness (let see pictures in annex), next is problems with binocular vision, problems in field of vision or blindness. Visual impairment brings many consequences. These people often speak about something, what they have never seen, simply repeat words, they don't understand some words. More abstract words, the bigger misunderstanding. Co-verbal behavior (during communication) can be impaired (no visual contact, stereotypic

movements, specific facial expression). People with visual impairment have troubles with orientation inside buildings, in town, on the railway station, at the airport, and with barriers. They don't see danger. Senses hearing and touches they use as a tool of observing of the world. People with visual impairment can't read ordinary letters (black/color letters in newspapers, documents, forms, magazines), the solution is tactile reading of Braille, disadvantage is that information in Braille isn't everywhere. Blind people or people with reduced vision flirt or find partner difficult, they fear of strangers. There are many compensatory aids for working, studying and everyday life (glasses, magnifying glass, equipment to the kitchen, aids with voice output, Picht typewriter for Braille) (Ludíková, 2004).

Educators and inclusive education

In regard of the fact that our research is directed to the field of special needs education, which represents, in the context of pedagogy and education, a very good example of an inter-field approach, we shall, at first, define the respective terminology. It is necessary to mention normalization, integration and inclusion. Probably the most fundamental statement in relation to upbringing and education was expressed in Salamanca statement (1994) by the representatives of 92 UNESCO member countries in their declaration. This declaration talks about tendencies leading to the elimination of discriminating attitudes through establishing open inclusive schools and, subsequently, through creating social consciousness directed also towards the principle of inclusion. The main issue discussed therein was education and that is why the principal theme characteristic for the entire recent process was: "Education for all". A significant attribute was the notion of *normalization*, which is closely linked with the requirement for adjustments of conditions ensuring "normal" life of people with mental disabilities. It was first introduced by a Danish lawyer Niels Erik Bank-Mikkelsen (1999). This concept was further evolved, especially in the north European countries and it was from there that it was disseminated to other countries as a set of principles. With respect to these principles, we may

mention the in accordance to Wikipedia fundamental view (2009), which ensures adjustments of the environment and the attitudes of society in such form that they comply with the needs of the people with mental disabilities. Adjustment – normalization refers to common every-day activities, involvement in every-day life of the society in the extent acceptable to each particular person. We are convinced that this concept then gave rise to a similar view also of the process of education (Gilbert, C. and Hart, M. 1990) and socialization of people with other types of disadvantages.

One of the most frequent definitions in our target sphere is *integration*. Specification of this definition is to be found in the regulation (2001) of the Ministry of Education CR and distinguishes individual and group integration.

The essential term for this study is *inclusion*. In Czech sources, the difference between integration and inclusion is, in some instances, not clear. E.g., Průcha (1998) defines inclusion in education as a result of a movement, which aims at creating conditions for integrated education for even severely handicapped individuals. The precise borderline between the two concepts is not always clearly specified. Written materials focusing on issues of the current education usually apply both notions only in a limited extent Průcha (2002), for instance. The term inclusion is associated with the change in special-needs-education paradigm (Forlin 2006). This shifts us back to the conference in Spanish Salamanca where inclusion became the key word. The final resolution states programmes focused on education of pupils with handicaps under the conditions of common schools, it highlights the principles of individualization both in planning the contents and the pace of education, and on the requirements for adjustments to the educational environment. It is fundamental that pre-school educational phase is included in the entire educational process and is considered an equal development phase. The concept of inclusion follows the basic human rights, which – if they are to be abided by – may not leave out the group of people with special needs Meijer, J.W. Ed. (2001). From our point of view, it is also important that this does not represent only a phase of educational activities, accomplished in handicapped people at the age of

twenty as a rule, but that it is envisaged as a life-long process inclusive of finding a place for an individual in the society and his/her involvement into the working life. At present, the process of inclusion is, in the Czech Republic, reflected e.g. in the implementation of general principles into a law of social services and its reflexion in standards of social services applied in real life practice.

Inclusion thus, for our purposes, represents a set of conditions, which, if they operate mutually/bilaterally, provide handicapped people with an approach by the majority society focusing on developing their potentials in individual sectors and supporting their abilities so that they become fully functional tools for maximum independent life within the society.

As it has been stated earlier, this approach was reflected in the change of a paradigm of special needs education, which has subsequently become a comprehensive pedagogical branch. In comparison with the preceding concept of handicap, mainly from the medical point of view, special needs education is envisaged today as a supportive line of education.

The objective is thus to prepare a handicapped individual for his/her life in the society so that his/her experience is of the highest possible quality and as close to the life of the majority (intact) population as possible. With respect to the fact that the educational stage partakes in the life quality to a greater degree, we speak here about *inclusive pedagogy* or *inclusive education*. Inclusive pedagogy represents, in our current concept, an approach, which respects diversity as a principal thought in the approach to the educational process. It is possible to claim that the line of inclusive pedagogy is a successor of the integration pedagogy. The fundamental difference lies in the fact that pedagogy, in the event of inclusion, operates with human rights. To simplify things, it may be stated that a school must be conformed to a child, not the child to the school (Groma 2008).

For the purpose of our study, we may summarize the fundamental difference between integration and inclusion, which lies in a diverse conception of a child – pupil. Integration conception respects diversities

between a group of handicapped children and a group of intact children. The main effort is to include or join two different groups (different in health conditions or educational needs) within the educational process and provide necessary support in special needs education wherever required. Inclusive pedagogy views children or pupils from such a position, which does not distinguish the differences caused by the above-mentioned reasons, but it is supposed to work with a group where each individual has his/her own particular needs compare with Milovanovitch (2009).

The relation between integration and inclusion can be clearly defined according to Kocurová (2002) as follows:

Integration – focus on needs of a handicapped individual, the expertise of professionals, special intervention, contribution for the integrated pupil, partial change of environment, focus on the educated handicapped pupil, special programmes for the handicapped pupil, and evaluation of the pupil by a professional.

Inclusion – focus on needs of all the educated, the expertise of common educators, substantial teaching for everybody, contribution for all pupils, overall change of the school, focus on the group and school, general strategy of a teacher, teacher evaluation, and focus on educational factors.

To sum up, the entire target group – in our case children and pupils, regardless of the presence, type or extent of handicap – underwent a complete change. The aims of the educational process are stipulated in a national and later, in the school educational curriculum and, if need be, in an individualized plan serving as a tool corresponding to specific needs. From the point of view of pedagogical policies and principles, there is no evident difference between inclusive and integrated education. Modern educational philosophy views, within the framework of the general pedagogy, the current trend as comprehensive. In this respect, e.g., R. Barrow and R. Woods (2006) mention on page 94 – 95 the requirements for educators and teachers who implement the process of education and characterize it as “rational” and explain it further from the point of view of

modern conception of pedagogy and the necessary competencies of teachers. Competencies of teachers towards handicapped children and pupils are dealt with in a publication by A. W. Brue and L. Wilmshurst (2005) who list the competencies of educators essential for work with children and pupils with various types of handicap and then also the special needs in education. With reference to the Act “Rehabilitation act of 1973”, and, especially, its section 504, the authors specify requirements for teachers regarding strategies focusing, e.g., on process organization, manifestation of behaviour, adjustments of the environment and conditions and others. Also a publication by K. Hull (2002) offers characteristics of inclusion and inclusive education and sees the following assumptions as fundamental (p. 13):

- Handicapped children may take part in the same educational programmes as their contemporaries.
- They can visit an environment which reflects their real age.
- They can, if need be, use individual approach in the form of an individualized educational plan (IEP).
- They have the right to receive support from the special needs education, according to their needs.

The same authors deal in their study with the requirements on educators working under the conditions of inclusion and, apart from practical competencies, try to refer to other presumptions, which they claim essential for performing this specific work. For our purposes, we can state in line with the above-mentioned authors, that the list of requirements and spectrum of pedagogical competencies are much more extensive in case of inclusive education (just like in integrated education). We are considering general educational work focused on children and pupils, both handicapped and intact, which naturally demands readiness and competencies of the respective pedagogical personnel. Hájková (2005) as well as Blake, N., Smeyers, P., Smith, R., Standish, P. (2006) defines professional competencies of a teacher as a set of prerequisites for performing teaching activities, and also as a capacity to act intelligently in situations, which are constantly new and unique, with the aim of finding a suitable on-the-spot

response. If a teacher possesses these abilities to evaluate and make decisions he/she is apt to choose suited responses in situations which can be completely new and unexpected – more about Lambe, (2007). Teachers are also responsible for development of personality at students group, sharing values, ethics and statements. Values are described as the most important part of mentioned students' development for example Orlovska, Roubalova (2010). With respect to the fact that our aim is not to present specific competencies expected of teachers specialized in the education of handicapped children (from the point of view of the type), taking into account the specificities of such a handicap, we state only as an illustration, the requirements on the situation of education of a child with impaired hearing. Apart from communication competencies in the Czech and sign languages at the common user's level, in order for the educational process to be performed, without any communication barrier as a limiting factor, we shall enumerate other fields where the teacher's awareness is assumed: emotional literacy – introduction to theory and practice of emotional life, definitions and descriptions of individual emotions and experience, self-control – conscious behaviour motivated through a pre-set goal, like social competencies – establishing and developing social skills adequate to the child's age, corresponding to the culture and environment in which the child is based, further on, the development of positive relationships with his/her contemporaries – exercise and development of social skills in a group of his/her contemporaries and, last but not the least, the skill to solve problems in inter-personal relationships. We are intentionally omitting the field of knowledge because we assume its definition in accordance with the national curriculum and success in the given department if the following conditions are met: communication competencies of the educator, on the one hand, and intellect corresponding to requirements for completion of primary education, on the other hand (Potmesil 2007).

The research results of studies conducted by D. J. Bjarnason (2005) in Iceland indicated a close cohesion between change of conditions within transformation of the traditional approaches to the form of inclusive education and their reflection in the preparation of future educators. From

the point of view of the monitored competencies and attitudes, the author is clearly speaking about "... changed general educator's roles in the face of growing student diversity".

It was these requirements bestowed on the educator and his/her personality in the process of inclusive education that prompted us to cooperate on the above-stated research. Inclusive education in conditions of Czech Republic rather integrated education. Such terminology deduced from the notion of inclusion occurs, at present, in our pedagogical documents merely in three instances: Bílá kniha (White Book) 2nd revision uses this term in the chapter 10. *Speciální vzdělávání (Special Needs Education)* parallel with the term integration and in relation to elimination of segregated education. Further, the Directive No. 17/2005 Coll., dated 27th July 2005 of further education of educators, accreditation committee and career system for educators, as amended in the Directive No. 412/2006 Coll., dated 14th August 2006, mentions the term of inclusion in relation to the requirements for education of educators with reference to the scope of their competencies. The third document is Methodological guideline for reimbursement of educators and other school employees, pre-school and school facilities and their ranking within the 16–wage-tariff catalogue of works, Ref. No.: 30 207/2003-2. Therein, *inclusion* is mentioned only once in relation to required professional competencies for qualifying for the 11th wage tariff. The respective legislation (School law – Act No. 61/2004 Coll., dated 24th September 2004 of pre-school, primary, secondary, college and other education (School law) as amended (the latest amendment No. 49/2009 Coll., dated 28th January 2009) or Methodological guideline for integration of handicapped children and pupils into schools and school facilities in the course of the school year 1997/1998, MŠMT ČR (Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports), ref. No. 18996/97-22., Directive No. 73/2005 Coll., dated 9th February 2005 of education for children, pupils and students with special educational needs and for children, pupils and students of prodigious talent, as amended by a regulation No. 62/2005 Coll., dated 19th March 2007.) is being applied in real every-day education. We are convinced that there exist many variants,

forms and methods of work relating to the mentioned educational forms. We were, like our colleagues from abroad, mostly interested in the attitudes, feelings and concerns of educators, who can, in their every-day practical life, expect a situation when they might educate a handicapped child and they should, naturally, succeed in their role of teachers and fulfil the required educational objective. The target group was selected from educators who were just about to start a 3-year specialized study of special needs education for teachers who had completed the Master's degree with specialization in teaching the intact population.

In order to be able to join in the research, we had to fill in the same questionnaire (Loreman et al. 2007) as our foreign colleagues, only that it is in Czech which does not differ in its meaning and items from the English original.

Analysis of the acquired data

At first, we processed the returned questionnaires from the first and the second phases from the point of view of demographic information.

The first phase involved 563 and the second phase 231 informants from all over the Czech Republic. The first phase addressed 22.4 % and the second 12.3 % of males. Females completed the whole with 77.6 % in the first and 87.7 % in the second phase. Statistically, prevalence of women was confirmed at the level of 0.001 of significance.

Out of the total number of 563, 13 informants were not working in the pedagogical field and 15 informants were for various reasons out of the working process at that moment. The age of informants oscillated in the first phase 32.8 % (and 27.9 % in the second phase, respectively) up to the age of 29 years, 37.8 % (42 % respectively) fell into the category of 30 – 39 years and 29.4 % (30.1 % respectively) above the age of 40.

The education level of our informants was as follows: 59.5 % informants in the first phase and 59.8 % in the second phase completed their secondary schools education, 24.6 % informants in the first phase and 31.1 % in the second phase completed their study with a Bachelor's degree and 15.9 % informants in the first phase and 8.7 % in the second phase

completed their study of a Master's degree. A mere 0.5 % of the informants of the second phase had completed their doctorate programme (PhD).

Regular and frequent contact with handicapped people was reported by 42.5 % of informants in the first phase and 68 % in the second phase. 57.5 % informants did not have any the chance of such encounters in the first phase and 32 % in the second phase.

The query about previous professional preparation for teaching practise specialized to handicapped people was evaluated as follows: without preparation: first phase 50.5 %, second phase 15.5 %; preparation assessed as very insufficient – first phase 21.9 % and second phase 15.1 %, preparation sufficient (completion of a specialized course consisting of, at least, 40 hours of training) first phase 28.1 % and second phase 69.4 %. Here, the difference in feeling the increase in educational level among the informants of the first and second phases is quite obviously reflected. The statistical significance of the difference in the monitored waves is proved at the level of 0.0001.

Awareness of the respective legislation and organization of education of handicapped people was evaluated by our informants as very good in the first phase by 2.1 % and in the second phase by 4.6 % of informants, as good by 21.7 % and 30.6 % informants, respectively. 32.1 % informants of the first phase assessed their awareness as average whereas in the second phase it was 52.5 % of the monitored cohort. Insufficient awareness was reported in 22.9 % informants in the first phase and 8.2 % in the second phase. The last option – no awareness was selected by 21.1 % informants in the first phase and 4.1 % in the second phase. The difference in perceiving one's own awareness of the discussed issue was among the monitored waves confirmed at the level of significance of 0.001 for the benefit of the second phase.

Another item was the feeling of confidence when teaching handicapped pupils. This perception was evaluated as very good by 7.3 % informants in the first phase and 6.5 % in the second phase; as good by 25.7 % informants in the first phase and 43.3 % in the second phase. The feeling was evaluated as average by 30.3 % informants in the first phase

and 33.5 % in the second phase. Evaluation as low was reported by 18.4 % in the first phase and 8.8 % in the second phase. Feeling of prevailing uncertainty was chosen by 18.4 % informants in the first phase and 7.9 % in the second one. Feeling of certainty when teaching handicapped pupils increases relatively with the length of study. We have proved a statistically significant difference at the level of 0.001.

Insufficient experience with education of handicapped pupils was perceived by 49.2 % informants in the first phase and 19.8 % in the second phase. 26.4 % of informants in the first phase and 30.4 % in the second phase marked their experience as scarce but still sufficient. The last option – sufficient (i.e. at least 30days of training) – was selected by 24.4 % of informants in the first phase and 49.8 % in the second one. The issue of experience with education of handicapped pupils proved to be dependent on the length of study. At the level of significance 0.001, we have confirmed a difference in the acquired experience among informants of the first and the second phases.

Our analysis focused also on the other part of the questionnaire and we present the results in the following text and try to clarify them in the discussion part. Evaluation of the statements was as follows: definitely yes AA, yes A, no N, definitely not NN. These are the abbreviations that will be applied in the text to come.

1. The statement “I don’t mind the company of handicapped people” was evaluated with strong consent by 97 % of informants in both waves (AA or A).

2. Further on, 94.9 % informants in both waves stated (NN or N) that they are not apprehensive of direct contact with handicapped people.

3. The statement that pupils and students suffering from problems with communication by spoken language can be included in classrooms of standard schools was marked as AA or A by 83 % informants.

4. Also the statement that pupils and students requiring presence of an assistant can be included in classrooms of standard schools was marked as AA or A by 89.6 % informants.

5. The statement that pupils and students with signs of aggressive behaviour can be included in classrooms of standard schools was marked as NN by 70.8 % informants in the first phase and 68.6 % in the second phase. At the level of 0.01, there exists a significant difference between the evaluations of this statement as valid or invalid in the first and second phases.

6. The statement that pupils and students requiring individualized educational plan can be included in classrooms of standard schools was marked as AA or A by 64.5 % informants in the first phase and 87.6 in the second phase. Also this item showed statistically significant difference at the level of, at least, 0.001 between the evaluations of the statement as truthful in the first and second phases, compared with its negation in both waves.

7. In both waves of the research, informants were addressed with the statement that pupils and students who need special communication techniques for their education (Braille, sign language) belong to classrooms of standard schools. 45.4 % informants in the first phase and 59.9 % in the second phase marked this statement as true. Statistical processing of the results obtained in both waves showed that the answers between the first and the second phases differ at the level of significance of 0.001 detrimental to the acceptance of pupils with specific communicational needs.

8. The statement that pupils and students with attention deficits belong to classrooms of standard schools was evaluated as true by 60.9 % informants in the first phase and even 77 % in the second phase. The majority of informants in both waves expressed their consent to the presence of pupils with attention deficits in the inclusive education, and the level of significance was, at least, 0.001.

9. Another statement to be evaluated was: “Pupils and students who systematically fall behind in their educational results belong to classrooms of standard schools”. In the first phase of the research, 58.9 % informants in the first phase and 46.5 % in the second phase agreed with this statement.

10. Informants were to evaluate the following statement: “I’m convinced that the presence of a handicapped pupil or student shall significantly increase my work load”. 69.3 % of informants in the first phase and 72 % in the second phase evaluated this statement as truthful.

11. The statement: “I’m not convinced of the quality and effectiveness of support, which is provided when educating integrated handicapped pupils and students on the part of professional workplaces” was evaluated as true by 58.3 % of informants in the first phase and 58.8 % in the second phase compare with findings Valeo (2008).

12. The educators’ own competencies were to be characterized by the following statement: “I’m not convinced that my preparation for working with handicapped pupils and students is sufficient for achieving the required results”. Accordant evaluation was expressed by 58.9 % of informants in the first phase and 46.5 % in the second phase. Statistical analysis showed that informants in both waves are worried about the sufficiency of their competencies for working in the environment of inclusive education.

13. The questionnaire also monitored the ideas of the informants about the organization of the educational process through the following statement: “I’m convinced of the fact that on my part it is not possible to pay the necessary attention to an integrated pupil or student”. 36.4 % of informants in the first phase and 31.2 % in the second phase evaluated this statement as truthful.

14. Another statement presented to our informants was as follows: “I’m apprehensive that handicapped pupils or students shall not be well accepted in a classroom of intact contemporaries”. 39.6 % of informants expressed their consent with this statement in the first phase, and 41.7 % in the second one.

15. Concerns about direct contact were expressed in the last statement: “I regard the presence of a handicapped pupil or student in a classroom as a great source of psychological load for myself”. It was evaluated as true by 27.7 % of informants in the first phase and 29.6 % in the second phase.

In order to conduct further analysis, we divided the above-mentioned items into two groups:

1. **Labour input and stress** – 1, 2, 10, 11, 12, 13 and 15.

Should we consider the group of statement referring to labour input and stress when working with handicapped pupils and students under the conditions of integrated education, then we can sum up the following from the acquired data:

- More than 90 % of informants of both waves do not have a negative relationship towards handicapped people.
- Approximately 70 % of informants in both waves believe that the presence of a pupil with special educational needs in a classroom shall increase their work load.
- 58 % informants in both waves expressed their misgivings of sufficient support for integrated education on the part of professional workplaces.
- The level of one's own competencies was regarded as insufficient by 58.9 % of informants in the first phase and 46.5 % in the second phase.
- More than 30 % of informants (36.4, resp. 31.2) voiced their concerns that it is not possible to pay enough attention to a pupil with specific educational needs.
- The presence of a handicapped pupil was regarded as a great source of stress by 27.7 % of informants in the first phase and 29.6 % in the second one.

2. **The Education Process and its management** – 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 14.

In this set of statements, we were looking for answers regarding the process of inclusive education and the opinions of educators about managing their tasks.

- Statements focusing on the presence of pupils with impaired communication competencies and the possible presence of an assistant were evaluated positively by over 90% of informants in both waves.

- Almost 70 % of informants in both waves negated the possibility to incorporate pupils with aggressive behaviour into a standard classroom in the form of inclusive education.
- A shift in the evaluation of effectiveness and acceptability of work according to an individualized plan was demonstrated, when comparing the results of the first phase as 64.5 % and the second phase as 87.6 %.
- Concerns about the application of special communication techniques were expressed by 45.4 % of informants in the first phase and by 59.9 % in the second phase.
- 60 to 80 % informants did not show any concerns about working with pupils with ADHD disorders.
- The presence of pupils who are constantly unsuccessful at school results is unthinkable for 58.9 % informants in the first phase and 46.5 % in the second phase.
- Problems with acceptance of handicapped pupils by intact classmates were expected in both waves by approximately 40 % of informants.

Conclusions relating to the labour input and stress and the process of education and its management:

The informants of our research relate positively to handicapped people, more than half of them are concerned about insufficient support for integrated education from professional workplaces, they realize higher work load but implementation of inclusive education does not seem to bring about any increased stress level for them. A half of the informants sense a lack of competencies and, consequently, also concerns about whether they will not be able to pay sufficient attention to pupils with special needs. About the workload and decreasing feelings of overload is reporting Potmesilova (2012) and offers supervision as a tool to help teachers. Further on, our informants showed willingness to accept a pupil with specific needs and possibly even co-operation with an assistant. Work based on individualized plan is accepted by informants and is regarded as beneficial. They, however, refuse to work with students with behavioural

disorders in the extent of aggressiveness as constantly unsuccessful, whereas working with pupils with attention disorders does not seem to cause any concerns. A proportion of informants (40 %) expressed their concerns about the acceptance of pupils with specific needs into the society of an intact group in a classroom.

If we are to search for answers concerning sentiments, attitudes and concerns of educators when working under the conditions of inclusion, then we can state that the sample of informants addressed in our research demonstrated conscious willingness to co-operate on projects of individual inclusion. They feel, however, concerns on key items about lack of professional competencies and support and effectiveness of such educational work. Our research did not, against our expectations, show any significant difference in the stated items – shift towards better results - when comparing the results before commencement of the study and after its completion.

The following statements were formed during discussion of all partners, during project FRVŠ 2012/2300 and during practice.

Some solutions for people with hearing impairment with using creativity

- The first thing before start of communication is the establishment of visual contact.
- Person with hearing loss has to see your face (due to lipreading, facial expression), so choose correct place to sit/stand. Person with HL must not sits/stands against window/light source, vice versa he should be back to the window/light source.
 - No need to shout.
 - We should reduce loud sounds, which disturb.
 - For better understanding use speech, signs, pictures all together. These communication systems help visualize information.
- If an interpreter is present, we talk directly with person with hearing impairment, no with an interpreter. This person only translates what deaf “talking”, an interpreter does not speak/act for him.

- People with HI use compensatory aids, for example devices for amplification, microphone, hearing aids, headset, devices based on the light/vibration (Kompenzační a komunikační pomůcky pro neslyšící po celé ČR, 2014).
 - Important equipment/activities locate into their visual field.
 - Bear in mind the limited access to information. They aren't stupid.
 - The lipreading and the watching face/hands of speakers is very challenging, people with HI can be tired, so tolerance is required.
 - Because primary language of deaf is sign language and language of majority is foreign for them, this is the reason why they make mistakes in language of majority. Tolerance of mistakes in oral and written expression is necessary.
 - Teachers should give pupils written lecture before beginning of lessons. Sometimes another person helps pupils/students with hearing impairment during lesson with writing notes. So pupils can „listen to“ a lecture, watch teacher face, teacher hands.

Some solution for people with intellectual disability with using creativity

- For better illustration we can use procedural scheme which visualize the action. Procedural scheme shows sequence of situation on pictures step by step.
 - Pupils need the modification of learning content. Their teachers use special methods, forms of education. For pupils with severe and profound mental retardation the learning content is even reduced. People who work with people with intellectual disability should tolerate their pace of work, which is slower even very slow.
 - As it was said pupils with more severe mental retardation don't talk. They communicate with alternative and augmentative communication systems. Pictograms, pictures and photos are the most widely used. Pictures (as well as pictograms or photos) are sorted into communication book. Pupils carry this book with themselves whole day.

- The multisensory approach is suitable for developing communication and during lessons. That means teachers use all of senses: taste, smell, touch, sight and hearing. For example when pupils learn about forest, teachers speak about trees, animals, flowers, teachers can use fragrant oil (pine, grass, flowers), they can bring cones, needles, plush animals for touching, blueberries or raspberries for tasting. Multisensory approach helps better understanding situation, people, things around people with disability. This approach is used for example in Snoezelen rooms (Fajmonová, Chovancová, 2008).

- Teachers, people who work with people with intellectual disability have to respect the presence of an assistant. Assistants very often accompany pupils during lesson at school. Assistants help pupils with learning, with homework but and with self-care, hygiene, getting dressed, transport to the school and so on.

- TEACCH is methodic of teaching and working for people with intellectual disability and autism spectrum disorders. TEACCH brings a system and an order into life of these people, reduces chaos. The basic principle contains a clear structure (structure of place, of time, of activity), an individual approach, a visualization (Čadilová, Žampachová, 2008).

Some solution for people with physical disability with using creativity

- It is necessary to reduce barriers, provide easy access, remove barriers (stairs, curbs, objects stored high, toilets, wide door).

- For above mentioned reasons we can use compensatory aids (wheelchair, platform, climber, handle, lift, sticks, special aids for writing, for sport, modified equipment, modified car),

- These people go to rehabilitation, to special exercise, physiotherapy. Employers, teachers should tolerate the more frequent attendance to the doctor or often illness. Physical disabled need exercise during work, lesson.

- Imagine that you sit whole day without walking, standing, any other movement, your body will hurt after 15 minutes. The changing

position is very important, people can change wheelchair behind rehabilitation ball, use positioning aids.

- Some people can't take care of themselves, their independence is limited and they need the help of other people. Personal assistant helps with feeding, getting dressed, assistance in toilet, overcome the obstacle, helps with learning, accompanies to the authorities and so on.

- Pupils often can't write, teachers should permit to use PC, special keyboard, PC mouse, tablets.

- The speech is influenced by variable muscle tone, by disruption of fine motor skills. The speech may not be intelligible, this is the reason for communication with pictures, pictograms, tablets despite of they are intelligent. Sometimes speech disorders aren't so severe, but we should tolerate speech of people with physical disability.

- These people may not be stupid, they have limited access to information.

Some solution for people with visual impairment with using creativity

- During hygiene of sight the lighting (special fluorescent tube, jalousie, lamps) is very important, ophthalmologist suggests more or less lighting for comfortable work. Some people need sit next the window and light lamp, but another one hate light, they are light shy, even light causes headache. Illumination related to correct place to sit (close to window, the first desk).

- As it was said blind people or people with rest of sight can't read newspapers, magazines, textbooks for this reason bigger font or Braille is better. It is a way of getting information.

- 3D models for the explanation during lessons are another way of better getting information. For people with good sight pictures are enough, they can imagine, understand how objects look, work. Blind people use only touches, so 3D models or relief pictures are one of possibilities how get idea about world.

- People with visual impairment use aids with voice output, everything what we see they need hear. Special PC programs read documents and interpret to blind person. Books are narrated Phone with voice output can read SMS.
- Dog is necessary for orientation, as a guide, it is an assistance of specially trained dog, so it is almost always with blind person (in the office, in waiting rooms, in shops, at school).

Conclusion

In the article it was present actual topic of inclusion – the integration of people with special needs into majority. Readers can find information about people with hearing and visual impairment, about people with intellectual and physical disability and issue of inclusion with results of research, which was based on project PdF_2011_005. Special educator is hard work, but and here is a place for creativity as you could see in part about solution for people with special needs (FRVŠ 2012/2300). It is clear that there isn't complete information about people with special needs and their problems. It is a brief overview.

REFERENCES

- Barrow, R., Woods, R.(2006) *An Introduction to Philosophy of Education*. 4th edition, Routledge,
- Blake,N., Smeyers, P., Smith, R., Standish, P. (2006) *Philosophy of Education*.5th edition, Malden: Blackwell Publishing,
- Bjarnason, D. (2005) Disability studies and their importance for special education professionals. *Nordisk Pedagogik*, . 25,339-356.
- Brue, A.W., Wilmshurst,L. (2005) *A Parent's Guide to Special Education*. New York : AMACOM.
- Čadilová, V, Žampachová, Z. (2008) *Strukturované učení*. Praha: Portál.
- Fajmonová, J., Chovancová,M. (2008) *Možnosti využití snoezelenu při práci s žáky v ZŠ speciální*.Praha: IPPP ČR.

Flynn, R. J., Lemay, R. A. (1999) (Edit.) *A Quarter-century of normalization and social role of valorization: evaluation and impact*. Ottawa: University of Ottawa Press.

Forlin, Ch. (2006) Inclusive Education in Australia ten years after Salamanca. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*. XXI. 3, 265 – 277.

Hájková, V (2005). *Integrativní pedagogika*. Praha: IPPP ČR.

Hull, K., Goldhaber, J., Capone, A. (2002) *Opening doors*. Boston : Houghton Mifflin Comp.

Gilbert, C. and Hart, M. (1990). *Towards Integration: special needs in an ordinary school*. London : Kogan

Groma M. (2008) Teoretické východiská pre kariérové poradenstvo v podmienkach sluchového postihnutia. In: Krocanova, L.- Zubová, M. (Eds.) *Špeciálnopedagogické poradenstvo*. Bratislava : MPC, pp. 16-20.

Jesenský, J (1995) *Kontrapunktý integrace zdravotně postižených*. Praha : Karolinum.

Kocourová M. a kol. (2002) *Speciální pedagogika pro pomáhající profese*. Plzeň: ZČU.

Kompenzační a komunikační pomůcky pro neslyšící po celé ČR. (2014). *Unie neslyšících Brno*. Dostupné z: <http://www.pomuckyproneslyšici.cz/>

Kraus, M. (2005) *Dětská mozková obrna*. Praha: Grada.

Lambe, J. (2007) Northern Ireland students teachers changing attitudes towards inclusive education during initial teacher training. *International journal of special education*. 22. 1. 59-71.

Loreman, T., Earle, Ch., Sharma, U., Forlin, Ch. 2006. Pre-service Teachers' Attitudes, Concerns and Sentiments about Inclusive Education: an International comparison of the novice pre-service teachers. *International Journal of Special Education*. 21.2. 80 – 93.

Loreman, T., Earle, Ch., Sharma, U., Forlin, Ch. (2007) The Development of an Instrument for Measuring Pre-service Teachers' Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns about Inclusive Education. *International Journal of Special Education*. 22. 2. 150 – 160.

- Ludíková, L. (2004) *Tyflopedie předškolního věku*. Olomouc: VUP
- Meijer, J.W. Ed. (2001) *Inclusive Education and Effective Classroom Practices*. Odsense : European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education
- Milovanovitch, M. (2009) *Teacher Education for Diversity*. ERI SEE Zagreb
- Orlovská, M., Roubalová, M. (2010) Učitelé a hodnoty – životní postoj učitele a předávání hodnot. *Mládež a hodnoty 2010: Výchova k hodnotám v kontextu pluralitní a multikulturní polečnosti*. Sborník z konference pořádané CMTF UP Olomouc ve dnech 4. – 5. 11. 2010. Olomouc: Hanex
- O testování (2014) *Mensa České republiky*. Dostupné z: <http://www.mensa.cz/testovani-iq/>
- Pipeková, J. (2010) *Kapitoly ze speciální pedagogiky* Brno: Paido
- Potměšil, M. (2007) *Sebereflexe a sluchové postižení*. Praha: UK Praha, Karolinum.
- Potměšilová, P. (2010) Jazyk a jeho znakovost v edukaci. In: POTMĚŠIL, M. a kol.: *Psychosociální aspekty sluchového postižení*. 1. vyd. Brno : MU, s. 81-91.
- Potměšilová, P. (2012) Možnosti a limity supervize v práci pedagogických pracovníků. *Špeciálna pedagogika na Slovensku v kontexte rokov 1967-2012*. Zborník z medzinárodnej vedeckej konferencie. Bratislava, 3.-4.10.2012, s. 564-572.
- Průcha, J., Walterová, E., Mareš, J. (1998) *Pedagogický slovník*. 2. vydání. Praha: Portál.
- Průcha, J. (2002) *Moderní pedagogika*. 2. přepracované vydání. Praha : Portál.
- Slowík, J. 2007. *Speciální pedagogika*. Praha: Grada.
- Švarcová, I. (2006) *Mentální retardace*. Praha: Portál.
- Valenta, M. a Müller, O. 2007. (*Psychopedie*). Parta.
- Valeo, A. (2008) Inclusive education support systems teacher and administrator view. *International journal of special education*. 23. 2. 8-16.

[http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Normalisation_\(people_with_disabilities\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Normalisation_(people_with_disabilities))
) - 20.4.2009

The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education. World Conference on Special Needs Education: Access and Quality, Salamanca, Spain, 7- 10 June 1994, United Nations, Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization Ministry of Education and Science Spain

School law – Act No. 561/2004 Coll., dated 24th September 2004 of pre-school, primary, secondary, college and other education (School law) as amended (the latest amendment No. 49/2009 Coll., dated 28th January 2009)

Methodological guideline for integration of handicapped children and pupils into schools and school facilities in the course of the school year 1997/1998, MŠMT ČR (Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports), ref. No. 18996/97-22.,

Directive No. 73/2005 Coll., dated 9th February 2005 of education for children, pupils and students with special educational needs and for children, pupils and students of prodigious talent, as amended by a regulation No. 62/2005. Dated 19th March 2007.

ANNEX

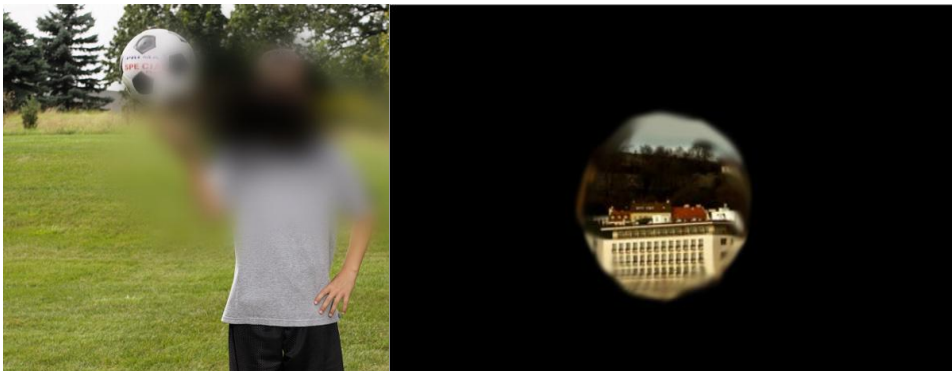


Myopia (<http://www.atheistrev.com>)
(<http://www.2012rok.sk>)

Farsightedness



Problems with binocular vision (<http://cs.wikipedia.org/strabismus>)



Problems in field of vision (<http://www.sciencezoom.cz>)



Procedural scheme
 (<http://www.oskola.cz>)



Structured class,
 Place to work
<http://www.oaklands.hounslow.sch.uk>



Structured class (<http://www.vcoe.org>)
 timetable



Structured



Structured task (<http://www.autismo.nutricao.inf.br>)



Hearing aids (<http://www.illinoissoundbeginnings.org/page.aspx?item=10>)



Cochlear implant
(<http://www.gong.cz>)



Subtitle in TV (<http://www.weheartit.com>)



Vibration alarm clock
(<http://www.auris-audio.cz>)



Modified PC mouse (<http://www.petit-os.cz>)



Wall for learning activities (<http://www.nemji.cz>)

Platform (<http://www.zena-in.cz>)



Basketball on wheelchair (<http://www.zimbio.com>)



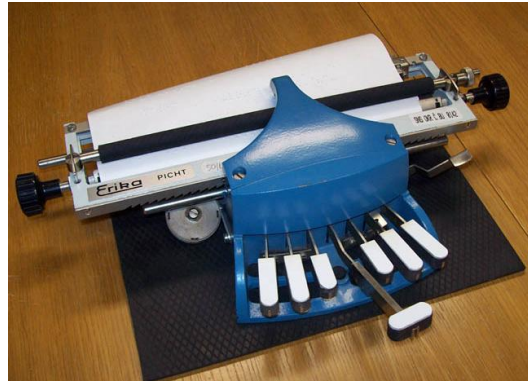
Modified driving in car (<http://www.zakruta.cz>)

Sledge hockey (<http://common.wikimedia.org>)

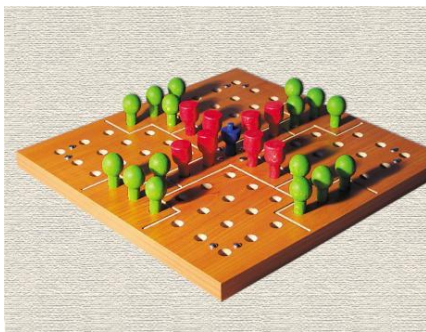




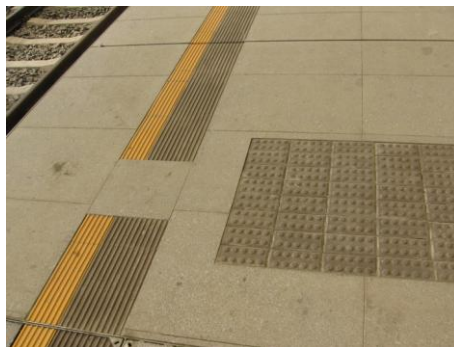
Relief picture
(<http://www.lidemezilidmi.cz>)



Picht typewriter
(<http://www.abclinuxu.cz>)



Touch game
(<http://www.gerlich-odry.cz>)



Guide line at the railway station
(<http://www.coming.cz>)



Equipment for everyday life
(<http://www.pomucky.blindfriendly.cz>)

GIFTED AND TALENTED CHILDREN IN OUR CLASSROOMS

Monika Kunhartová

Palacky University-Olomouc-Czech,
monikakunhartova@seznam.cz

Miluše Jílková

Palacky University-Olomouc-Czech

Michaela Čachotská

Palacky University-Olomouc-Czech

Hana Křištofová

Palacky University-Olomouc-Czech

Abstract

The education of exceptionally children, pupils and students requires supporting measures, which are different or outside the common education of other pupils. It means the using special methods, procedures, forms and resources, special textbooks, teaching aids, the reducing the number of classmates or changes in organisation, all of supporting measures respect special educational needs of gifted children, pupils and students (Vyhláška č. 73/2005 Sb. v platném znění). That's why we pay attention these pupils. Those who excel in academic disciplines are termed 'gifted'.

„I never teach my pupils. I only attempt to provide the conditions in which they can learn.”

(Einstein)

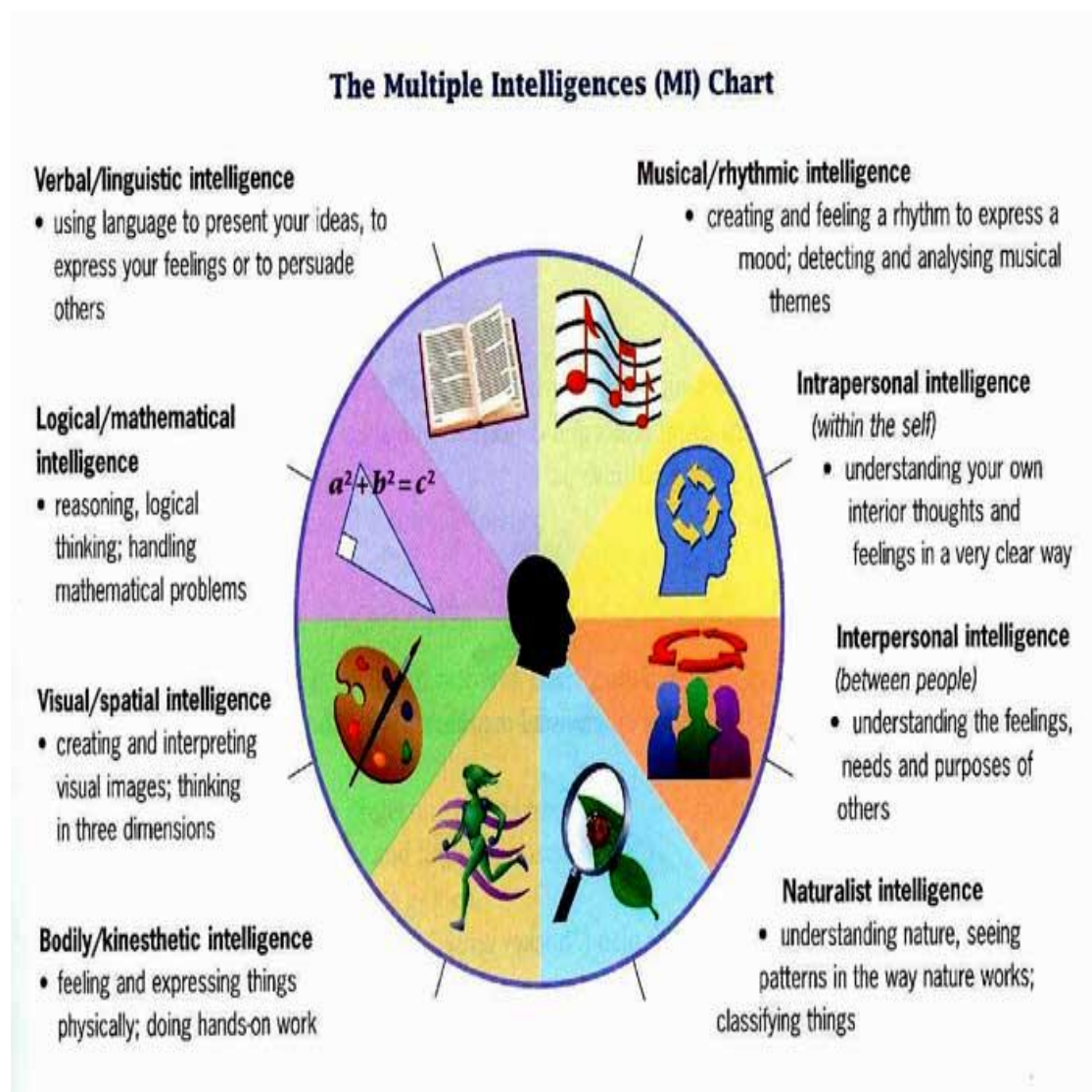
Introduction

Gifted and talented pupils are children with special educational needs, as we will see.

The education of exceptionally children, pupils and students requires supporting measures, which are different or outside the common education of other pupils. It means the using special methods, procedures, forms and resources, special textbooks, teaching aids, the reducing the number of classmates or changes in organisation, all of supporting measures respect special educational needs of gifted children, pupils and students (Vyhláška č. 73/2005 Sb. v platném znění). That's why we pay attention these pupils. Those who excel in academic disciplines are termed '**gifted**'. Those who excel in areas requiring visual-spatial skills or practical abilities are '**talented**': Art, Dance, Drama, Music, Sport (Laznibatová, 2001). Some authors don't make differences between these terms and they use them as synonym (Davis, Rimmová, 1998). Completely different is conception of abilities, talent, gift, creativity and genius. Abilities (perceptual, psychomotor, intellectual, artistic) have innate base – talent. If talent doesn't developed, it gradually loses importance. Above average developed talents is called gift (in this conception). In case of extremely developed talent, when person achieves the highest level of intellectual and creative abilities, we speak about genius. A special kind of the ability is creativity, the creativity includes creative abilities, which help us see and use things in new relations, perceive new questions, suggest original solution, further includes imagination and intuition (Dočkal, 2005).

In according with the gift psychologists speak about multiple intelligence by Gardner (1999). Intelligence is categorized into three primary or overarching categories, those of which are formulated by the abilities. In according with Gardner, intelligence is 1. The ability to create an effective product or offer a service

that is valued in a culture, 2. a set of skills that make it possible for a person to solve problems in life, 3. the potential for finding or creating solutions for problems, which involves gathering new knowledge (Gardner, 2000). Multiple intelligence includes these parts: logical-mathematical, linguistic, bodily/kinesthetic, spatial, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, naturalistic. We have all of them less or more, each individual possesses a unique blend of all the intelligences. Gifted people have more, much more developed one or more of them (Gardner, 1999). For better illustration, check the picture (Pic. 1).



Pic. 1. Multiple Intelligences (from: <http://www.careernotes.ca/unit1/4-multiple-intelligences/>)

Characteristic of gifted and talented pupils in positive sense

They are more mature than their contemporary in learning and performance, they learn more quickly. They have great memory, wide vocabulary, advanced verbal speech. They ask searching questions, they are curious. They challenge accepted theories. They are autonomous learners; they are motivated more than contemporary. They think logically and deal with more complex mental operations, they look for new, unusual solution or several solutions, not only one. They have a vivid imagination, they are able to work with abstract ideas. They see relations, connections, causes, consequences clearly. They often have a lot of hobbies. They often display a keen sense of humour (Winebrenner, 2001).

Characteristic of gifted and talented pupils in negative sense

Gifts are not the same as personal strengths. People may be gifted in one area but not in others, their development can be asymmetric, they have excellent knowledge (higher mental age), but practical/physical skills don't appropriate for the age. They are inabled to form relationships, they can feel alone (nobody have the same hobby, interests as them), there is a problem with integration into contemporaries. They sense that they are different, it could be reason of increasing emotionality, that's why they are more vulnerable. Sometimes they are target of jokes. Gifted students have excellent knowledge, they are mature, but their chronological age is lower, there is the disbalance between mental age and chronological age. Some of them need a lot of time to find all of solutions, rest of them are aimed at the fastest solution. Some of them are sloppy, they refuse to work. They are nervous during common pace of work in classroom, protest against the routine work. Gifted student in class means bigger requirements on teacher's preparation. In mainstream class, where are usually 30 pupils, there is no time to work with gifted, if gifted pupils has not enough attention, they can start disturbing. In case of incidence of learning disabilities, they have no possibility to develop their knowledge, talent (Winebrenner, 2001; Potměšilová, 2013).

Gifted Underachievers

Among gifted students we can find underachievers. Their misbehavior has many causes. If teachers don't pay enough attention these students or if they give them easy tasks, uninteresting tasks, if teachers don't respect their individuality, gifted students can start to disturb, mooch. This behavior needn't be caused by teachers, it can be poor education but also birth etiology. There are several characteristics for gifted slob (Jurášková, 2006):

- bored and restless with flashes of brilliance or interest,
- high quality oral work but poor written work,
- poor test results but asks searching questions,
- dislike of routine work – often unfinished,
- creative interests or hobbies outside school but not reflected inside school,
- disruptive behaviour in some lessons but not in others where work is challenging,
- low self esteem or highly self critical,
- hostile to authority and able to articulate this,
- high nonverbal Cognitive Abilities Test score but lower average.

Special attention should be given to the 'hidden gifted'. Be careful, among children and students there can be these hidden talents. For example people with Down syndrome, who have often intellectual disability, draw or dance very well, they feel rhythm and can express it. People with another disability are very good at sport. If a minority student can't speak our language it doesn't mean he is stupid. Students from poor families have not any possibility, money to develop their creativity. Gifted students with specific learning disabilities have troubles with development of their gift (Hříbková, 2008).

Models for identification

We recognize them by the talent, we can compare them with peers, with majority. In accordance with school definition these pupils have excellent results, learn and memory easier, they invent new solutions (Pfeiffer, 2002).

Teachers, parents, special educational teachers and psychologists should cooperate on a diagnostic process. In The Czech Republic these students have to be examined in Educational-psychological consultancy or in Special educational centre. Complex diagnosis includes: anamnesis (family and personal), intellectual level, an assessment of creativity, personality, social and communication skills, mathematic skills, level of reading and writing, spatial perception and right-left orientation, their specific of work, strategies of thinking, partial cognitive abilities (attention, memory, perception), motivation and interests, exceptional abilities at school and outside school, in case of need professional orientation (Standard komplexního vyšetření mimořádného nadání v PPP, 2014).

Psychologists use Cognitive abilities tests (Intelligence tests), results are in quotients, an average is about 100 points, above-average is more than 120 points (Říčan, Krejčířová, 2005). Let see the table (Tab. 1) with list of levels of intelligence and occurrence.

Table 1. Levels of IQ

IQ	Expected skills of individual	Occurrence in %
above 140	Genius. Absolutely creative. They show the direct of knowledge to the others.	0,2 %
till 140	Exceptional intelligence. Great specialists. Extraordinary creative.	2,8 %
till 130	Highly above-average intelligence. Great results at University and at appropriate work.	6 %
till 120	Above-average intelligence. University. Sometimes extraordinary work place.	12 %
till 110	Highly average intelligence. University with trouble.	25 %
till 100	Average intelligence. High school. Middle position at work.	25 %
till 90	Slightly below average intelligence. Training. Manual work.	10 %
till 80	Below average intelligence. Training with trouble. Manual work.	10 %
till 70	Mild mental retardation. Special school. Manual work.	6,8 %
till 50	Moderate mental retardation. Limited self-care, communication, education.	2 %
till 20	Severe mental retardation. Almost no education, immobility, basal communication.	0,2 %

In according with Betts and Neihart (1988) we recognize seven types of gifted students. We can meet successful gifted. These students achieve highly at school, they are perfect at school, work, but they lack autonomy and assertiveness. Next type is challenging gifted, who are highly creative, but frustrated, bored, sometimes rebellious, challenge school rules, conventions. Underground gifted may be insecure, shy, quiet, avoid taking risks, many are never identified as gifted. Gifted dropouts fail to complete school work, their level of achievement fall well below their ability. Students are angry, because they feel that the system has failed to meet their needs. Among these types we can find double-labeled, that means student is gifted and also disabled. Autonomous gifted student is confident, independent, self-directed. He is willing to take risks, he sets goals for themselves. Culturally diverse, the last type, may not be recognized or valued due to low teacher expectation or values and behavior of their culture may discourage them from displaying their abilities.

The Influence of the Classroom Practice on Creativity of Gifted Children

„People often see creativity and giftedness as disconnected concepts, thinking of “creativity“ as referring to artictic ability and “giftedness“ as applying to exceptional academic intelligence.“ (Matthews, Foster, 2009, p.31). On the other hand, those components seem to have a lot in common to many teachers, educators and authors dealing with the issues of gifted children. They do not say that being gifted automatically means being creative, they just acknowledge the interweaving between those terms. (Matthews, Foster, 2009). Generally, gifted students are expected to bring new ways of solutions into the problems solved in their domain subjects, perhaps more unusual and somehow surprising ones. Could gifted children really satisfy those expectations not being creative? Logically, to find different solution, to choose another ways of the result-making process requires the presence of divergent thinking. This type of thinking, giving preference to think on your own and to create innovative possibilities of getting a correct solution constitutes “ *an essential component of*

creativity, and certainly by most definition, one must be thinking laterally or „outside of the box“ and generating innovative ideas in order to be doing creative work.“ (Matthews, Foster, 2009, p.33).

However, we as teachers should encourage divergent thinking and so creativity of gifted pupils. This support can be done by many adjustments and approaches of the teachers – of us. Mainly teachers and educators are in charge of very important step toward development of gifted children and their natural progress in their domains, which is to adapt classroom conditions, educational methods, attitudes of the teachers and so on (Robinson, Shore, Enersen, 2007). One more important task expected to happen is to acquaint the rest of the class about their new potential classmate (in case he/she becomes from lower grades) in particular subject or at least about the coming changes in educational approaches toward their gifted classmate. It is recommended to talk about it in advance and very good option seems to be the utilization of the school psychologist.

To talk about some effective methods of working with gifted children in the school environment we should go back and start with supporting them as effective thinkers. As we mentioned earlier, gifted pupils should realize we want them to think „outside of the box“ (Matthews, Foster, 2009) it means not to follow exact order in the problem-solving process, not to copy the order explained by the teacher, but find a new way. Teachers also try to make them to think critically and be able to choose the best solution (Matthews, Foster, 2009). Moreover, it is worth training them in decision – making as well. There are any numbers of riddles or brainteasers for the beginning of the lessons. As far as the exercises themselves are concerned it is better to give them a structure. It means to divide a big task into smaller and shorter ones and so they might be more complicated.

As teachers try to develop divergent thinking at gifted students, there are several approaches connected to this. The goals of this process present, for example the ability of student to look at the problem from several points of view. As we told you during our presentation, to get experience and practice is for gifted children very valuable too. That is why the provision

of “rich“ lessons full of experiments and practical information is one of the most effective ways of teaching. To give an example we can mention an innovative project “*art-based-learning which is meaningful collaboration between classroom teacher and artists (including songwriters, musicians, writers, fabric artisans and others) serve to inspire students.*“ (Matthews, Foster, 2009, p.182) For instance, talking about gifted children in music lessons, we might to offer them some kinds of musical exhibitions, concerts or just school visitations or seminars of musicians. Each of those events impacts differently the creativity and children’s future action, influences students and puts emphasis on motivation. (Matthews, Foster, 2009). What are other components of the influence of motivation? The thing can be discussion. Many authors agreed on the importance of the dialogue (not authoritative) and choose WH questions those requiring advanced and longer answers and thus they leads our students to become more motivative and creative (Smetanová, 2013). Last but not least is the teacher’s ability to let a talented child learn on his own, let him to ask if needed, but not to exaggerate our effort and evoke non-interest in pupil’s learning proces. (Havigerová, 2011). In addition to this issues we have to mention the evaluation, which is always essential part of education. Especially dealing with the giftedness, it is necessary to evaluate after every small steps, every task children have came up (Kosíková, 2011). The need of evaluation is very connected to the discussion and dialogue, because they are considered to be very powerfull and effective ways of evaluation, they lead a student to make a potential correction or to invent a better solutions. The teacher’s “evaluating“ approaches in the case of giftedness should be based on the discussion, on the problem-solving process not just on the result itself. Evaluation should be individual objective. (Kosíková, 2011).

Good teaching has a big importance in this issues. As well as the teacher’s role influences children future steps and directions. Many essential things has been already mentioned, but let’s make it clear and have a look at the traits of the teacher of a gift child. We can summarize several basic attributes and appropriate teacher’s skills. One of them is the

ability to communicate on the same level as the gifted child is and be a quick-witted thinker (Rogers, 2002). To give an example, teacher who can understand the thinking process of gifted child can better create interesting task for this child. He should be sensitive to that and estimate where a gifted child must be supported, where he needs to discuss more, where to use more resources to get the results, when to make a break and so on. Furthermore, *“the gifted child’s teacher may be the only in her classroom who is capable of operating on the same intellectual level as the child”* (Rogers, 2002, p.10).“

The next thing concerning the teacher’s personality and skills is that they should be expertised in a specific academic area meaning they are expected to have a deeper knowledge in particular scientific or humanistic subject (Rogers, 2002). Thanks to those skills are teacher able to *“better understand how far one can delve into a given subject area and can better convey a love of learning to the gifted child.”* (Rogers, 2002, p.11).

A good teacher from the gifted children’s points of view should be definitely patient and humorous. He/she should not waste their time on simple tasks, but rather go through more quickly (Rogers, 2002). The gifted child’s teacher should allow *“others’ opinions to be heard and consistently giving “accurate“ feedback.”* (Rogers, 2002, p.14). Those words were already somehow mentioned. It is very necessary to follow this “rules“, at least because they were given by the target group – gifted children.

Case study

As a practical part of our presentation we prepared the case study of one client we met during our internship. Case study is detailed description of rare, typical or another interesting case, deviation, defect, illness (inception, process, therapy, result). (Dvořák, 2007)

On this case we want to present how the individual educational program should look like for gifted children. Our client’s name is fictional – Peter Mach. He is at the age of 10 years, currently attending 4th class of primary school. In 2010 he was sent to Special Educational Centre where he was diagnosed to have above-average mental abilities with prevalence of mathematic and logic skills. Peter has excellent general survey, abstract

thinking but lower level of verbal skills. As a result of this diagnostics it was found to be necessary to create Individual Educational Plan (IEP) for two school subjects - Czech language and Mathematics.

Peter 's parents are both college-educated, he has one older sister at the age of 14. His family background is supportive and cooperative. The interesting fact is Peter's early reading abilities which occurred already at the age of 3. Peter sometimes tends to be brought up in very protective way by his parents. He lives in the village where everything what's different is considered to be strange. Therefore, especially his mother wants to save him from premature negative experience in his surroundings. According to his class teacher, Peter has good social abilities – he has nice relationship with classmates and teachers. During teamwork activities he likes to be leader and sometimes he has tendency to show off. But if he is led in convenient way, there are no problems in his class integration.

In September 2014, IEP in Mathematics was prepared for Peter. After entering diagnosis it was found out that given the fourth grade mathematics curriculum, Peter demonstrates mastery of all fourth grade skills and concepts – he is able to operate with addition and subtraction of multi-digit numbers, multiplication and division of double-digit numbers, fractions, units of measurement, arithmetic operation with brackets and in geometry he understands the concept of triangle. Therefore, as an annual goal which Peter can be reasonably expected to accomplish by the end of the school year, we would like to concern on the practical life application of his knowledge, development of his social skills, creativity and divergent thinking, utilization of own entire potential and working with different kinds of resources.

Because of reasons mentioned above, Peter is integrated into the mainstream class of 5th grade for lessons of Mathematics. He is treated with individual approach and usage of suitable methods like creating illustrative schemes, brainstorming, e-learning, making projects and sharing experience, developing of team work, cooperative teaching or tasks with multiple solutions. After every task we insist on discussion between teacher and student or discussion among students and evaluation which helps to

Peter's solution of task 2:

Peter almost immediately decided to draw all of the possible ways. He always firstly drew the track, then he wrote it down to the column on the side and in the end he counted all numbers and got the right result.

Assignment of task 3:

Martin needed exactly 4 liters of water but he had just container of 3 and 5 liters. How could he measure out exactly 4 liters by using just those two containers? (Two containers are used just for measurement, there is also one extra pot in which he can pour water.)

Peter's solution of task 3:

Peter's first answer was: "Martin should fill up both containers and then poured out the half of each. It will give him 2,5 l and 1,5 l which is 4 l together". After he finished the answer, the assistant of pedagogue who was present, asked him if Martin is able to guess where exactly the halves of containers are. This question brought Peter to another and more exact solution: "He will fill up the 5 l container and then he will pour the water to container of 3 l. The rest of the water left in the 5 l container he'll put to the pot. When he will repeat this once more, he will have 4 liters in the pot."

On two mentioned tasks you can for instance see that Peter is led to think creatively and develop divergent thinking, he needs to be encouraged but he is able to find alternative views on solution. That is really good feature which we can further work on.

In Czech language Peter's talent is not so evident, sometimes he has difficulties. He is educated in the mainstream class of 4th grade with his peer. As for entering diagnosis, he has good memory about facts, understands context, has adequate reading abilities (sometimes problems with fluency), he possesses good narrative skills but he often do mistakes in grammar, especially problems with dictations. Peter's Mathematical talent obvious compensates for his skills in Czech language.

Individual Education Plan also contains pedagogical approaches and methods whereby he should be educated in Czech language. Suggested approaches are community circle to improve his interactive skills,

individual approach, cooperative teaching, brainstorming, e-learning, interdisciplinary approach.

Suitable choice of aids and learning materials can encourage education. During lessons we can use worksheets, work books, text books, books, pictures or PC (technical equipment), Smart Board. Interesting ways of learning are didactic games, quizzes, games (language, memory, thinking,...), individual and group presentation and spontaneous narration, re-telling stories and experiences.

Recommended evaluation is according to IEP verbal (written and oral) assessment, points, marks and indirect ways of expression emotions. Self-evaluation is very important (community circle can help to open himself). Objectives in education are avoid progression of weaknesses, support positive approach to literature, development of communication skills, development of social skills and creativity, utilization of own entire potential (abilities and skills).

Conclusion

This paper concisely describes education of gifted people. The education of gifted and talented brings several problems. As you could read, teachers have to prepare on lesson more intensive, teachers choose appropriate approach to them, get appropriate tasks to them and pay attention to them. Gifted students feel that they are different, sometimes they haven't any friends or person, who has the same/similar interests, hobbies. Gifted students require special methods, forms of education, special didactic materials, specific approach. Paper deals with advantages, disadvantages of gifted, special methods and forms of education and finally there is practical demonstration.

REFERENCES

Betts, G. T., Neihart, M. (1988). Profiles of the Gifted and Talented. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 32, pp. 248–253.

Davis, G., Rimmová, S. (1998). *Education of the Gifted and Talented*. Needham Hights: Allyn and Bacon.

Dočkal, V. (2005). *Zaměřeno na talenty aneb Nadání má každý*. Praha: NLN.

Dvořák, J. (2007). *Logopedický slovník*. Lofopaedia clinica.

Gardner, H. (1999). *Dimenze myšlení*. Praha: Portál.

Gardner, H. (2000). *Intelligence Reframed: Multiple Intelligences for the 21st Century*. Basic Books Inc.

Havigerová, J. M. (2011). *Pět pohledů na nadání*. Praha: Grada.

Hříbková, L. (2008). *Nadání a nadání*. Praha: Grada.

Jurášková, J. (2006). *Základy pedagogiky nadaných*. Praha: IPPP.

Kosíková, V. (2011). *Psychologie ve vzdělávání a její psychodidaktické aspekty*. Praha: Grada.

Lanizbatová, J. (2001). *Nadané dieťa - jeho vývin, vzdelávanie a podporovanie*. Bratislava: IRIS

Matthews, D. J., Foster, F. (2009). *Being smart about gifted education: a guidebook for educators and parents*. Scottsdale, AZ: Great Potential Press.

Pfeiffer, S.I. (2002). Identifying Gifted and Talented Students: Recurring Issues and Promising Solutions. *Journal of Applied School Psychology*. Duke University: The Haworth Press.

Potměšilová, P. (2013) Sociální pedagogika a speciální pedagogika. In: Potměšilová, P. a kol. *Sociální pedagogika v teorii a praxi*. p. 49-61.

Robinson, Shore, Enersen (2007). *Best practices in gifted education an evidence-based guide*. Waco, TX: Prufrock Press.

Rogers, K. B. (2002) *Re-Forming Gifted Education: Matching the Program to the child*. Great Potential Press, Inc.

Říčan, P., Krejčířová, D. (2005). *Dětská klinická psychologie*. Praha: Grada.

Smetanová, V. (2013). *Pohotovost ke kladení otázek u dětí v kontextu nadání a tvořivost*. Brno: Psychologický ústav. Dostupné z: https://is.muni.cz/th/330175/ff_m/DP_V_Smetanova.pdf. Diplomová práce. Masarykova univerzita.

Standard komplexního vyšetření mimořádného nadání v PPP. (2014).
Národní ústav vzdělávání (2011-2014). Převzato z:
<http://www.nuv.cz/vice/rovne-prilezitosti-ve-vzdelavani/nadani/nadani-diagnostika>

Vyhláška č. 73/2005 Sb. v platném znění.

Winebrenner, S. (2001). *Teaching Gifted Kids in the Regular Classroom: Strategies and Techniques Every Teacher Can Use to Meet the Academic Needs of the Gifted and Talented*. Free Spirit Publishing.

LEADING CURRENT SCENARIOS TOWARDS INNOVATION, CREATIVITY AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP: THE CASE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ZARAGOZA

Luisa Esteban Salvador

Zaragoza University-Spain, luisaes@unizar.es

Charo Ramo Garzarán

Zaragoza University-Spain

Fernando Repullés Sánchez

Zaragoza University-Spain

Abstract

One of the challenges which universities have to face nowadays is the transfer of learning, innovation and quality improvement in the classroom. Since 2008, the University of Zaragoza has intensified its commitment towards innovation and teaching quality. In order to do that, a series of actions and procedures have been set about to guarantee the quality system of each degree. Looking for a higher participation of teachers at our university, several grants and economic aids for different projects on new teaching technologies are given. Along this essay we analyse the different programmes and actions which are currently taking place. Also, we highlight the different initiatives developed by the University of Zaragoza on the field of orientation, employment and entrepreneurship which are offered to the students through a service called Universa.

Key words: Transfer of learning, innovation, quality, education, entrepreneurship.

Resumen

Uno de los retos de las universidades es la transferencia del aprendizaje, la innovación y la mejora de la calidad en las aulas. Desde el año 2008 la Universidad de Zaragoza ha intensificado su apuesta por la innovación y la calidad de la docencia. Para ello ha puesto en marcha una serie de actuaciones y procedimientos para garantizar el sistema de calidad de las titulaciones. Con la finalidad de hacer participe a todos los profesores de la Universidad, cada año ha convocado ayudas económicas para desarrollar distintos proyectos sobre el uso de nuevas metodologías docentes. En este trabajo se exponen y analizan los distintos programas y acciones llevados a cabo. Por otro lado, se ponen de manifiesto las iniciativas llevadas a cabo en la Universidad de Zaragoza en la orientación, el empleo y el emprendimiento ofrecido a los estudiantes y titulados, a través del servicio denominado Universa. **Palabras clave:** Transferencia del aprendizaje, innovación, calidad, educación, espíritu empresarial

1. INTRODUCTION

The definition of "*sense of initiative and entrepreneurship*" which appears in The Key Competences for Lifelong Learning is expressed in the following terms: "Sense of initiative and entrepreneurship refers to an individual's ability to turn ideas into action. It includes creativity, innovation and risk-taking, as well as the ability to plan and manage projects in order to achieve objectives. This supports individuals, not only in their everyday lives at home and in society, but also in the workplace in being aware of the context of their work and being able to seize opportunities, and is a foundation for more specific skills and knowledge needed by those establishing or contributing to social or commercial activity. This should include awareness of ethical values and promote good governance" (p. 11).

Learning through competences takes a clear and essential role in the educational policies stated by the European Union. However, the fact that this type of learning comes from the labour market and the business sector -

at least in its origins- has aroused much criticism about its possible application in education (Valle and Manso 2013). On the other hand, as it is stated by Salmerón (p. 34, 2013): "too often students are not able to apply what they have learned at school to real life situations". Throughout the last ten years several studies have analysed what teachers can do to promote transfer of learning".

The comprehensive development at the university level is founded not only in the university abilities themselves, but also in the attitudes, which become a key element for success in personal achievements. Attitudes, motivations and habits constitute the actual base for *volition* as a synthesis of the personal choice and compromise with their learning throughout their whole life (Villa and Poblete, 2007). Those projects including cooperative work and learning as an opposition to any other way of individual production are a means of global organization. They consider team work a fundamental tool, they promote mutual help, they facilitate the positive interdependence and hence they constitute a globalising method (Marín, 2003).

2. EXPERIENCES IN INNOVATION AND TEACHING IMPROVEMENT AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ZARAGOZA

A clear commitment from the University of Zaragoza to facilitate the enhancement and augmentation of new teaching methodologies to assure innovation and quality is the creation of a web page (<http://www.unizar.es/innovacion/index.php?menuInn=inicio>) that displays the goals guidelines and procedures for good coordination and the implementation of the quality system.

2.1. Actions for the innovation and upgrading of teaching.

With the purpose of carrying out programmes of innovation and increase of teaching, the vice chancellor's office for the academic policies has established six different types of actions. We summarize the guidelines of each one of them in the next paragraphs.

Programme for teaching development in faculties and departments

This programme intends to support initiatives from faculties and departments which look for the increase of qualified teaching. As for the faculties, the aim is providing activities to teach and orient the students through their academic work and increase their professional training for the comprehension of the many aspects considered in their curriculum. Regarding the departments, the aim is supporting teachers by providing teaching training or self learning activities to perk up teachers' educational practice.

Project of teaching innovation for groups of teachers

This programme means to support those projects which are proposed by groups of teachers..Several different projects are likely to be included, particularly those whose main goal is applying active methodologies for the enrichment of the teaching-learning process or the progress of innovative teaching experiences based on the new technologies of information and communication (ICT). It seeks the advance in the upgrading of curricular design and the excellence in teaching methodology.

Programme of strategic innovation in faculties and degrees

The intention of this programme is to perform actions compiled in the upgrading plans for the different degrees and masters. It emerges as a result of the annual evaluation of each degree. These upgrading plans and actions can have a vertical format - that is, they can analyse the whole degree - or a horizontal format - that is, they value and assess a whole course or term inside a degree.

Resources and activities uploaded in the digital teaching platform (ADD) in the intranet of the University of Zaragoza

This programme has started this academic year 2013-14. It consists of the elaboration and presentation of contents in an innovative way. Every teacher can create a course whether related to the topics or subjects he teaches or not. Every course can be an Open Course Ware (OCW) or a Massive Online Open Course (MOOC).

Conference for Teaching Innovation.

This has been taking place for the last seven years. They deal with many different topics such as evaluation, active methodologies, attendance and non-attendance teaching, integration of students, students training and practical meetings for the institutional coordination and development of studies..The objectives proposed in the conference (<http://www.unizar.es/ice/index.php/objetivos>):

- Giving an overview of the present state of the art about teaching innovation at, its future guidelines and the specific future necessities, studies and reflections.
- Reviewing experiences of innovation in our university, observing, considering and analysing the main criticism and studying the possible solutions.
- Enabling contacts and relationships among the teaching staff, favouring this way a better and more productive collaboration.
- Providing ideas and references for new future innovating projects through the transmission of experiences and plans given before and future perspectives.
- Presenting and analysing experiences of cooperation and management on the field of quality for new studies.
- Offering essential information for the elaboration of plans and policies to encourage teaching innovation at our university.

2.2. Teaching technologies.

The actions taken are correlated to the following teaching technologies:

Digital Teaching Platform (ADD): technical platforms to upkeep teaching

The ADD brings together a series of platforms and websites for teaching aid. Moreover, the University of Zaragoza takes part in the Virtual Shared Campus G9. That is a association established in 1997 which includes 9 state universities. The main objective is promoting cooperation among the universities regarding teaching and searching activities as well

as management and services. A process of revision and adaptation of the virtual campus is taking place with the adaptation of new studies to the regulations of the European Union.

Programme for the projects of innovation related to ICT applied to attendance and non-attendance teaching

This programme tries to improve innovation and quality through the training of teachers on technologies applied to university teaching. The programme has a basis on the Institute of Educational Sciences (ICE; <http://www.unizar.es/ice/>) and offers many courses for teacher training. The courses show active teaching-learning methodologies by using the support and potential power that new technologies have in the field of education. They try to spread the knowledge of ICT tools or those brand new tools which are very demanded by teachers.

Programme for teacher training in technologies applied to the teaching process

This programme has been coordinated with the different projects of innovation related to ICT's used in educational fields and non-attendance teaching until 2012-2013. From the term 2013-2014 the ICE coordinates this programme.

Improvement and innovation related to ICT used in attendance and non-attendance teaching.

The University of Zaragoza provides a series of tools and resources to support the attendance and non-attendance teaching. Such materials can be used in classrooms through the internet and the intranet by means of teaching platforms like the ADD.

2.3. Service Learning.

It takes place mainly in the boundary of Social and Intercultural Education within the frame of inclusive education and inclusive society. In a fully global world, the cultural differences are being misinterpreted yet, ignored or even misled. As a final consequence, all this is creating frustrations, conflicts, financial loss and a decrease of opportunities. However, when these differences are used in a constructive way, they are a

source of enrichment for interaction, learning and cooperation. Our main aim is designing methodologies and implementing strategies for better work and collaboration in learning, which means elaborating processes, educating and assessing while accompanying the student. Thus generates adequate teaching-learning scenarios in diverse contexts which supply the best educational experience, the best personal growth, the best cooperation and the best collaboration. Students recognise and participate in activities dealing with social and intercultural responsibility that are currently accomplished by organizations and associations. They should participate in one activity at least, voluntarily chosen so that they can pertain and widen the knowledge achieved through the different subjects in their degrees. This model represents a useful tool for their professional development directly linked to social responsibility.

3. ANALYSIS OF THE CAREER GUIDANCE SERVICE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ZARAGOZA.

In 1997, the University of Zaragoza founded the Career Guidance Service for Employment which was named UNIVERSA (<http://www.unizar.es/universa/informacion/>) thanks to an agreement with the Aragonese Institute for employment (INAEM). The objective is to help? students in order to access the labour market and adapt their professional profile to the different demands asked by the business industry. The students who wish to use it must fulfil a series of requisites, Some of the actions put into practice regarding working training, along with many others displayed in the web page of UNIVERSA are included below:

- ***Monographic seminars.*** They are held to teach how to do a CV, how to write a formal letter of introduction or how to deal with a job interview.
- ***Courses on professional competences.*** The graduates are prepared to improve their working performance. Among those skills we can mention the ability to: work in groups, speak in front of an audience,

organise the working time, do reports, take decisions, use emotional intelligence or deal with stress.

- ***Workshops to know and use the techniques of searching for a job.*** They are informed about the job alternatives during the selection process, and taught to improve their resume or how to overcome a job interview successfully.

- ***Courses for employment awareness.*** They are enlightened about the working tendencies, the most common tool used in selection processes or the abilities and aptitudes demanded by the labour market.

With the intention of assuring the real necessities from business in Aragon County, UNIVERSA, launches contacts between diverse enterprises and the graduates who have followed their training programmes. When the graduates finish their training programme, the enterprise can contract them as a normal employee. This way, the enterprises can also seize new fully trained human resources which save time and funds as they avoid the period of training and integration of their workers as well as the selection process. It increases the ability of graduates to learn and adapt to their upmost. Moreover, as it is a service provided by the University of Zaragoza together with the regional government, the enterprises which participate in the programme acquire a higher prestige and social image when their participation is publicized.

UNIVERSA holds a section devoted to publicise job vacants. The platform has a particular subdivision entitled EMPRENDER (undertaking). It is a service for entrepreneurs which aims to promote and foment entrepreneurship among the students of the University of Zaragoza, along with young entrepreneurs' ideas and concerns. Examples promoted by UNIVERSA are: actions in order to sensitise and expand the creation of new business and / or self employment, interactive workshops to favour entrepreneurial activity, business and guidance, information about the steps to follow for business foundation and the legal paperwork needed information about helps and grants for entrepreneurs, or collaboration in activities related to backing, expanding and organising meetings among

entrepreneurs from different organizations, whether governmental or private, dealing with entrepreneurship

4. AN EXAMPLE OF INNOVATION IN CURRENT SCENARIOS: CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING (CLIL).

Among the many different ways of innovation present at the University of Zaragoza which really promote creativity and entrepreneurship we can mention this subject lectured during the first term of the course in the Faculty of Social and Human Sciences in Teruel in the degree of Teaching Training in the Educational section. Two main reasons support the choice: on the one hand, it is a subject of new implementation (it has started to be taught in 2013-2014) which is rarely found at education degrees dealing with infantry school. On the other hand, the subject itself deals with a teaching methodology sourced in creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship.

It deals with TEFL and is lectured fully in English for students who are recommended to have a minimum B2 level as established in the Common European Frame of Reference for Languages. Also, the programme itself recommends students to participate, to develop activities and to proceed by themselves. The basic objectives are:

- Knowing CLIL both theoretically and practically.
- Learning to implement CLIL methodology, its strategies and procedures in the infantry classroom.
- Being able to plan CLIL didactic sessions for infantry education.
- Having the ability to select and adapt materials and resources to CLIL methodology. Knowing how to use classroom language by using resources and strategies to foment activity, creativity and comprehensible input and output.

This model has spread all over the world and Europe is not an exception as it is stated by Coyle, Marsh and Hood (2010). The European Union has passed new educational policies where it is clearly included.

Spain has also backed it through regulations and laws including its premises. The different regions have also included in many schools and Aragon has been one of the pioneers by expanding it to infantry education. Such demand at schools claimed a definite offer on the part of the universities to fulfil the necessity of teachers for so many centres. Future teachers must know this teaching methodology in a deep way and must also acquire the proper linguistic and pedagogical competences which they will need in their future teaching practice. Moreover, the skills needed to pass the subject are all included in The Key Competences for Lifelong Learning recommended by the European Union (*Official Journal of the European Union*, 2006/962/EC):

- Comprehending some linguistic aspects in the early years and successfully confront learning situations in multicultural and multilingual contexts (CG6, CE 47).
- Reflecting about classroom practice in order to innovate and improve teaching labour. Acquiring habits and skills for both autonomous and cooperative learning as well as promoting it among students and teachers. Selecting the best resources for each situation (CG11).
- Developing the ability to communicate to teach the mother or the foreign European language (CT10).
- Being able to foment a first approximation to the foreign language (CE51).
- Acquiring and managing practical knowledge in the classroom (CE57).

Both the theoretical contents of the subject and the practical development of the specific didactic skills are a fundamental part in the teaching and training of the future language teacher at infantry education. It is the key to the necessary acquisition, a starting point for their formation along their learning throughout the Infantry Education Degree.

The subject puts CLIL into practice by planning and executing group and individual techniques, working inside and outside the classroom, analysing selected readings which are later discussed and commented. The students must elaborate several different materials to build up a portfolio

including everything used in their scholarship process as a basic instrument for personal learning. They prepare presentations using new technologies in a process which is guided by the professor all along the way to promote the formative aspects of the teaching-learning process. Quite a lot of activities are shared by the students, all of them based in many experts like Dale and Tanner (2012), who have a long experience offering new CLIL activities: debates, observation, video watching, classroom language analysis, session planning, activity performing, oral presentations, direct evaluation, self-evaluation and co-evaluation, etc.

In short, this subject brings together most of the characteristics that entrepreneurship comprises and is capable of facilitating innovation and creativity in the teachers as well as in the students. Moreover, it can be seen in nearly all levels of the educational process as it is very easy to adapt.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Along this paper we have presented the different options which are being implemented about creativity and entrepreneurship through the development of quality and innovation. Our university shoves most projects dealing with innovation at all levels by using financial help and grants so the new teaching methodologies adapted to the European Framework can be enhanced by the whole community. To facilitate the application of active methodologies for teaching and learning we need the contribution and involvement of all the agents in the process, and so the participation of the students is essential.

The paper has also tried to detail the course of action followed by our university to help the students access to the labour market and to adapt their professional profiles to the demands of business industry and society. This is mainly achieved thanks to the fact that the university provides training programmes which are not possible in the classroom and which mainly aim to raise entrepreneurial spirit among university students and graduates so that they new ideas and procedures can arise. In future investigations and papers the analysis of students' level of satisfaction with this type of programmes could be actually studied.

In the search for multidisciplinary organization in the different areas of knowledge and the coordination of educational studies enriches the formation and acquisition of competences. That is why this paper reflects, as an example, one of the multiple subjects the university offers in the Teaching Training Degree for Nursery Education: Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL).

One of the difficulties we have found in some informal surveys with teachers who have used these types of methodologies is the lack of time, as they demand a lot of time to be prepared and put into practice. Moreover, in a university system like the Spanish one, where investigation is better seen and more promoted than teaching or managing, it is many times very difficult or inconvenient to use such methodologies, especially on the part of the younger teachers who have the unavoidable obligation of investing most of their time in enhancing their qualifications in investigation.

REFERENCES

Cabero, J y Cataldi, Z. (2006), “Los aportes de la tecnología informática al aprendizaje grupal interactivo y la resolución de problemas a través de foro de discusión y de chat”. *Pixel-Bit: Revista de medios y educación*, 27, pp. 115-137

Coyle, Do, Hood, P. & Marsh, D. (2010). *CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning*. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge.

Dale, L. and Tanner, R. (2012). *CLIL Activities: Paperback with CD-ROM*. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge.

European Communities (2007). *The Key Competences for Lifelong Learning - A European Framework*. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities. Official Journal of the European Union (2006/962/EC)

Gairín, J y Armengol, C. (2003). *Estrategias de Formación para el cambio organizacional*. Barcelona Cisspraxis

Marín, S. (2003). “Aprender en grupos cooperativos”. Premio Joaquín Sama a la Innovación Educativa, Consejería de Educación, Ciencia y Tecnología de la Junta de Extremadura.

Marín, R. y Rivas, M. (1984). *Sistematización e innovación educativa*. Madrid, UNED

Salmerón, L. (2013). Activities that promote transfer of learning: a review of the literature. *Revista de Educación*, Extraordinario, pp. 34-53.

Valle, J. y Manso, J. (2013). Key competences as a trend in the supranational educational policies of the European Union. *Revista de Educación*, Extraordinario, pp. 12-33.

Villa, A. y Poblet, M. (2009). *Aprendizaje basado en competencias una propuesta par ala evaluación de las competencias genéricas*. ICE DEUSTO.

BASICS OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN EDUCATION

Dr. M. Cüneyt BİRKÖK

Sakarya University, Turkey - birkok@sakarya.edu.tr

Abstract

The entrepreneur is the head of the firm and coordinates the factors of production; introduces new methods, processes, and products and creates opportunities for economic growth; bears the risks connected with his or her activities; and, enjoy power and high status in capitalist market societies. The entrepreneur takes advantage of rationally based components of his or her environment, such as money, science, and individual freedom, and he or she orients his or her conduct to rational values, but he or she is not the average product of bourgeois culture, which defines rationality from the narrower viewpoint of calculating one's short-term advantage. Entrepreneurship is the phenomenon, which enables to create innovations using the unconventionality and opportunities, which are unnoticed by the other members of traditional business.

“An **entrepreneur** is someone who organizes, manages, and assumes the risks of an enterprise.” (Sobel, 2008)

ENTREPRENEUR

“An **entrepreneur** is someone who organizes, manages, and assumes the risks of an enterprise.” (Sobel, 2008) It could be a business or an educational institution or anything else. And we see here two main functions and duties of an entrepreneur: he must organize and he must manage. Those two duties are valid on for all other enterprises such as education and anything related to education.

Here is a more complicated explanation:

The entrepreneur is the head of the firm and coordinates the factors of production; introduces new methods, processes, and products and creates opportunities for economic growth; bears the risks connected with his or her activities; and, enjoy power and high status in capitalist market societies. Entrepreneurs predate capitalism and do exist in socialist and other alternative economic systems, but are especially associated with that economic system more than any other. (Martinelli, 2001, p. 4545)

According to Schumpeter, the entrepreneurs essentially have a management or decision-making role. An entrepreneur is someone who possesses new ideas and innovation, and through the establishment of a business (company) and accept the risk, introducing a new product or service to the community [4] (Tavakoli, 2013, p. 1422)

It is very complicated and economically, isn't it. We can very easily adapt it to education with just replacing a few economical words. Of course I don't say that what it means in economic or in any enterprises is exactly same in education. Educational entrepreneur have lots of special meaning, at least we will create via this project study.

ETYMOLOGY

First uses:

Meanwhile, the very origin of the word “entrepreneur” must be traced to the realm of war rather than of economic competition, although in a war for gain rather than for power or honor. The first references to the word appeared in sixteenth-century France, where it defined the fortune captain who hired mercenary soldiers to serve princes, leagues, or towns for pay. (There was a TV series named Shogun) It was only later, in the eighteenth century that the concept applied to “peaceful” economic actors who either undertook contracts for public works, or introduced new agricultural techniques in their land, or risked their own capital in industry. (Martinelli, 2001, p. 4545)

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THEORETICAL MEANINGS:

Willingness to accept the risk

The first theoretical accounts of the entrepreneurial function appeared in the second half of the eighteenth century with Cantillon and Turgot, who stressed the willingness to accept the risk and uncertainty inherent in economic activity as the key distinctive feature, a concept which was later developed by Knight in the twentieth century.

Jean Baptiste Say, the person who combines the factors of production for profit

Adam Smith and mainstream economics did not emphasize the specific role of the entrepreneur-with the notable exceptions of Jean Baptiste Say-who defined the entrepreneur as the person who combines the factors of production for profit, putting himself at the center of several relations among capitalists, workers, technicians, merchants, and consumers

Jean Babtiste Say (1803) - An entrepreneur is a person who shifts resources from an area of low productivity to high productivity.

Adam Smith (1776) - An entrepreneur is a person who acts as agent in transforming demand into supply.

John Stuart Mill, conceptualized entrepreneurship as innovativeness

~and John Stuart Mill~ who separated the entrepreneurial function (the payment for which is profit) from that of providing capital (the payment for which is interest). It was, however, Joseph Schumpeter, who above all, conceptualized entrepreneurship as innovativeness, thus giving it a dynamic quality lacking in earlier formulations. (Martinelli, 2001, p. 4545)

John Stuart Mill (1848) - An entrepreneur is a prime mover in the private enterprise. The entrepreneur is the fourth factor of production after land, labor and capital. **Joseph Aloysius Schumpeter (1934)** - An entrepreneur is an innovator. The economy moves through leaps and bounds and the prime mover is the entrepreneur through the process of creative destruction.

CREATIVE DESTRUCTION

Entrepreneurship is a kind of destroying act already established order, status quo or anything similar to it. This is the essential point of to gain new things. We must have some room to have new things.

Entrepreneur destroys status quo or equilibrium by innovations. The essence of entrepreneurship is realized by implementing new combinations. These combinations could be: the development of new products, new ways of production, the discovery of new markets, new resources, the creation of new business units, the implementation of new management concepts within the organization. Schumpeter describes entrepreneurship as an economic process of "creative destruction" (Sfripeikis, 2008). The importance of the entrepreneur as a destroyer of the 'established rules of the game' and a creator of the new ones indicates that human intervention lies at the very core of any innovative activity (Jucevicius, 2008). (Petuskiene & Glinskiene, 2011, p. 71)

Contemporary meanings: alert to new opportunities

Contemporary economics assumes that entrepreneurial services are highly elastic and that failures in entrepreneurship are due to

maladjustments to external market conditions and to lack of economic incentives. Only a few economists analyze more deeply the concept of the entrepreneur, conceiving him or her as a middleperson between markets, or a gap-filler alert to new opportunities.

The study of entrepreneurship is thus more developed within other disciplines: sociology, business history, psychology, and anthropology. (Martinelli, 2001, p. 4545)

The entrepreneur, what kind of personality?

Entrepreneurship, he argues, calls for a specific type of personality and conduct, which differs from the economic man. The entrepreneur takes advantage of rationally based components of his or her environment, such as money, science, and individual freedom, and he or she orients his or her conduct to rational values, but he or she is not the average product of bourgeois culture, which defines rationality from the narrower viewpoint of calculating one's short-term advantage. The entrepreneur acts on the basis of an autonomous drive to conquest and struggle, to achieve and create for its own sake, and also to establish a family dynasty. He or she is a bold leader, capable of thinking the new and grasping the essential, willing to act quickly, to understand by intuition, and to forgo the psychological resistances and social criticisms that always arise when new and innovative behavior is regarded as deviant and dangerous. This sets him off from the routine manager. While having some elements in common with religious and military leaders of the past, the entrepreneur is, however, the leader of a rational and antiheroic culture, and as a result does not excite the charismatic feelings and collective enthusiasm of those who make or defend whole civilizations.

ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND SOCIETY

In an overall view, entrepreneurship can be divided into two general ways:

- Individual entrepreneurs
- Organizational entrepreneurs.

If the innovation and manufacture of a new product or new service to the market is result of an individual, it is called individual entrepreneurs, if it is a result of a team in an organization, it is called organizational entrepreneurs. (Tavakoli, 2013, p. 1422)

Sociological point of view

In what kind of societies can we see entrepreneurship?

On this subject we have only Marxian analyses. We may see some similar act in any type of societies. Such as social, political or religious leaders. Such as prophets, emperors or tribe chiefs. Those guys are just a kind of social leaders who rule the community. They somehow move the community also. But entrepreneurship is a kind of social way that anybody can easily practice it. You cannot be a prophet if you don't have certain medical conditions; or can't be a tribal chief if you don't come from a specific ancestor. They are not a social custom. We should separate any kind of leaders who rules his groups from the entrepreneur who makes innovation.

In any historical society, there is leadership, defined as the capacity to conceive and lead the making of innovations. What changes in the different historical contexts is the privileged sphere where leadership is applied, the one that is related to the core function for the survival and development of that given society.

It is the term that belongs to the bourgeois class, it is a civic term rather than agricultural life style. Because, in country life, you have very little needs to change your production ways that heritage from your ancestors.

Entrepreneurship is the specific historical form that leadership assumes in capitalism, its distinctive (and even essential) feature, closely linked to the bourgeois class. The bourgeoisie is the leading class, because bourgeois families have performed the innovating and leadership role in the economy and because they acquire, consolidate, and transfer prestige, power, and wealth to future generations. (Martinelli, 2001, pp. 4546–7)

Entrepreneurship is fading away of bourgeois institutions of the crisis of capitalism. It is not only for the very success of the capitalist firm or companies, but also educational institutions.

The fate of entrepreneurship is closely linked to those of the bourgeoisie and capitalism. The conception of entrepreneurial innovation as the key element of capitalism implies that the weakening of the role of the innovative entrepreneur is seen as a basic factor along with the fading away of bourgeois institutions of the crisis of capitalism. Schumpeter predicted the progressive decay of the entrepreneurial function by virtue of the routinization of innovation in large oligopolies, which would render the entrepreneurial function superfluous and undermine the basis for continued bourgeois dominance. It is the very success of the capitalist firm that undermines the system.

The question of entrepreneurship is not problematic in economics or economic life;

Entrepreneurial activities will emerge more or less spontaneously, as an instance of rational profit maximization, whenever economic conditions are favorable, such as availability of capital, labor, and technology, factor mobility, and access to markets.

But it is a cultural attitude that changes in different cultural structures:

social scientists, mostly sociologists, social-psychologists, business historians, and anthropologists, tend to see entrepreneurship as a more problematic phenomenon, deeply embedded in societies and cultures; they focus on the influence of, and the mutual interplay among noneconomic factors, such as cultural norms and beliefs, class relations and collective action, state intervention and control, organizational structures, bounded solidarity and trust, deviant behavior and marginality status, and motivations for achievement.

They also study how different historical and geographical settings may call for markedly dissimilar forms of entrepreneurship. Comparative sociologists have shown strong differences in entrepreneurial roles and

styles across countries and with regard to the firm's size and to the stages in the firm's life cycle.

Is entrepreneurship a system variable? Or is it a actor variable?

Is it a structural variable or cultural variable??

Different disciplinary paradigms provide a first basis for classifying major approaches to the studies of entrepreneurship and management. Underlying these different approaches are the two fundamental dimensions of: (a) system variables versus actor variables (or, in different terms, macroanalytical models versus microanalytical models), and (b) structural versus cultural variables.

Why some societies are more likely to produce entrepreneurs than others?

McClelland's comparative study concludes that (McClelland, 1961);

Childhood experiences create in certain individuals a particular psychological factor, what he calls "the need for achievement," which is responsible for economic growth and decline.

Child-rearing practices to produce entrepreneurs:

- that stress standard for excellence,
- self-reliance training,
- maternal warmth,
- and low father dominance.

It is all about socialization

In Western industrialized nations children internalize in family socialization attitudes and symbols which favor a higher need for achievement than do children raised elsewhere, and many of the high achievers have become entrepreneurs.

In underdeveloped countries McClelland finds fewer people with a high need for achievement; besides, of this smaller number, most go into fields other than business and industry.

The Social Context of Entrepreneurship:

Marginal or Privileged Status?

Entrepreneurs are deviant

It is a peculiarity of ethnic groups (like Jews). The government or policy makers aim to spread out it to every part of society.

Building on both Sombart and Schumpeter, Hoselitz (1963) argues that entrepreneurs are deviant because of their ambiguous social position. Marginal groups such as the Jews and Greeks in medieval Europe, the Chinese in Southeast Asia, and Indians in East Africa, are peculiarly suited to make creative adjustments in situations of change and to develop genuine innovations in social behavior, because they act in a hostile social milieu, where prevailing attitudes are against innovation; they are excluded from political power so they concentrate on business; and being left outside the dominant value system, they are subjected to lesser sanctions for their deviant behavior. (Martinelli, 2001, p. 4548)

Social marginality approach:

The social marginality approach can be challenged on two grounds:

1. on structural grounds, by those who argue that dominant classes in society can produce entrepreneurs more than marginal groups can, because of their access to economic, political, and social resources;
2. and on cultural grounds, by those who stress core values and social approval as requisites of entrepreneurship. Social marginality and ethnic solidarity certainly play a role in the formation of entrepreneurship.

But historical and comparative research on developed countries both early industrializing countries (like Great Britain and France) and “latecomers” (like Germany, Italy, and Japan)~show that most new entrepreneurs come from the already “privileged” status groups of preindustrial societies, such as merchants, landowners, and wealthy artisans, who possess both the material and intellectual re- sources for economic achievement. (Martinelli, 2001, p. 4549)

MAIN FUTURES OF THE ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Entrepreneurship is the phenomenon, which enables to create innovations using the unconventionality and opportunities, which are unnoticed by the other members of traditional business. Commonly, entrepreneurship and innovation are adduced as very associated concepts.

All the main features which are typical for innovative enterprise, for example orientation to changes, decentralization, tolerance of risk, promotion of personal initiative, can be applicable for the entrepreneurial organization too. Entrepreneurs have abilities to create innovations embodying courageous ideas and unusual decisions. Sometimes the progressive methods of the organization's work can be detected in the practice of successful, but very different and dissimilar enterprises. In that case the innovative system of the activity can be transferred to the organization, which is ready to read up on the new working model, using benchmarking. (Petuskiene & Glinskiene, 2011, p. 69)

Forms of Entrepreneurship

- **Social Entrepreneurship:**

NGO (non-profit), NGO (for-profit), Social Business

CSR – corporate social responsibility

CSV – corporate shared value

“Any creative and innovative solution applied to solve social problems” (*Mohammad Yunus, 2007*).

It involves social mission, profit and/or entrepreneurial processes

- **Business Entrepreneurship:**

It's about the study of systems, structure, and staffing to make a large corporation stay competitive, innovative, and profitable on a sustainable basis.

- **Techno Entrepreneurship**

Entrepreneurship education

There are lots of detailed research that shows which possible directions should be taken for Entrepreneurship education. In their study, Jones and Matlay (2011) suggested a conceptual framework for entrepreneurship education which strongly emphasizes the dialogic relations between different components of entrepreneurship education, such as the student, the teacher, the institution and the community. Based on our findings, it seems evident that entrepreneurship education is

characteristically a contextual phenomenon and in this perspective, the educator's relevant context and background are central factors for understanding their personal background and the teaching infrastructure available for entrepreneurship education. (Ruskovaara & Pihkala, 2013, p. 214)

In a study conducted by Ayubi in 2006 titled "Teaching Entrepreneurship second grade school work and knowledge based on components for entrepreneurship and Information Technology" reached the following Conclusions:

1. Entrepreneurship has 10 components that with order of priority are:

- Having an active mind and a sense of participation
- Creativity and success-seeking
- Decision-making authority and responsibility
- Accept change and independence
- Seize opportunity and seeking success
- Modernization and new ideas
- Innovation and benefit from imagination
- Motivation to create interest to obtain information
- Create for mental deconstruction
- Commitment to accountability and ability to negotiate (Tavakoli, 2013, p. 1423)

CONCLUSION

I would like to sum up with some important points of the basic of entrepreneurships.

- *It is a creation*

We always have the power to make the changes that we want to see. That power is creativeness.

- *It is a cultural variable*

That the community must conduct appropriate social structure and supply cultural norms to new generation. Scholars focus on specific psychological traits of entrepreneurial personalities and on their social

characteristics or structural factors (types of markets, factors of production, class and ethnic relations, state planning, etc.) or cultural factors (business ethics, social approval of economic activity, etc.) and the specific relation between the actor and the situation.

What is needed in future research on entrepreneurship;

is a multidisciplinary comparative approach, capable of integrating the analysis of the context (market, social structure, culture) with a theory of the actor (both individual or collective) with his or her motives, values, attitudes, cognitive processes, and perceived interests. (Martinelli, 2001, p. 4551)

REFERENCES

Akın, H. B. (2010). Türkiye’de İş Yapma Ortamının Girişimcilik ve Ekonomik Özgürlükler Açısından Değerlendirilmesi. *Bilig*, (55), 21–49.

Argon, T., & Selvi, Ç. (2013). İlköğretim Okulu Öğretmenlerinin Sahip Oldukları Girişimcilik Değerleri Ve Algıladıkları Sosyal Destek Düzeyleri Arasındaki İlişkisi.

Aslan, G., Araza, A., & Bulut, Ç. (2012). Sosyal Girişimciliğin Kavramsal Çerçevesi. *Girişimcilik ve Kalkınma Dergisi*, 7(2), 69–88.

Bayar, Y. (2012). Girişimcilik Finansmanında Risk Sermayesi Ve Melek Finansmanı. *Girişimcilik ve Kalkınma Dergisi*, 7(2), 133–145.

Besler, S. (2010). Sosyal Girişimcilik. In *Sosyal Girişimcilik* (pp. 3–31). İstanbul: Beta.

Bockman, J. (2013). Neoliberalism. *Contexts*, 12(3), 14–15. doi:10.1177/1536504213499873

Dana, L. P. (1992). Entrepreneurial Education in Europe. *Journal of Education for Business*, 68(2), 74–78. doi:10.1080/08832323.1992.10117590

Entrepreneurship. (2013, December 2). In *Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia*. Retrieved from

<http://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Entrepreneurship&oldid=583897412>

Esmer, Y. R., & Pettersson, T. (2007). *Measuring and mapping cultures 25 years of comparative value surveys*. Leiden; Boston: Brill. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1163/ej.9789004158207.i-193>

Eyal, O., & Inbar, D. E. (2003). Developing a public school entrepreneurship inventory Theoretical conceptualization and empirical examination. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research*, 9(6), 221–4. doi:DOI 10.1108/13552550310501356

Girişimci olabilir miyim? (n.d.).

Girişimcilere öneriler. (n.d.).

Ikävälko, M., Ruskovaara, E., & Seikkula-Leino, J. (n.d.). Rediscovering Teacher's Role in Entrepreneurship Education. Retrieved from http://developmentcentre.lut.fi/files/muut/EFMD_rediscovering.pdf

Kılıç Kırılmaz, S. (2013). Sosyal Girişimcilerin Girişimcilik Ve Dönüştürücü Liderlik Algılarının Belirlenmesine Yönelik Bir Araştırma. *Girişimcilik ve Kalkınma Dergisi*, 8(1), 103–129.

Kyoto Workshop on Digital Cities, T., Besselaar, P. van den, & Ishida, T. (Eds.). (2002). *Digital cities II: computational and sociological approaches : second Kyoto Workshop on Digital Cities, Kyoto, Japan, October 18-20, 2001 : revised papers*. Springer.

Martinelli, A. (2001, December 6). Entrepreneurship. In (N. J. Smelser & H. P. Baltes, Eds.) *International Encyclopedia of Social & Behavioral Sciences*. Amsterdam [u.a.]: Elsevier, Pergamon.

McClelland, D. C. (1961). *The achieving society*. Mansfield Centre, Conn.: Martino Publishing.

Outhwaite, W. (Ed.). (2006). *The Blackwell Dictionary of Modern Social Thought* (2nd ed.). USA: Wiley-Blackwell.

Pawlik, K., & Rosenzweig, P. M. R. (2000). *The International Handbook of Psychology* (1st ed.). Sage Publications Ltd.

Petuskiene, E., & Glinskiene, R. (2011). Entrepreneurship as the Basic Element for the Successful Employment of Benchmarking and

Business Innovations. *Inzinerine Ekonomika-Engineering Economics*, 22(1), 69–77.

Pittaway, L., & Cope, J. (2006, January). Entrepreneurship Education: A Systematic Review of the Evidence. National Council for Graduate Entrepreneurship Working Paper 002/2006. Retrieved from <http://gees.pbworks.com/f/entrepreneurshipeducation.pdf>

Ruef, M., & Lounsbury, M. (2007). *The sociology of entrepreneurship*. Amsterdam; Oxford: Elsevier JAI. Retrieved from <http://public.eblib.com/EBLPublic/PublicView.do?ptiID=648847>

Ruskovaara, E., & Pihkala, T. (2013). Teachers implementing entrepreneurship education: classroom practices. *Education + Training*, 55(2), 204–216. doi:10.1108/00400911311304832

Smelser, N. J., & Baltes, P. B. (Eds.). (2001). *International encyclopedia of the social & behavioral sciences*. Amsterdam [u.a.]: Elsevier, Pergamon.

Sobel, R. S. (2008). Entrepreneurship. *The Concise Encyclopedia of Economics*. Library of Economics and Liberty. Retrieved December 11, 2013, from <http://www.econlib.org/library/Enc/Entrepreneurship.html>

Tavakoli, A. (2013). Impact of Information Technology On the Entrepreneurship Development. *Advances in Environmental Biology*, 7(8), 1421–1426.

Taylor, C. (2007). *A Secular Age*. Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.

Topkaya, Ö. (2013). Tarihsel Süreçte Girişimcilik Teorisi: Girişimciliğin Ekonomik Büyüme Ve İstihdam Boyutu. *Girişimcilik ve Kalkınma Dergisi*, 8(1), 29–55.

Turner, B. S. (2006). *The Cambridge Dictionary of Sociology*. Cambridge University Press.

Yahyagil, M. (n.d.). Örgütsel Yaraticılık Ve Yenilikçilik.

Yelkikalan, N., & Akatay, A. (2010). Dünya Ve Türkiye Üniversitelerinde Girişimcilik Eğitimi: Karşılaştırmalı Bir Analiz. *KMÜ Sosyal ve Ekonomik Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 12(19), 51–9.

ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION AND ENTREPRENEURIAL CULTURE DEVELOPMENT: PERSONAL SKILLS, VALUES AND PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES OFF FOSTERING ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Danguole SIDLAUSKIENE

Marijampole College, Lithuania -
danguole.sidlauskiene@mkolegija.lt

Ginta SNIPAITIENE

Marijampole College, Lithuania

Abstract

Economic development in the world, changing specifics of business, undoubtedly affects thinking of an individual. It is said, that entrepreneurs we are born, but do we want to be them? The answer depends on how we look at the business development – as a free implementation of business ideas or as a hard routine work, which doesn't guarantee a livelihood. Therefore it is important to continually improve a quality of entrepreneurship education, proper use personal skills, values and personal attributes. This article analyzes the concept of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship in using educational creativity. Innovative methods of education are provided as means to generate business ideas and prepare for their implementation. The aim of the paper is to improve skills and knowledge of the profession teachers, the quality of teaching entrepreneurship.

Key words: entrepreneurship, creativity, generation, education, method, application.

INTRODUCTION

Recently much attention is paid to small and medium business development. The researchers argue, that small and medium-sized businesses create bulk part of the country's gross domestic product. Small businesses create new jobs and reduce the burden of the state to provide social benefits. This means that each of us has the opportunity to gain knowledge of business development, but it is very important to have ideas. In order to improve the quality of entrepreneurship education, it is necessary to use the so-called active methods of education, which would enable the individual to discover himself as a businessman.

Relevance of this article - the educational process is not receiving enough attention for development of entrepreneurial skills, entrepreneurship education doesn't promote creativity. It is not enough to have an idea and know the business building principles. It is important to be creative in the pursuit to do routine things creatively.

Purpose of the article – explore influence of the personal skills and qualities on entrepreneurship education.

Objectives of the study:

- Present the concept of entrepreneurship.
- Define creativity in the context of the entrepreneurial.
- Analyze methods of business idea generation and application.

During the study was used a theoretical: systematic analysis of the literature.

1. THE CONCEPT OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP

The goal of entrepreneurship education – develop personal skills, which are necessary for him as an individual and as a member of the society to live in a market economy. Entrepreneurship is considered quite widely, but still not found unambiguous definition of it, may be it never will be located (D. Borstein, 2004).

Analysis of various literary sources can show us, that entrepreneurship can be understood quite differently. Gegieckienė L. and A. Griškienė (2009) distinguish two concepts of entrepreneurship. The

first concept – entrepreneurship is defined as the innate and acquired human qualities, allowing him to think innovatively and actively, and risky to operate in all situations of life. The second concept – entrepreneurship is defined as the pursuit of new ideas and new projects. Entrepreneurship is the ability to successfully organize and manage your life and business and profitable to produce goods or provide services. This is the thinking and operation.

P. Kaufmann and RP Dant (1998), the concept of entrepreneurship linked to:

- ✓ business individual intrinsic properties – creativity and the ability to solve problems, make decisions, critical thinking, leadership, motivation, initiative;
- ✓ new business development and product introduction;
- ✓ entrepreneurial activities.

C. Turner (2005) defines entrepreneurship as voluntary work, risk-taking, development, implementation, ability to raise and successfully implement innovative ideas.

Summarizing scientific thought, it can be said, that enterprise is:

- ✓ an activity based on knowledge and initiation;
- ✓ continuous professional or non professional activity for extended period of time involving obligations and rights in pursuit for profit;
- ✓ independent and individually risk mindful activity to profit by way of utilizing one's knowledge, skill and recourses to provide service or product for remuneration.

Economic activity does not take place without a job. Work is deliberate and society beneficial human activity involving mental and physical efforts. Employee is a person providing his labor for remuneration. Not all people are willing to sell their labor. Some of them seek to become entrepreneurs and work for themselves.

Entrepreneur is:

- ✓ individual, refrained by regulations is evolved in commercial activity;

- ✓ an individual involved in business activity, acting on its own behalf and risk;
- ✓ entrepreneurial individual;
- ✓ a person who can see possibilities where no one else does;
- ✓ a person in possession of assets and eager to increase those assets by ways of profitable ventures, utilization of skill and personal qualities;
- ✓ a human being who has initiative to utilize social and economic factors to his or her own success and mindful of possible consequences in case of failure.

For entrepreneurs are very important these personal attributes:

- ✓ creativity, aspiration to do things differently;
- ✓ aspiration to assume responsibility and possibility to assess and understand novelties. It is ability to be responsible for ones actions and counteractions, to complete what has been started, to predict what lies ahead and accordingly set goals to be accomplished;
- ✓ ability to find one's capabilities and apply them to successful application;
- ✓ personal ability to dream of future , set targets and ways to accomplish them, to inspire themselves and team members to act in concerted manner to accomplish those goals;
- ✓ personal ability to realize ideas and initiative assume responsibilities in setting those ideas alive;
- ✓ creative, active and socially responsible activity;
- ✓ personal ability to make one's dreams come true.

Based on the survey of entrepreneurship concept, we can say that there are two dominant approaches to entrepreneurship. First says, that entrepreneurship is a basis of personal characteristics of the economic value creation. Second says, that entrepreneurship is education of critical thinking, innovation, intensive personal, which is capable to act independently in different areas of knowledge in society and create social value.

2. CREATIVITY IN THE CONTEXT OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Creativity is the ability to raise new ideas, to think independently not by stereotypes, quickly navigate in problem situations, easy to find unusual solutions. In concept of creativity, its stimulating and inhibiting factors, peculiarities of creative education interested scientists: I. Becker-Textor (2001), M.J. Kehily (2004), D. Grakauskaitė-Karkockienė, (2003), M. Hill (2000), V. Lowenfield, W.L. Britain (1987), O. Monkevičienė (2002), A. Petrulytė (2001). They define the concept of creativity in quite different ways, but most agree that it is personal ability to discover novelties. Effective resolution of problems by large is facilitated not by skill or knowledge, but ability to apply this knowledge and skill in affective and diverse manner. This ability is called creativity (D. Grakauskaitė-Karkockienė, 2003). Creativity – it is one's inclination to novelties by way of original modeling, composing and construing.

There should be distinguished certain creative thinking features:

1. Clarity in reasoning. It is free generation of ideas, their abundance.
2. Clarity in choices. It is ability and easiness to concentrate from one array of factors to totally different choice of circumstances and set of rules by way of enhancing one's experience, attitude and social norms.
3. Novelty in reasoning. It is generation of unconventional ideas, far fetched associations, unconventional reasoning.
4. Thoroughness in creative ideas. It is ability to develop one's ideas until final realization because only idea on it is own never receives social acknowledgment.
5. Acknowledgment of potential problems. Ability to foresight contradictions and essence of problems.

Can be identified four creativity enhancing factors:

1. Rich and diverse environment that calls for explorations and creativity.
2. Democratic environment.
3. Reasonable autonomy, independence and freedom of choice.

4. Appropriate involvement and appraisal of moral and social values.

Being associated with certain team may enhance creativity process if certain rules are followed. Those rules were introduced by L. Osborne:

- ✓ Every idea, even most odd one, is good. Do not suppress it.
- ✓ Do not criticize your colleagues' ideas.
- ✓ The more ideas you have, the better you are off. You find them worthwhile (or not) latter on.
- ✓ You can always extend on colleagues' ideas.
- ✓ Speak when you have something to say. Don't wait till others have something to say.

3. BUSINESS IDEA GENERATION AND APPLICATION

Business idea is in the entrepreneur's mind or in actions manifesting idea, based on innovation or on its elements. Personal creativity is the basis for development of entrepreneurship. A creative person generates ideas that are necessary for business. To stimulate creativity can be used methods of generation business idea, which is based on active training methods. We can distinguish the following main methods: "Ideas map" method;

- ✓ "Small group" method;
- ✓ "Ideas rain" or "Brain storming" method;
- ✓ "Nominal group" method;
- ✓ "Idea selection and evaluation according predetermined criteria" method.

"Ideas map"

Method application:

The identified problem is written down in the center of a sheet of paper. Group members share their ideas on possible solutions.

Then, the core reason is written down, it is detailed and new map of ideas is drawn.

The process is continued until main reason is detailed to the extent the solution is found.

“Small group” method

Method application:

Several small groups are involved in problem solution. Later on, all groups present their findings and common solution is taken.

“Ideas rain” or “Brain storming” method

Method application:

Members write down the problem and possible solution ideas on board. The most suitable solutions are taken out and discussed.

Method rules:

- ✓ Outspoken ideas cannot be criticized;
- ✓ New associations are created at free will;
- ✓ Quality is not compromised for quantity;
- ✓ New approaches are searched to develop the ideas.

Group members (6-12 people) induced to think “outside box”, because one idea generates the other and even most strange suggestions are left to be discussed for latter times. Timing is 40-60 min., less sophisticated problems 10-15 min.

Useful:

- ✓ Specific problems are addressed;
- ✓ Are addressed collectively;
- ✓ People feel free;
- ✓ The formulation can be changed;
- ✓ Idea generators are in competition;
- ✓ As many as possible solutions are suggested.

“Nominal group” method

Method application:

Group member individually describe how they see the possible solution of a problem.

Everyone presents individual idea. All ideas are discussed and assessed.

Everyone rates the ideas according to significance. Final solution is taken accord highest evaluation.

“Idea selection and evaluation according predetermined criteria”

method

Method application:

Determine evaluation criteria. For example, idea generation required time, finance, efforts, other recourses. Then questions are asked:

“Is alternative possible? Is it satisfying us? What are possible consequences?”

Select those ideas that meet most criteria.

Can be applied more complex methods:

✓ GORDON METHOD – HOW TO GENERATE TOTALLY NEW IDEAS

✓ SYNECTICS - FOR CREATIVE INOVATIONS AND IDEAS

✓ DELPHI METHOD

✓ NOMINAL GROUP TECHINQUE (NGT)

✓ STRUCTURAL DIAGRAM

GORDON METHOD – HOW TO GENERATE TOTALLY NEW IDEAS

Method application:

Work is done in small groups of people who have no knowledge of the current issue.

The problem in question is known only to the group leader, who is leading meeting. He presents a problem which is different to the one in question and subsequently narrowing the scope, he reaches the main issue. After this, the audio record of discussion is went through and analysis of the problem is begins.

The problem is not initially revealed so to avoid too hastily solutions.

Positive side of the method – aversion of egocentric approach form members. By submitting their ideas each member, by default, has best opinion of his own variants and rejects others.

Discussions must be related to the issue in question, but in no way reveal the essence of the problem.

SYNECTICS - FOR CREATIVE INOVATIONS AND IDEAS

Method application:

Synectics – Greek word and means “the joining together of different and apparently irrelevant elements”

Synectics is a way to approach creativity and problem-solving in a rational way. Its purpose is to involve brain and nervous system for problem solution.

Synectics method is based upon assumption that each individual consists of two parts. The first part involves security and thus it logically prevent an individual from experimental creativity.

The first part is related to security and thus makes individual risk avert the other, on the other hand, is pushing an individual toward cognitive impulsive research.

Group selection criteria – flexibility in reasoning, individual knowledge and practical experience, member age restrictions (25-40), diversity of members psychological types.

Synectics group in its work is using analogy analysis, aiming at spontaneous reasoning.

There are used four methods of analogy:

1. Direct reality. Most often seen in biological systems when resolving similar issues.

2. Subjective embodiment. A human being is transformed in to subject that has senses (for example, what can one feel being a propeller on helicopter).

3. Symbolic abstracts. It is poetic comparisons and metaphors when properties of one subject are attributed to other subject (river mouth, hammer head, solution tree).

4. Fiction reality. Things are perceived the way they are not in reality but the way we would like to see them.

Synectics method steps:

Problem presentation and collection of relevant information

The leader presents and defines the scope of discussion avoiding to identify the specific problem. At this stage, the Synectics method is similar to the Gordon method.

Requests

Group members get involved in presenting ideas which could be relevant to the discussion topic.

“Take a walk away”

Group members are asked to relax and forget the specific problem. They are asked to generate ideas in other fields which might be relevant to the specific problem.

“Compulsion”

Members are getting new ideas while they wander away and simultaneously they try to relate it to the specific problem.

Reaction check

Group selects one idea from fourth step and analyses it further. Only positive features of ideas are emphasized.

DELPHI METHOD

Method application:

It is a group method used to collect information and people's opinions in order to facilitate forecasting and decision making. People are interviewed through different channels. In this way we get to know individual opinions because respondents do not interact among themselves.

Useful because individual creativity is utilized. Problems are averted which are present when interaction takes place in groups.

Method allows for anonymity and encourages interactions even among most geographically remote participants.

Group coordinator is taking control of a process by sustaining formal ties with each participant. Even though several thousand respondents could

be taken into account, it is not recommended to go over with more than 30 respondents.

Step:

1. Questionnaire compilation and initial interview

Leader or coordinator submits written definition of a problem and distributes it to each group participant. Besides, in the questionnaire he requests for feedback on improvements and possible solution methods.

2. Initial reaction

Each participant individually and anonymously writes down remarks, suggestions and possible solutions. Then return the questionnaire to the sender.

3. Analysis of the initial questionnaire and secondary enhanced query.

The leader analyses all the replies, makes generalizations and improvement to the initial questionnaire. The improved questionnaire is dispatched to respondents with the aim of receiving more clarified explanations, emphasize on contradictions and suggestions in certain fields.

Each participant individually and anonymously completes the questionnaire and delivers back to coordinator.

4. Process continuity

Coordinator may keep updating questionnaires until participants reach unanimous approach.

Practice has proved that at least 4 quests are required.

NOMINAL GROUP TECHNIQUE (NGT)

Method application:

It is group problem solving process involving problem identification, solution generation, and decision making. It can be used in groups of different sizes, who want to make their decision quickly, as by a vote, but want everyone's opinions taken into account (as opposed to traditional voting, where only the largest group is considered).

Work is conducted in 4 stages. At first the essence of the problem presented.

1. Every participant has 10-15 min. to consider possible ideas which he writes down on a sheet of paper. It could be called “mind selection” versus each other.

2. All ideas are selected in one single list. The leader asks each participant to provide his one idea which is included in the list without being discussed. It is all done in sequence. Usually 20-30 ideas are put in the list.

3. The leader reads list in sequence and participants take active approach by providing comments if needed. Participants can also exchange their ideas by providing positive and negative effects.

4. Each participant selects 5-7 best ideas of his choice. Then each group participant rates ideas according importance. The leader anonymously notes down each individual rating and selects 3-4 most important ideas. The other 4-5 ideas with poorer rating are considered less important.

STRUCTURAL DIAGRAM

Method application:

Structural diagram method utilizes advantages that are present in different verbal information parts. This method facilitates systematic comprehension of problem structure.

It is used to analyze problems in depth so they can be resolved. Most common words: factors, prognosis, idea opinions, thoughts about blurred situations and things that have not been investigated until present. Structural diagram method creates scheme which is using verbal information from many sources. The information is selected regarding certain element advantages and relationship which the basics in problem definition.

Having collected and sorted the information and factors into structural diagram we have the key to problem solution. It is a creative process which can totally change our view on the existing problem. The kind of diagrams helps people effectively analyze problems.

Sequence in creating diagram:

1 step – Problem definition

Choose the topic, subject or problem to which solution you want to find.

2 step – Collection of verbal information

Collect verbal information which consists of facts, conclusions, ideas or opinions relevant to your problem and purposes. In devising structural diagram “brain storming method” often is used. Other sources of information are observations, investigations, individual thoughts.

3 step – Data cards creation

Start each verbal information question on separate cards. If those cards are made on adhesive paper, it will make your job easier.

4 step – Allocation of cards

Place all cards on big sheet of paper at the same level. Then read the card and place them according to their relevancy. Now try answering questions “what cards have analogous meaning”, “what cards are interrelated”. Cards that are relevant are placed next to each other.

5 step – Creation of structural cards

Read and adjust information in each group of cards. Clarify if the information is not clear enough. Then, on top of each group of cards attach a card summarizing all opinions of a given group. This card will call the structural card.

6 step – Grouping of structural cards

Data cards are sorted according to their relevancy into groups with a card attached to each group containing conclusions. Each group of cards is considered as a separate card.

7 step - Classification of cards

Steps 4-6 are repeated with aim to continue cards classification. While continuing you will notice that similarities among cards are diminishing, the cards are getting further and further from each other. You will have to redefine the meaning of term like “to be the same of a kind”. “to be similar”, “to be related and interrelated”.

Keep classification of cards until you come down to 5 groups. Sometimes you might come to find that there are left single cards called “lone wolf” which cannot be ascribed in classification.

8 step – Sorting of cards

Cards are placed on sheet of paper according their relevance but preserving structural group difference. The scheme must be easily understandable and readable.

9 step - Structural diagram creation

When you have determined the positions of the cards, attach them and draw boundary lines. If several groups fall within one boundary, separate them with different color or style line so everyone understands the distinction.

Considering above described methods of business ideas generation and application for the implementation, can be identified obstacles to personal creativity (“mind lock”):

- ✓ Search for the only true solution
- ✓ Predetermined conviction: “There is no logic”
- ✓ Observance of the rules
- ✓ Conviction “Be practical”
- ✓ Avoidance of ambiguities.
- ✓ Attitude: “To fail is unacceptable”
- ✓ Conviction: “Playing is children's occupation ”
- ✓ Assertion that this is not your field of occupancy
- ✓ Fear of being a “joker” or a “black sheep”
- ✓ Conviction: “I am not creative”

CONCLUSIONS

1. Entrepreneurship is an aspiration to assume responsibility and possibility to assess and understand novelties. It is ability to be responsible for ones actions and counteractions, to complete what has been started, to predict what lies ahead and accordingly set goals to be.

2. The most important personal characteristic that promotes individual entrepreneurship is creativity. Creativity term – that is personal ability to discover novelties. Effective resolution of problems by large is facilitated not by skill or knowledge, but ability to apply this knowledge and skill in affective and diverse manner. Creativity – it is one’s inclination to novelties by way original modeling, composing and construing.

3. For business ideas generation and implementation can often be used active methods of education, such as: “Ideas map”, “Small group” method, “Ideas rain” or “Brain storming” method, “Nominal group” method, “Idea selection and evaluation according predetermined criteria” method. These methods must be pursued in order to avoid personal creative problem solving barriers.

REFERENCES

Becker-Textor I. *Kūrybiškumas vaikų darželyje*. Vilnius: Presvika, 2001.

Bornstein D. *How to Change the World: Social Entrepreneurs and the Power of New Ideas*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2004.

Gegieckienė L, Grikšienė A. *Verslumas*. Vilnius: Skaityk, 2009.

Grakauskaitė-Karkockienė D. *Kūrybos psichologija*. Vilnius: VPU leidykla. 2003.

Hill M. *Developing your creativity*. *Dermatology Nursing*, 2000, Vol. 12, Issue 3, p. 159.

Kaufmann P.J., Dant R.P. *Franchising and the domain of entrepreneurship research*. *Journal of Business venturing*, 1998 , (14) p. 5 – 16.

Kehily M.J. *Childhood studies*. England: Open University Press, 2004.

Kuvykaitė R. *Gaminio marketingas*. – Kaunas: Technologija, 2001.

Lowenfield V., Britain W.L. *Creative and mental growth*. New York: Macmillan publishing company, 1987.

Monkevičienė O. *Bendroji priešmokyklinio ugdymo ir ugdymosi programa*. Vilnius: LRŠMM, 2002.

Petrulytė A. *Kūrybiškumo ugdymas mokant*. Vilnius: Presvika, 2001.

Turner C. *Veskite į sėkmę. Kaip sukurti verslias organizacijas*. BMI: Baltos lankos, 2005).

ENTREPRENEURSHIP SKILL FORMATION ORGANIZING PRACTICAL TRAINING IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Marinescu Mariana

Oradea University, Romania - marinescum54@yahoo.com

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Valentin Blândul

Oradea University, Romania

Abstract

In zilele noastre, societatea contemporană se confruntă cu numeroase probleme care determină oamenii să găsească soluții ingenioase pentru a le rezolva. De exemplu, putem menționa diferite provocări din domeniu economic, social, cultural, politic, de mediu și așa mai departe. În astfel de circumstanțe, educația antreprenorială ar trebui să pregătească oameni în domenii mult mai complex decât investițiile financiare. Pentru a fi un antreprenor eficient înseamnă a avea inițiativă în domeniul de specializare și de a fi un cetățean activ implicat în viața comunității din care face parte. În lucrarea de față, ne-am propus să abordăm subiectul educației antreprenoriale nu din punct de vedere economic, ci din perspectiva modului în care elevii/studentii pot fi activ implicați în viața societății. Deci, în prima parte a lucrării, vom analiza problemele majore educația contemporană se confruntă. Apoi, vom descrie statutul și rolul de educație antreprenorială în contextul noilor dimensiuni ale procesului de învățământ. În ultima parte a lucrării, vom prezenta un

studiu de caz pentru un model de bună practică de educație antreprenorială disponibilă pentru România - o organizație locală non-guvernamentale care acționează în Oradea, județul Bihor, în domeniul educației non-formale și profesorilor formare. Ca o concluzie, considerăm că viața asociativă ar putea reprezenta cea mai bună modalitate prin care elevii și studenții pot deveni antreprenori eficienți, contribuind la dezvoltarea societății ce să-i pregătească pentru lumea de mâine.

Abstract

In the present days, our contemporary society is confronting with numerous problems which determine peoples to find ingenious solutions to solve them. For instance, we can mention different challenges from economical, social, cultural, political, environmental area and so on. In such circumstances, the entrepreneurial education should prepare people in more complex domains than financial investments. To be an effective contractor means to have initiative in field of specialization and to be an active citizen involve in life' community that he belongs. In the present paper, we intend to approach the subject of entrepreneurial education not specific from economic point of view, but from perspectives of ways from which pupils can be active involve in life of society. So, in the first part of our paper, we will analyse the major problems the contemporary education are confronting. Then, we will describe the status and role of entrepreneurial education in the context of new dimensions of educational process. In the last part of our paper, we will present a case study for a good practice model of entrepreneurial education available for Romania – a local non-governmental organization that act in Oradea, Bihor county, in field of non-formal education and teachers' training. As a conclusion, we consider that associative life could represent the best way by which students can become an effective contractor, contributing to develop the society and to prepare it for tomorrow's world.

EDUCATION AND CONTEMPORARY WORLD ISSUE

Nowadays, the issue of education is approached in connection with the issue of the contemporary world, a world that is characterized by many changes, changes in all areas, due to advances in science and technology, the proliferation of information, material and spiritual evolution of needs of people. But still, let's not forget that the world is also characterized by specific requirements and aspirations. Education is an essential dimension of the human being. Man can only become man by education - says Kant, in the imperative. Everything about humanity: language, mind, emotions, art, morality is achieved only through education. Tomorrow's society is the effect of today's society.

Humanity needs a common conscience, to promote a new humanism based not only on moral and cultural values, but also on purchases of scientific and technical revolution and its impact on life.

Education itself is not really "neutral", it is inseparable from the life of the community, of the economic, social, political, form of government. Education must constantly respond to the demands of national and international reality.

Today, *education* is a priority. All who see clearly the evolution of the human being, of the rational being, of the modern man and of the humanity as a whole emphasis on education. In recent decades, modern man is identified by the presence of new types of problems which require both the serious and urgent character, and through their regional and universal dimensions. Such issues are the continued deterioration of the environment (both terrestrial and marine), damage to the atmosphere, scarce natural resources, the fulminate demographic growth of the population in some areas, etc. Contemporary life is characterized by a series of mutations: amplification and the unforeseeable of economical and sociopolitical changes, intensity of the changes in professional areas, development of the interaction between social macro system and its components.

These problems which at first seemed to be just the attention of scientists, policy makers, politicians, began to become real problems, open

and concern for all people, issues that cannot be discussed separately, but in an interconnection. Thus, development cannot take place without peace. Peace cannot be authentic without respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms insurance. Rights and freedoms are illusory where reigning illiteracy, misery, excitement, hunger. The significance and effectiveness of the teaching are given availability of education and self adjusting to the challenges of growing the social space (C. Cucuș, 1996, p 30).

The truth is that every aspect of life at both individually and socially, provides opportunities for education, but also for active participation. People should take advantage of every opportunity to learn or self-improve, with the remark that the assimilation of these potential resources is only possible if previously a solid fundamental education has been received. We can even imagine a society where each individual is, in turn, student and teacher. Each of us can be the foremost man of action and a man of reflection. Mankind should not hesitate from continuing determined on the road taken and resignation. The first thing to do in a society where the quick pace of changes pressures us from all directions is to restore the central place of education.

At the end of the last century a UNESCO document proposed under the title of World problems in school, school introduction topics such as: *Human rights and fundamental freedoms; Hunger, poverty and economic progress; Protection of childhood and adolescence; Proliferation of conflicts between nations; Increasing health problems; Nutrition, malnutrition and undernourishment; Extinction of species of plants and animals, etc.*

These realities have led Aurelio Peccei - former president of the Club of Rome to introduce the new concept of the contemporary world problem. Representatives of the Club of Rome warned mankind of the dangers lurked (e.g. Alexander King and Bertrand Schneider in the first global revolution - a strategy for survival world. Sure, aggravating such problems, their consequences multiplication and amplification were not only drawn to the attention of international fora, various categories of professionals but to

the futurist analyzes as well (e.g. Heidi Toffler Alvin in the *Future Shock*, *The Third Wave*, *Power in Motion*, *War and antiwar*, *Economic spasm* etc.).

Preparing for the future is based on a deep understanding of the contemporary world issue (CWI), the causes that generated it in order to anticipate developments, and to adapt it creatively.

Contemporary world issue (CWI) has several characteristics:

- universal, all regions and all countries are placed in the core of the problem; solutions are cooperation and solidarity;
- global, is present in all sectors of social life, as a source of open problems, and difficulties, both in the material life and the spiritual;
- rapidly evolving and poorly predictable in the sense that modern man is very often faced with situations, and often not prepared to address them;
- complex, multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary nature, often solving problems to consider connections with other problems;
- override or pressures from the national and global communities are demanding answers prompt, and very frequently ingenuity major financial answers.

Contemporary world issues (CWI) shows more evident that the most effective solutions can be found neither through sequential steps nor sequential phases, but it takes a holistic view of studying and settling the most efficient means of solving the major problems that humanity is facing (environmental degradation, population explosion, proliferation of conflicts between nations, etc.).

Enriching the value of education content (dynamic and complex), requires change direction by moving from the pluridisciplinary model to the interdisciplinary model. The educational plan, analyze complex issues shaping the contemporary world and clearer reflection of the great themes led to the establishment of specific responses by potentiating "new education" (or new types of content).

School as the main educational agent, has the role to provide young people critical senses, capacity to understand and give proper answers to the various challenges of the society, to become more and more barer of their own training in order to be able to organize and to structure their own knowledge and to discover themselves having made judgment and future responsibility.

New education should not be seen only as a source of renewal and reconstruction of content derived from traditional dimensions of education. It is Romanian school merit regarding the new education issues to have coincided to the concerns of the western world. More than 35 years ago Professor George Văideanu and his colaboratores were using and described the term new education. But previous meritorious should be cited: University of Bucharest is among the top 10 universities in the world, who created computer centers six decades ago, thanks to Academician Gr C Moisil.

In a super technology society we should look the *new education* not as isolated dimensions but as a multiple systemic relationships and from the view of *future effect*. The ability to master intellectual, political and social the modern technologies is one of the major challenges of the modern man in this century.

New educations, in order of their appearance are:

- Environmental education (or environmental education) ;
- Education in the population (or demographic education) ;
- Nutrition education ;
- Education for new technology and progress ;
- Education to the media;
- Education for peace and cooperation;
- Education for Democracy and Human Rights ;
- Modern Health Education ;
- Education for leisure ;
- Education for a new international order ;
- Education with international vocation ;
- Education for a quality life ;

- Intercultural Education
- Entrepreneurship education etc.

This list will remain open as possible every time to be completed.

"We should look the *new education* not as isolated dimensions but as a multiple systemic relationships and from the view of *future effect*."

Liviu Antonesei professor at University of Iași, Romania

If at the beginning of our century *New education* or *Active School* where announcing the will of innovating the school education especially of the teacher-student methods and relationships, the New education are keepers of new aims and messages encompassing as answers given to some contempt's .

In the future, it is natural that new education list being modified either by adding new education by imposing new requirements and educational content or the disappearance of "education". The list remains open, introducing new education assuming stronger international dimension in our education. If some of the new educations are fairly well defined, others are subject to discussion and to specify their boundaries. New education should not be seen only as a source of renewal and reconstruction of content derived from traditional dimensions of education.

Practical ways to implement the new education (action possibilities)

Some practical ways to implement the new education

As practical ways to implement the new education (action possibilities) we recall:

Introduction of new disciplines centred on a particular type of education, the difficulty is in charge of curricula (*Entrepreneurial education; Healthcare Education, Civic Education, etc.*)

- Create specific educational modules, namely a special chapters in the traditional disciplines (e.g. an interdisciplinary modules such as Entrepreneurship and Practicing Firms);
- Infusing classical disciplines encompassing educational message content specific information of the "new education".

Model of good practice in implementing entrepreneurship education

The complexity of the present life and the problems facing today's society forces us to constantly redefine the value system and adapt to the challenges of the contemporary world. However, the quality of life of people (and especially young people - that segment of the population with chronological age between 16 and 30 years) was strongly influenced unfortunately not always in a positive way. According to literature (Mariana Marinescu et. Al., 2006, p 30) quality of life of young people is assessed on the value of indicators of health, education, employment and living conditions, social relations, etc. In this study our aim is not to achieve a detailed analysis of each of the indicators mentioned. Thus, we shall retain that, for example, health of the population has ameliorated in the last half of the century, due to the spectacular evolution of medical technologies as well. Life expectancy has grown to values that overcome 6-7 decades. Implementation period of education has been extended from mandatory to permanent; "Life Long Learning" concept has been developed. Although population who benefits from the educational process are polarized in two categories: those who are enrolled in school are limited to 11 years and those who attend higher education. Working and living conditions can be evaluated by financial income per person is deemed unsatisfactory by most people (Gabriela Nedelcu et. Al., 2003).

In these circumstances, the youth have two possibilities: either expect a positive change in their lives to come from the company's management authority or take the initiative, trying to improve their living standards. By its specific, entrepreneurship education promotes exactly this type of behavior characteristic to the people willing to be actively involved in the community to which they belong. Such participation could include civic engagement, economic investment, assuming social responsibility, leadership, etc. Moreover, increasing youth participation graders in social life, in all its formal event - economic, civic, political, cultural, mobility, participation in education and so on. It is one of the priorities of the National Plan of Action for Youth, as part of the state policy in the field

promoted today in Romania. It seeks to attract young people to the social life of the community and training them to become responsible adults, with a harmonious and creative personality, perfectly integrated into the society of the future (C. Cucuș , 2006). Regarding Bihor state policies regarding non-formal education (and in particular, the Local Action Plan for Youth, Oradea) include areas such as personal development, namely volunteering and civic engagement (Mariana Marinescu, 2006, pp. 65-66). In the field I (personal development) were included initiatives that can (and should) offer youth a chance to improve those skills and abilities needed for complex development and correct the character and behavior. Special emphasis should be placed on those programs and activities that meet the need for self-awareness of young people (identifying their values, ideals, goals, and awareness of self-image, their own possibilities and limitations) as well as activities that promote appropriate behavior in relation with others, they constitute an important source of individual psychosocial development. The main objectives of the domain I (personal development) are: increasing self-awareness of the beneficiaries; develop behavioral skills and abilities to better networking of individuals in society. Achieving these goals is possible through the development of personal development activities such as the establishment of clubs in each area / neighborhood, aiming to achieve specific activities for different categories of staff, as well as projects for human resource development, development of informal activities in partnership with various organizations / institutions in the community, the development of services for parents and young people to optimize relations between generations, etc.

Success indicators specific to domain I (personal development) varies on the established objectives and implementation methods specific to each. Mentioned indicators can be grouped into the following categories:

- the number and type of activities / courses / training sessions conducted;
- the number and type of funds raised and disbursed;
- the number and type of materials produced and distributed;
- number of participants;

- number of beneficiaries;
- evaluation results of the activities carried out;
- quantity and quality of media appearances.

Responsible for the successful implementation of these activities are non-governmental organizations, public institutions, schools and university, other factors in Oradea interested to get involved.

Domain II refers to voluntary and civic involvement. According to the National Council of Volunteering (2002), volunteering is an activity on its own initiative by any person on behalf of another, without receiving any compensation material. In other words, to be a volunteer means choosing to put your available time, knowledge, skills, energy, for the benefit of others without being paid and without being constrained. A person can volunteer both within non-governmental and / or public institutions (formal volunteering) and on their own (informal volunteering) (Gabriela Nedelcu et al., 2003, p 56).

➤ according to the same Local Plan of Action for Youth Oradea , the main objectives of the domain II (volunteering and civic engagement) are:

- increasing information and awareness of community life ;
- development of civic attitudes of young people;
- promote the volunteer population and increase the number of volunteers;

Concrete ways of achieving these objectives could be represented by: identifying the problems facing the community, a campaign to inform the population about the issues encountered in the community, the public advice campaigns and other activities for involvement in decision-making and/ or developing citizenship, development of actions to popularize examples of good practice and/or those that provide the organized personal involvement, organizing campaigns to inform the population on its involvement opportunities in voluntary actions, training sessions with local stakeholders on the benefits of volunteering etc . Indicators of success of these activities depend on the objectives and methods appropriate to each, can be grouped as following:

- number and type of campaigns / activities / training sessions held;
- number of NGOs and institutions involved;
- number of participants;
- the number and type of funds raised and disbursed;
- the number and type of materials produced and distributed;
- number of beneficiaries;
- quantity and quality of media appearances.

In Oradea, the implementation of these activities will address local NGOs , other public institutions, schools and universities, other stakeholders. One of the most efficient ways through which these youth state policy can be implemented is to encourage persons to participate to associative life of the community, represented by the non-governmental sector . These organizations allow their members to join and initiate activities to help develop their communities, but also their personal. In Romania, the NGO sector has evolved greatly in the last 24 years, reaching a level of maturity that would ensure the successful achievement of goals. Moreover, Mariana Marinescu et. al. (2006, 44-46) conducted a SWOT analysis extremely relevant non- governmental organizations (NGOs) and associative life in Romania, resulting in the following:

A) Strengths:

- At least satisfactory performance of NGOs in the implementation of various programs / projects ;
- Number of NGOs working in different fields ;
- Rich professional expertise of several NGO workers ;
- The international membership of NGOs and their participation in the project / community programs ;
- Very good cooperation between the various NGOs in the country and abroad;
- Involvement of people in solving community problems through NGOs;
- Guiding young people to European values.

B) Weaknesses:

- Low capacity of NGOs to solve a number of problems in their field;
- Reduced civic and political participation of several persons;
- Decreasing confidence in state institutions;
- Negative perception of the political class;
- Reduced to political life satisfaction.

C) Opportunities:

The opportunity to intervene and solve problems in education , culture, social life etc.;

- Cooperation between NGOs and local authorities;
- Support to strengthen European integration of Romania;
- Improving access to European funds state.

D) Threats:

- Not all young people perceive personal usefulness of the association;
- Decreased interest in accountability;
- Monopolization of European funds by a relatively small number of NGOs.

Hereinafter, we intend to offer a good example of associative life in Bihor County, Romania, as a result of the non-governmental entrepreneurship. Association for Education and Training "TopFormalis" Oradea is a professional association, legal person of private, nongovernmental, non-profit and apolitical organization, established under Ordinance No. 26/2000, amended by Law no. 246/2005.

The mission of the Association for Education and Training "TopFormalis" Oradea is to raise the quality of the educational process and of the services offered by this domain. In order to achieve its mission, the following objectives are taking into account:

- raising the level of educational and professional training of students and undergraduate students;
- developing the scientific, methodological and psycho-pedagogical competencies of the faculty that teaches in schools and universities;
- supporting the educational agents (students, parents, and teachers) who are in the middle of any type of educational crisis;
- promoting lifelong learning through all possible ways including unconventional media (e-learning, m-learning etc.);
- developing the educational management;
- developing an academic community that is based on non-formal education;
- implementing research activities in education;
- designing and managing educational projects;

The main activities that the Association for Education and Training "TopFormalis" Oradea aims to achieve are:

- organizing academic activities and events that are specific to formal and non-formal education (elective classes, accredited programs of professional educational training, seminars, workshops, scientific conferences, artistic, educational or spare time events, etc.);
- offering educational services to all educators that experience moments of educational crisis (programs of Cognitive therapy type A and B, elements of therapy for different physical and psychological deficiencies, educational counseling etc.);
- offering managerial consultancy to educators and leading structures in education;
- establishing educational and cooperative partnerships with other national or international structures that promotes similar values to our association;
- designing, writing and implementing research projects/ developing/ innovation in education;
- editing educational books, magazines, booklets, advertisement prompts etc. in a printed or electronic form;

- creating a Documenting and Information Center on-line for education;
- identifying, promoting and disseminating the model of good practice in education;

From the above, we can see the importance of non-governmental associations, civic and social life. Through its activities and the specific degree of flexibility, NGOs can solve community problems that state institutions could deal with more difficulty. Therefore, through entrepreneurship education, young people should be encouraged to get involved and take initiatives to improve their lives. Unfortunately, only 11.3% of young people seem willing to participate in such initiatives, but we hope that through the Association for Education and Training "TopFormalis" Oradea, their interest in associational life and quality education to increase significantly.

Entrepreneurial education in Romanian universities

In the development of the entrepreneurial phenomenon strategic vision occupies an important as it is an important element ensuring the identification of phenomena that occur in the competitive market. Strategic vision highlights how national and multinational companies materialize their policies on the management and interpretation of phenomena occurring in the competitive market. To align entrepreneurial education in Romanian universities with their counterparts from the EU, U.S. Canada and awareness to young students on the appropriateness and feasibility of an entrepreneurial approach to capitalize on knowledge and innovation. The proposed widening and educational pedagogies server live long learning, e-learning, learning by doing, students at international seminars, modules, etc. examples of good practice.

Entrepreneurial education in universities should take into account, first, the local market and have to suggest solutions and processes to existing opportunities and to prepare graduates in an internationalized entrepreneurship, primarily as a result of the considerable speed with which propagate new products, services or technologies. As in most European

universities research will be directed towards entrepreneurial education differentiated target groups (depending on the specialization of the student base) and at least two educational levels: undergraduate (entrepreneurship local impact, national) and postgraduate (international entrepreneurship). Distinctions must be made both didactic and pedagogic skills that graduate because they will assimilate. Thus in international entrepreneurship new qualities acquired are on higher levels taking into account the contact with international market adaptability macrosystems, cultural sensitivity, skills in communication (language), international negotiation skills, flexibility, etc. University entrepreneurial education will be addressed in three different registers, but complementary:

- create entrepreneurship, by understanding the concepts of responsibility, value added, innovation, change, risk taking. It is a step to sensitize youth through less traditional teaching methods e.g. *Management paradigm* (Ioan Abrudan, Cluj- Napoca), *Management models* (Liviu Marian and Zsuzsanna Szabo, Targu -Mures), *Technical innovation and entrepreneurial behavior* (Mirela Bucurean, Oradea) professional student competitions, student scientific communication sessions, and so on;

- pro-entrepreneurial behaviours as a result of mood and of an appropriate educational programs. The purpose of the register is achieved when students' prior knowledge, skills and competencies gained are able to take entrepreneurial initiatives: the ability to start a business. At this stage fictitious or real situations are created through various simulations and management so that students faced with surprise elements to be able to properly manage information and decide realistic and timely.

In 2010 it was approved and started in technical universities, a program of creation and implementation of the concept of "enterprise simulated techniques working in technology companies." It aims organizing enterprises simulated by the establishment and operationalization of the three laboratories for businesses simulated to develop entrepreneurial and managerial skills among students following technical studies. Various prestigious companies offering training opportunities for students providing platforms process simulators.

In 2011, once with the launch of the integrated business simulation and e-learning platform www.simulatordeafaceri.ro were established 12 training simulated firms in higher education level in order to prepare students in working in virtual companies as they would work for real. This programme ensured interaction between simulated companies where students had the possibility to train. The Platform comprised four functional components:

- www.simulatordeafaceri.ro portal, for national dissemination of information about business simulation;
- e-learning component dedicated to learning specific functionalities distance;
- specialized modules for simulating business: General Management, Universal Banking, Destination Management, Applied Economics, Project Management; 9
- ERP (Enterprise Resource Management) which simulates running

Simulated current business enterprises and their operation departments.

The main goal of the platform is to create an integrated , inter-regional network, inter-regional of simulated companies (IS) in order to develop the needed skills; improving the labour market insertion of graduates of faculties of economics based on real partnerships between universities and businesses.

By creating this network is given the opportunity for the faculties to develop their own system of integrated teaching and learning practice, especially in economic faculties, replicable and adaptable to other areas of education. IS network created will provide conditions to familiarize students with: the language of business, operations and business processes similar to the real business environment and the challenges of the real world. This, together with the development of strategic partnerships actual university business will provide premises for increasing employment for graduates.

The specific objectives that have been established refer to:

- Training and certification of 24 employees of real businesses that trainers tutors for students / master students performing internships in IS;
- Develop and implement a package of materials and tools to support the advice and guidance of 384 students graduate;
- Creating an integrated business simulation and e-learning Practical training to 3840 students in 12 SC 3 sections to acquire professional skills;
- Students, under the guidance of master tutors as managers and trainers will conduct training sessions practice within the 12 IS, the three economic profiles;
- Hiring a maximum of 96 graduate students in business where their real tutors are coming (96 students graduate or trained by SC to be employed in real businesses companies, becoming then, tutors trainers for future generations of students.

Simulated enterprises interactive learning is a method aimed at developing entrepreneurship by integrating and applying interdisciplinary knowledge to provide conditions for deepening practical skills acquired by students in training. The purpose of this method is teaching the students to develop business skills by simulating the processes and activities that take place in a real company and its relationships with other firms and institutions. Simulated enterprises facilitates learning and developing economic and legal knowledge required in a real company, creating skills and competencies that can be applied in all economic fields and in all positions within a company.

The overall objective of learning through simulated enterprises is to develop entrepreneurship:

- Familiarize students with the specific activities of a real company;
- Simulation of real economic processes specific business environment;
- Improving the business language;

- Provide knowledge and factual information about the mechanisms of the market economy, the importance of education in achieving career and economic impact on the future of young people;

- Encouraging competitive spirit , quality and responsibility;

- Develop competencies, skills and attitudes necessary for a dynamic entrepreneur:

- Creativity;

- Competitiveness;

- Critical thinking;

- Analytical thinking;

- Creativity;

- Problem solving;

- Making decisions;

- Accountability;

- Teamwork;

- Initiative;

- Adaptability;

- Perseverance;

- Self-organizing and self-evaluation of individual resources;

- Flexibility.

Implementation of the "simulated company" aims at creating dynamic entrepreneurial model, able to develop a new production process, to bring to market a new product or service or to discover a new way of distribution.

Expected results from the application of this method are:

- Increasing labor market insertion of graduates;

- Reduction of period of adjustment to work;

- Better adaptability to changing jobs.

-

Minimum standards for the establishment of an simulated enterprise:

- The number of students in a simulated enterprise : it is determined by how the simulator is organized enterprise. Each department / section of the company must be formed (include) at least one person.
- Minimum 8 networked computers , internet connection, one phone, one fax, multifunction, 15 tables, 30 chairs , video , software); a room equipped with : Wardrobe with shelves;
- It is necessary that students have basic economic knowledge, knowledge of foreign languages, computer skills, have basic accounting concepts etc.
- Year of study is introduced, depending on the profile:
Economic - starting with year 3 or master
Technical - since year 4 or Master
Travel / services - starting with year 3 or master
Social Science - starting with year 3 or master
Environmental Science - from year 3 to master
Social and Human Sciences communication - from year 3 to master.

REFERENCES

- Antonesei L., (2002), *An introduction to pedagogy*, Polirom, Iași
- Blândul V. (eds.) (2008) - *Non-formal education - from theory to practice*, University of Oradea;
- Cucoș C. (2006) - *Pedagogy*, Polirom, Iași;
- Delors, J. (eds.). (2000), *Treasure Within. Report to UNESCO of the International Commission on Education in the XXI century* Polirom, Iași
- Marinescu Mariana, 2013 *New education in the knowledge society*, ProUniversitaria Publishing House, Bucharest
- Marinescu Mariana et. al. (2006) - *Guidance and career counseling for youth policies*, University of Oradea;
- Malița M. (2001), *Ten thousand cultures one civilization*, Nemira Bucharest

Momanu M., (2002), *Introduction to the Theory of Education*, Polirom, Iasi.

Nedelcu Gabriela, Nedelcu Madalina Muresan Ioana Stan Simona Muresan Traian (2003) - *Environmental education and environmental volunteering Foundation for Culture and Environmental Education ECOTOP Oradea*, National Volunteer Center PRO VODIS;

Tofler, A., (1999), *The Third Wave*, Publishing House, Bucharest

HIDDEN PRIVATISATION IN PUBLIC EDUCATION. SPANISH EDUCATION REFORMS AND NEW ACTORS OF INFLUENCE

Dr. Mohammed EL HOMRANI

Granada University, Spain - mohammed@ugr.es

Dr. Geo SAURA

Granada University, Spain - geosaura@ugr.es

Abstract

Around the globe, the study of global education policy is producing new ways of social sciences research. In this chapter, the authors analyse some characteristics of the global education reforms which are developing by the most regions. As an exponent, Spain is implementing a new education reform act (LOMCE, Ley Orgánica para la Mejora de la Calidad Educativa). In this process of global education reforms are being incorporated different forms of privatisation into public education systems. The purpose of this research is to describe some mechanisms of hidden privatisation in public education. These forms of privatisations are influenced by new actors. From this perspective, we examine the effects that new players are occupying in this movement of education policy. The analysis of roles occupied by organisations and think tanks is an important tool to describe new power relations. The chapter explores the dominant discourses and debates of the Spanish neoliberal think tank Foundation for Social Studies and Analysis (FAES) and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).

Key words: global education policy; hidden privatisation; think tanks; OECD

Introduction

In this moment, the research of education policy is changing in the most countries. Global education policy is a response to the increasing scope of globalisation and the increasing pace and influence of globalisation and their various impacts on national education systems. Education policies with similar speeches, new public management in the education system, performance management, accountability actions, news forms of privatisation, public-private partnerships or performance related pay are being introduced around the world. Furthermore, globalisation is a very suitable concept for social researches due to its character and meaning in this process of reform educational. This term is a concept also affecting how governments think about education and what schools teach to their students. Perhaps education policy transfers could be thought of as being like the movement of 'policy epidemic' (Levin, 1998). These tendencies towards the change of the policy are having major influences, in different ways, on public education systems in countries across the globe. The global education reform movement (Sahlberg, 2011a) emerged from three sources: new paradigm of learning of cognitive and constructivist approaches; effective learning for all pupils; and accountability movement accompanied of decentralisation of public services. The global education reform movement (Sahlberg, 2011b, p. 175), describe a new form of market competition and educational standardisation in which professional autonomy is replaced by the ideals of efficiency, productivity, and rapid service delivery. It is possible with the use of terms such as: standards, accountability, management, choice and economy in education policy discourse. These various forms are being discussed and implemented to the point that they have obtained the status of 'global education polices' (Verger, Novelli y Altinyelken, 2012).

The aim of this paper is to present the new forms of privatisation in the new reform movement of the education system in Spain. The processes of privatisation and decentralisation in education have been influenced by relevant external institutional, prominently the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, The World Trade Organization and The

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). The importance of the role of the state in public education in this process of privatisation has been studied by more and more researchers from different visions (Apple, 2001; Ball & Youdell, 2008; Bowles & Gintis, 1976; Burch, 2009; Levin; 2001; Rizvi & Lingard, 2009; Robertson, Bonal & Dale, 2002; Zajda, 2006). According to Lipman (2013, p. 557) the state is using the structural crisis of capitalism to accelerate neoliberal restructuring of public education.

The new forms of privatisation of public services are characterizing the movement of global education policies. It is a new measure that is changing the ethos of education. Privatisation in public education or endogenous, are such forms or privatisation involve the importing of ideas, techniques and practices from the private sector in order to make the public sector more like business and more business-like (Ball & Youdell, 2008, p. 8-9). The privatisation of public education or exogenous, are such forms or privatisation involve the opening up of public education services to private sector participation on a for-profit basis and using the private sector to design, manage or deliver aspects of public education (Ball & Youdell, 2008, p. 9).

These changes around the world are taking place in how policy and public services get done (Ball, 2012, p. 2) locally, nationally and globally. An important consequence of this process is the restructuring of the states. We study the state how a social relation, that involves a form-determined condensation of the changing balance of forces (Jessop, 2002, p. 40). State power in the creation of education policies, implies the exercises of a different actors and forces. State power is the sum of a 'balance of forces as this is institutionally mediated through the state apparatus with its structurally inscribed strategic selectivity' (Jessop, 2002, p. 40). This situation is producing the reconfiguration of a new model of the state. In this moment, to study education policies in the different contexts, there is to analyses multiples actors, policy-makers, groups of power and the different influences policies. Within all of this the contents and purposes of global education policy are modifying all regions. The

hierarchy structure of the state is being displaced as a dominant mode of governance (Rhodes, 1996). In this restructuring of the state, policy network analysis is a new approach to study the field of global education policy. 'Policy networks are one type of the new social, involving particular kinds of social relationships, flows and movements' (Ball, 2012, p. 5). Policy networks are created with actors that influence in the state decision. As Olmedo & Santa Cruz point out, 'new players are arising and hybrid spaces are being created that blur the responsibilities and boundaries of what is being traditional understood as the public sphere' (2013, p.476). It is a medium to create a new policy, with multiples actors and organisations are being established through particular discourses and truths, new power relations influencing the state. These are 'new policy assemblages with a diverse range of participants which exist in a new kind policy space somewhere between multilateral agencies, national governments, NGOs, think tanks and advocacy groups' (Ball, 2012, p.10).

This article describes new forms of privatisation in public education in the Spanish reform and the new actors that are influencing in the forms of governance in this context. We will attend the discourse of the new reform movement in the Spanish education. Policy networks are being officially recognized through discourses to legitimize truths (Foucault, 1988). In this new policy, two specific actors are being more influents that other. The first actor is Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) with Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). The second actor is the Spanish neoliberal think-tank Foundation for Social Studies and Analysis (FAES, *Fundación para el Análisis y los Estudios Sociales*).

Endogenous privatisation in Spain: FAES

In this moment, a new reform act is changing in Spain, (LOMCE, Ley Orgánica para la Mejora de la Calidad en Educación). As we will describe, recent political approval made by the conservative Spanish Party Popular incorporate a privatisation in this context. The reform has achieved is a solid opposition from other political groups, educators, some regional

authorities and a large part of society. Education reform is approved in Congress with only the Party Popular support. In this country, forms of privatisation are being introduced into public education system. As Fred van Leeuwen describes, under the banner of educational reform and their impact may be presented as ‘keeping up with the times’ (van Leeuwen, 2008, p. 3).

The new reform in education system incorporates different mechanisms of privatisation in public system, or ‘endogenous privatisation’, through the importing of ideas, techniques and practices from the private sector in order to convert the education sector more like business. These forms of privatisation in public education change the way in which is managed and organized, how the curriculum is decided, how students’ performance is assessed and how the actions of teacher are judged. The LOMCE is establishing three different policy technologies own of this education reform around the world. As Ball affirms, ‘three different policy technologies were brought to bear upon and within the public sector’ –markets or quasi-market, managerialism or new public management and performativity culture (Ball, 2007, p. 24). Education reform is spreading across the globe, and the policy technologies are changing the different systems. These elements are closely inter-dependent in the processes of reform, as Ball describes (2003, p. 215) ‘these technologies offer a politically attractive alternative to the state-centred, public welfare tradition of educational provision’. An objective in the new reform is to promote parents’ choice of school and to produce a new public education in terms of market.

FAES, the principal active neoliberal foundation in Spain illustrates the role of Spanish think tanks in the construction of ‘circuits of influence and policy advocacy’ in the reform of public education (Olmedo & Santa Cruz, 2013). FAES is a leading think tank committed to nurturing the political ideas and activities of the liberal and reformist centre. This foundation is pressed by José María Aznar, Prime Minister of Spain from 1996-2004. As proclaimed in its narrative:

Its aim is to create, promote and spread ideas based on political, intellectual and economic freedom. Ideas capable of offering political alternatives to socialism and different ways of thinking. Ideas which can be adopted and turned into programmes of political activity by those in positions of political responsibility.

As Olmedo & Santa Cruz point out, FAES promotes individual rights, freedom ‘economic freedom’, competition and more markets, as direct translation within the field of public education policy. Freedom and choice are on the discourses and ideological pillars of FAES:

FAES believes in economic freedom and upholds the concepts of private property, market economies and free trade – concepts that are both inalienable rights of a free society and the key drivers of prosperity and progress. Its liberal persuasions mean that it also upholds the role of the State as guarantor of individual freedom.

The field of education policy in Spain has been reformed by the Foundation neoliberal, influencing with ‘strong ideology’. FAES published in 2009 a book titled ‘Reform School Education’ being a previous of the new education reform act. López Rupérez (2009), the author of this book is a relevant ideologist of the Party Popular. He affirms that Spain needs new dynamics of hidden privatisation (quasi-market, new public management and accountability).

FAES unifies national education policy by integrating it with broader global trends. Because, as Sahlberg (2011, p. 97) argues, the phenomenon of global education reform believes that problems and challenges are similar from one education system to the next, solutions and education reform agendas are becoming similar. In this perspective, FAES maintains a new way of thinking monitoring the development of globalisation.

‘The Foundation is also aware of the existence of new anti-liberal ways of thinking and we are therefore constantly monitoring the development of a number of ideological trends that have a negative impact on the freedom of the individual. These trends include populism, anti-globalisation, relativism...’

Spanish education reform is interested in a new managerialism. In the case, a new manager is as Ball (2007, p. 25) affirms ‘the competition state writ small, although in both rhetoric and practice new managerialism is a ragbag of models, values and purposes –as is the competition state’. New Public Management is a concept formally conceptualized as a new form of administration in public service organisations. New Public Management includes attention to outputs and performance rather than inputs (Clarke, Gewirtz & McLaughlin, 2000) in application to the public education this involves a decisive ‘reconstitution of power relations’ (Ball, 2007, p. 25). More frequently policy is expressed in the methods of business and language. Furthermore, New Public Management is the central figure in the reform of the public sector and the introduction of quasi-markets (Ball & Youdell, 2008, p. 18). In the recent Spanish education policy, this actor is occupying more and more control and power, as in other contexts. The new manager is a characteristic in the global education reform movement.

In this perspective, FAES point out ‘models of bureaucratic management of public schools feature, inexorably, the deterioration of public schooling. For that reason, advances in this matter should be necessarily accompanied by a wider devolution of responsibilities to public schools and their management teams, and mechanisms of control and intervention based on accountability (López Rupérez 2009, p. 18, cited in Olmedo & Santa Cruz, 2013, p. 490).

Education reform act is completed with other mechanism of privatisation: performativity culture or a new mode of regulation. The performances of individual subjects or organisations serve as measures of productivity or output, or displays of ‘quality’, or moments of promotion or inspection (Ball, 2007, p. 27). Accountability and performance management mechanisms and performance-related pay in education is other mechanism in this movement of reform. LOMCE, using these mechanisms of hidden privatisation in education is intended to ensure that educational processes are made more transparent, more control in Spanish schools. In this case, a new culture in Spanish education represents as Ball explores, quality or value of an individual or organisation within a field of

judgment, is about ‘driving out poor performance, inefficiencies and redundancies’ (2007, p. 27).

These processes are producing an audit culture (Apple, 2007), or part of what Power has used in the expression ‘audit state’. These categories are ‘the sum’ unified by market choice and control state. Neoliberalism and neoconservatism requires the constant production of evidence or in Apple’s terms (2007), the state knows that you are doing things in the ‘correct’ way, with a control excessive. It permits a new state introduced ‘into the culture, practices and subjectivities of public sector organisations and their workers, without appearing to do so’ (Ball, 2007, p. 27). FAES believes in this policy formed by elements that come from the union’s two ideological sources: neoliberalism and neoconservatism (Olmedo & Santa Cruz, 2013). In this perspective, Antonio Viñao (2012) describes, the Spanish educational, it is the result of ‘opposed ideologies’.

Endogenous privatisation in Spain: OECD

As other example, the new education reform act is producing a ‘decisive power’ of different players and policy makers. LOMCE is an excellent opportunity for relevant actors. Sahlberg affirms that ‘change knowledge in education’ has been created and disseminated predominantly by English-speaking countries. As continues Sahlberg (2011) in the business of global education development it is important to be a critical consumer of available change knowledge. In this moment, it is a phenomenon around the world. The inspiration of this global education movement evolves an unofficial agenda that relies on a certain set of assumptions to improve education systems.

In addition, external evaluations have become a ‘principal key’ of the global education reforms. For that reason, new policies are being introduced through the strategies and interests of international agendas. The idea of global education reform is characterized by mechanisms of control and intervention based on accountability. These discourses have made it possible to evaluate different countries, to compare different education systems in a ranking. The central objective in this process is to drive the

world in the way of standardisation. The OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) and the International Association for the Evaluation of the Educational Achievement's (IEA's) Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) and Progress in International Reading and Literacy Study (PIRLS) have influenced this global education movement. Therefore, the aim of this part is to analyse the power that PISA has obtained in the education reform act.

In this new globalizing political landscape, the OECD is the most important actor of education policy agendas. The OECD was founded in 1961 from the Organisation for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC), which was created by United States in 1948 to help the Marshall Plan reconstruction of post-war Europe. The OECD is a 'pivotal international organisation' because it sows the seeds of international consensus and cooperation that allow humankind to obtain a distinction capacity to manage our common affairs (Woodward, 2009, p. 5). This position was legitimized with the expansion of the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). PISA has been expanded since it was first conducted in 2000. The organisation's capacity to measure results through PISA and other programmes has been reinforced. Sellar and Lingard (2013, p. 186) suggest the OECD has become the recognized global center amongst international organisations for technical expertise in measurement of the schooling performance in member and non-member nations. Policy is assembled through 'a logic of perpetual comparison' (Novoa, 2010, p 270) which is legitimized in this process of global education movement. In this case, comparison and classification are mechanisms or ways of governing without governing. PISA is a measurement of human capital 'flows into economies' (Sellar & Lingard, 2013: 193). This accountability development has been accompanied by reductionist accounts within policy of teachers as the most significant school-based factor for 'determining' student learning outcomes (Lingard, 2010). PISA and this globalisation of the educational standards are producing relevant effects in the global education movement.

Moreover, the state, with this movement of policies reorganizes its role. PISA is changing its functions, a new restructuring of control and power. Novoa (2010) describes as the state is configured as ‘governing without government’ or ‘steering at a distance’. For that reason, PISA is a new model of governance in education. This change is identified by Lingard, Martino and Rezai-Rashti (2013, p. 540) ‘as a form of global panopticism, with the global eye functioning in a regulatory capacity across and within national states’. Woodward (2009) has produced an ample research about the OECD, and suggests that ‘there are four interrelated and overlapping dimensions to the OECD’s role in global governance (cognitive, normative, legal and palliative. In this perspective, a cognitive dimension is the incarnation of a community of countries sharing overarching values; normative responds the real of research, knowledge and ideas; legal dimension is the production of international law; and palliative, is considered as a lubricant to the wider processes of global governance. These dimensions are obtained with PISA.

Other character of PISA is to produce direct effects on national education policies. Bonal and Tarabini (2013, p. 336) explore this dimension in Spain. They describe that the direct effects of PISA are visible in those policies or programmes that are a direct consequences of the country’s performance in the evaluation process or that derive from OECD policy advice and recommendations linked to PISA. At the same time, in the Spanish education reform, PISA has had an important impact, as in other education reforms. LOMCE and the think tank neoliberal promote the narratives of the OECD. The minister of education ‘José Ignacio Wert’ expresses the new reform act (LOMCE) as our own PISA. The role of PISA is considered as Bonal and Tarabini (2013, p. 336) call, ‘hegemonic tool’ in certain educational reforms.

Concluding comment

The idea of global education policy has created a new approach to study this phenomenon. Around the globe, many of the reforms are the sum of a set of policies, often under the conception of ‘global solutions’ as a

solution to apply new dynamics of privatisation. This process is implementing market solutions as the best form to improve the world. The new way of privatisation, where the public education is understood more like the private sector, we defined as Ball and Youdell (2008) ‘endogenous privatisation’.

This paper has contextualised these changes in the contemporary Spanish education reform. LOMCE is a new reform created by Party Popular, where is producing a legitimisation of the narratives of neoliberalism and conservatism. These forms of hidden privatisation are incorporating in Spain new forms to attend educational system. In this context, parents’ choice of school is producing a quasi-market system; new actions of new public management; and a new mode of regulation or performativity culture.

Our research has studied the forces of power relations that are implementing new players in the national political decision. The neoliberal think tank (FAES) and the OECD are occupying important roles in the Spanish educational reform. As Olmedo & Santa Cruz (2013) suggest, in the Spanish educational arena, FAES and its networks of academics and experts is generating the discourses and ideological pillars of neoliberalism. As Bonal and Tarabini (2013) affirm in this context, ‘the OECD and PISA results have played a key role in shaping Spanish hegemonic educational discourses, policies and practices’. This mechanism has been considered by Lingard, Martino and Rezai-Rashti (2013) as a form of global panopticism of infrastructure ‘datafication function’. The discourse of the OECD is occupying an important role in the new global governance of public education as a form of world control at this moment.

REFERENCES

- Apple, M.W. (2001). *Educating the ‘right’ way: Markets, standards, God, and inequality*. New York: Routledge/Falmer.
- Apple, M. (2007). Education, markets, and an audit culture. *International Journal of Educational Policies*, 1 (1), 4-19.

Ball, S.J. (2003). The teacher's soul and the terrors of performativity. *Journal of Education Policy*, 18 (2), 215-228.

Ball, S. J. (2007). *Education plc: understanding private sector participation in public sector education*. New York: Routledge.

Ball, S. J. (2012). *Global Education Inc. New policy networks and the neo-liberal imaginary*. London and New York: Routledge.

Bonal, X. and Tarabini, A. (2013). The Role of PISA in Shaping Hegemonic Educational Discourses, Policies and Practices: the case of Spain. *Research in Comparative and International Education*, 8 (3) 335-341.

Bowles, S. and Gintis, H. (1976). *Schooling in Capitalist America*. New York: Basic Books.

Ball, S. J. (2007). *Education plc: understanding private sector participation in public sector education*. New York: Routledge.

Ball, S. J. and Youdell, D. (2008). Hidden privatisation in public education.

<http://download.ei-ie.org/docs/IRISDocuments/Research%20Website%20Documents/2009-00034-01-E.pdf>

Burch, P. (2009). *Hidden markets. The new education privatisation*. New York and London: Routledge.

Clarke, J.; Gewirtz, S. & McLaughlin, E. (2000). Reinventing the Welfare State. In *New Managerialism New Welfare?*, J. Clarke; S. Gewirtz and E. McLaughlin (eds.), 1-27. London: Sage/The Open University.

Foucault, M. (1988). Por qué estudiar el poder: la cuestión del sujeto. En *M. Foucault: más allá del estructuralismo y la hermenéutica*, Hubert L. Dreyfus y Paul Rabinow, (eds.) 227-234. México D. F.: Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México.

Jessop, B. (2002). *The future of the capitalist state*. Cambridge: Policy.

Levin, H. M. (2001). *Privatizing Education. Can the Marketplace Deliver Choice, Efficiency, Equity, and Social Cohesion?* Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press.

Lingard, B. (2010). Towards a sociology of pedagogies. In *The Routledge International Handbook of the Sociology of Education*, M. Apple; S.J. Ball and L. A. Gandin (eds.), 167-178. London and New York: Routledge.

Lingard, B.; Martino, W. and Rezai-Rashti, G. (2013). Testing regimes, accountabilities and education policy: commensurate global and national developments. *Journal of Education Policy*, 28 (5), 539-556.

Lipman, P. (2013). Economic crisis, accountability, and the state's coercive assault on public education in the USA. *Journal of Education Policy*, 28 (5) 557-573.

López Rupérez, F. (2009). La mejora del sistema educativo I. La reforma de la educación escolar. http://www.fundacionfaes.org/file_upload/publication/pdf/201305211525511a-reforma-de-la-educacion-escolar.pdf

Novoa, A. (2010). Governing without governing: the formation of a European educational space. In *The Routledge International Handbook of the Sociology of Education*, M. Apple; S.J. Ball and L. A. Gandin (eds.), 264-273. London and New York: Routledge.

Olmedo, A. and Santa Cruz, E. (2013). Neoliberalism, policy advocacy networks and think tanks in the Spanish educational arena: The case of FAES. *Education Inquiry*, 4 (3) 473-496.

Rhodes, Rod A.W. (1996). The New Governance: Governing without Government. *Political Studies*, 54, 652-667.

Robertson, S.; Bonal, X. and Dale, R. (2002). GATS and the Education Service Industry: The Politics of Scale and Global Reterritorialisation. *Comparative Education Review* 46 (4), 472-496.

Sahlberg, P. (2011a). *Finnish Lessons: What can the world learn from educational change in Finland*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Sahlberg, P. (2011b). The Fourth Way of Finland. *Journal of Educational Change*, 12 (2) 173-184.

Sellar, S. & Lingard, B. (2013). PISA and the Expanding Role of the OECD in Global Educational Governance. In *PISA, Power, and Policy: the*

emergence of global educational governance, H-D. Meyer and A. Benavot (eds.), 185-206. Oxford: Symposium Books.

Verger, A. and Altinyelken, H. K. (2012). Global education reforms and the new management of teachers: A critical introduction. In *Global managerial education reforms and teachers: emerging policies, controversies and issues in developing contexts*, A. Verger; H. K. Altinyelken and M. D. Koning (eds), 1-18. Brussels: Education International.

Rizvi, F. and Lingard, B. (2009). *Globalizing educational policy*. London: Routledge.

Meyer, H-D. & Benavot, A. (2013). PISA and the Globalization of Education Governance: some puzzles and problems. In *PISA, Power, and Policy: the emergence of global educational governance*, H-D. Meyer and A. Benavot (eds.), 9-26. Oxford: Symposium Books.

Van Leeuwen, F. (2008). Foreword. In *Hidden privatisation in education*, S. J. Ball y D. Youdell (eds), 3-5.

[http://download.ei-
ie.org/docs/IRISDocuments/Research%20Website%20Documents/2009-
00034-01-E.pdf](http://download.ei-ie.org/docs/IRISDocuments/Research%20Website%20Documents/2009-00034-01-E.pdf)

Verger, A.; Novelli, M. and Altinyelken, H. K. (2012). Global Education Policy and International Development: An Introductory Framework. In Verger, A., M. Novelli and H. K. Altinyelken (eds). *Global Education Policy and International Development: New Agendas, Issues and Policies*. London: Continuum.

Viñao, A. (2012). El desmantelamiento del derecho a la educación: discursos y estrategias neoconservadoras. *AREAS. Revista Internacional de Ciencias Sociales*, 31, 97-107.

Woodward, R. (2009). *The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)*. London and New York: Routledge.

Zajda, J. (2006). *Decentralisation and Privatisation in Education. The Role of the State*. Springer.

<http://www.fundacionfaes.org/en/presentation>

<http://archive-org.com/page/1152529/2013-01-15/http://www.fundacionfaes.org/en/groups/economia>

<http://archive-org.com/page/1152529/2013-01-15/http://www.fundacionfaes.org/en/groups/pensamiento>

<http://www.lamoncloa.gob.es/ConsejodeMinistros/Enlacetranscripciones/210912Wert.htm>

PART II

**EUROPEAN CITIZENSHIP AND
DEMOCRACY**

EUROPEAN UNION CITIZENSHIP AND DEMOCRACY

Osman TİTREK

Sakarya University, Turkey - otitrek@gmail.com

Demet ZAFER-GÜNEŞ

İstanbul Sebahattin Zaim University

Gözde SEZEN-GÜLTEKİN

Sakarya University, Turkey

Abstract

Citizenship is an "institution which has been developed and refined to nurture and protect the homo politicus, who embodies the democratic expectation that individuals should play a part in the social and political life of the society in which they reside. It has some dimensions related socio-economical issues: democratic, socio-economic, ecologic, intercultural and equity. The European Union is facing challenges and questions to its legitimacy and democratic capacities due to a dual process of integration and decentralisation at both the national and European level. At such a time it is particularly important to address the issues around the concept of EU citizenship. There is one of the best way to develop European Union: we have to develop European Citizenship attitudes via schools and democracy is the main key of to develop European Union citizenship.

Keywords: citizenship, dimensions, democracy, European Union

The concept of citizenship

The concept of citizenship has always been a matter of concern, not only for the academia, but also for the policy-makers, being a complex notion that lies at the intersection of law, social science, and political theory. Surely, the meaning of citizenship has evolved over time and has embraced different forms from place to place, but its importance has never decrease. In this sense, Everson considers that citizenship is an "institution which has been developed and refined to nurture and protect the homo politicus, who embodies the democratic expectation that individuals should play a part in the social and political life of the society in which they reside." (Everson, 2010).

Marshall (1950) argues that citizenship is essentially a matter of ensuring that everyone is treated equally in society by being offered three categories of rights: civil, political and social rights. In Marshall's opinion, social rights are extremely important, a citizenship limited only to civil and political rights would exclude many from full membership of society, because people who were struggling with poverty or disease, or who were poorly educated, would not have the time, resources or capacity to exercise their citizenship rights in practice.

Analyzing citizenship from a wider perspective, Jenson (2007) believes that it entails four dimensions: First of all, citizenship establishes the conditions for belonging to an „imagined community in both the narrow sense of nationality and the larger notion of identity. Secondly, it does not refer only to rights, but also to duties, the recognition of which may contribute to establish the boundaries of inclusion and exclusion of a political community. Thrid, citizenship creates a specific responsibility mix that allocates the various citizenship-related responsibilities to different institutional actors from the society. Last, but not least it offers legitimacy to specific types of claims towards the state.

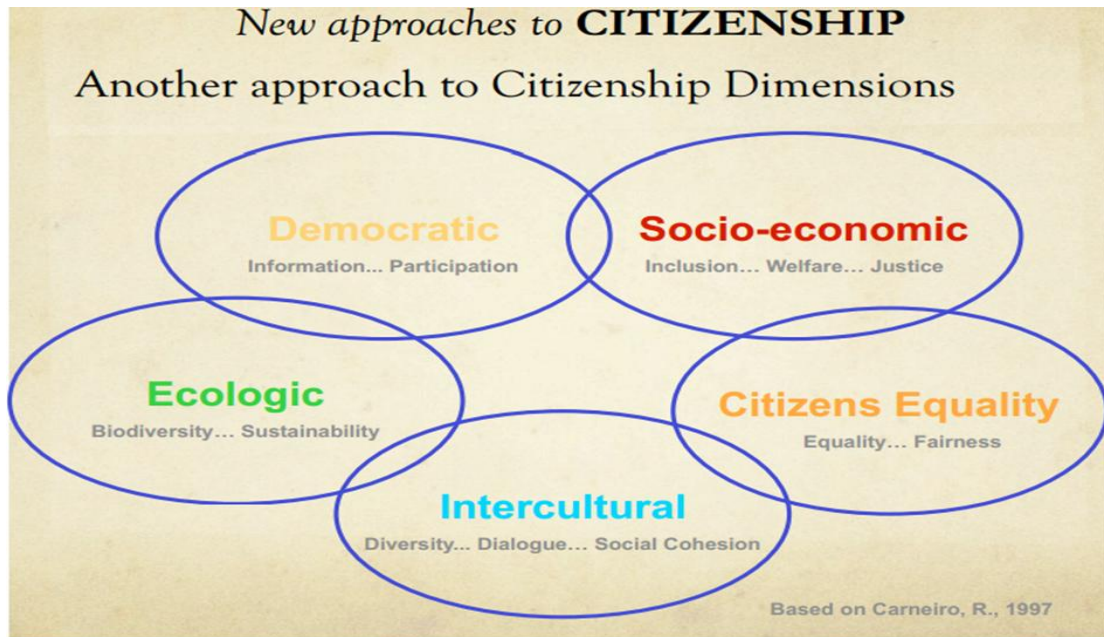


Figure 1. New Approches of Citizenship

European Union Citizenship

European Union (EU) citizenship as a distinct concept was first introduced by the Maastricht Treaty, and was extended by the Treaty of Amsterdam. Prior to the 1992 Maastricht Treaty, the European Communities treaties provided guarantees for the free movement of economically active persons, but not, generally, for others. The 1951 Treaty of Paris establishing the European Coal and Steel Community established a right to free movement for workers in these industries and the 1957 Treaty of Rome provided for the free movement of workers and services.

The establishment of European Union citizenship was realized in 1992, through the Treaty of Maastricht. According to article 8 of this Treaty (known also as the Treaty on the European Union, i.e. TEU): ‘Every person holding the nationality of a member state shall be a citizen of the Union. Citizenship of the Union shall be additional to and not replace national citizenship’ (Idor, 2013). The European Union has published papers and materials, including Education for Active Citizenship in the European Union (1998) which argues that the principles of European Citizenship are ‘... based on the shared values of interdependence,

democracy, equality of opportunity and mutual respect' (European Commission, 1998, p. 16).

If you are an EU citizen you have the right to travel, work and live anywhere in the European Union. If you have completed a university course lasting three years or more, your qualification will be recognised in all EU countries, since EU member states have confidence in the quality of one another's education and training systems. You can work in the health, education and other public services (except for the police, armed forces, etc.) of any country in the European Union. Before travelling within the EU you can obtain from your national authorities a European health insurance card, to help cover your medical costs if you fall ill while in another country (Idor, 2013).

Three elements of citizenship which appear to be constantly present, namely, appurtenance (the feeling of belonging to the polity), passive citizenship (protection by the polity) and active citizenship (participation in the polity) (Smirnov-Brkic et al. , 2010)

The idea of a 'citizens' Europe' is very new. Some symbols of a shared European identity already exist, such as the European passport, in use since 1985. EU driving licences have been issued in all EU countries since 1996. The EU has a motto, 'United in diversity', 9 May is celebrated as 'Europe Day' and 2013 designated the 'European Year of Citizens'. It marks the twentieth anniversary of the entry into force of the Maastricht Treaty, which first introduced European Union citizenship into the Treaties (Idor, 2013).

A sense of belonging together and having a common destiny cannot be manufactured. It can only arise from a shared cultural awareness, which is why Europe needs to focus not just on economics but also on education, citizenship and culture.

The EU does not say how schools and education are to be organised or what the curriculum is: these things are decided at national or local level. But the EU does run programmes to promote educational exchanges so that young people can go abroad to train or study, learn new languages and take part in joint activities with schools or colleges in other countries. These

programmes include Comenius (school education), Erasmus (higher education), Leonardo da Vinci (vocational training), Grundtvig (adult education) and Jean Monnet (university-level teaching and research in European integration).

In the field of culture, the EU's 'Culture' and 'Media' programmes foster cooperation between TV programme and film-makers, promoters, broadcasters and cultural bodies from different countries. This encourages the production of more European TV programmes and films.

However, in the globalisation era, when countries and people are more connected than ever and supra-national polities tend to develop more and more, citizenship might receive new meanings. Therefore, in order to analyze and decide whether EU citizenship fulfills the criteria required by the notion of citizenship, three perspectives will be taken into account:

1. A Legal-Participatory Approach

The legal-participatory approach sees European citizenship as a formal means which offers legal and political rights that member states alone cannot provide. In a practical sense, the institution of citizenship aims „to put political integration on a par with economic integration creating spaces for individual participation in European governance (Crowley, 2001).

2. An Identity-Based Approach

From an identity-based perspective, the European citizenship is not principally about political and legal rights, but it is the symbol of a shared history and culture. It is the victory of unity over diversity, a declaration of —Europeanism||, a concept of belonging despite all the inherent differences. In this sense, Marcelino Oreja, former European Commissioner for Culture, has declared that the aim of the European citizenship is — to show Europeans what unites them, and to show them the strength of their common cultural roots, despite the wide variety of cultures that Europe has produced (Oreja, 2003).

3. A Constructivist Approach

The constructivist approach suggests that European citizenship did not emerge as a natural consequence of some previous decisions taken at

the EU level (such as the establishment of the Single Market), but it has been artificially created through discursive practices and given visibility through different programs (for instance, Youth in Action) (Idor, 2013).

European Union Citizenship and Democracy

European Union is indeed not a nation state but it is nonetheless a political entity with its own institutions – not completely disconnected from national institutions –, defining its own rights, laws and rules. The exercise of democracy in the EU has then some very specific features that must be taken into account notably because the idea of citizenship is not well established as in the member states. This is why measuring regularly sentiment towards European construction is a first and necessary step to understand democracy issues (Blot, Rozenberg, Saraceno and Streho, 2014).

The European Union is facing challenges and questions to its legitimacy and democratic capacities due to a dual process of integration and decentralisation at both the national and European level. At such a time it is particularly important to address the issues around the concept of EU citizenship.

The European goal has been to encourage autonomous, critical, participatory and responsible citizens who are perceived as the central requirement for any society that respects the principles of democracy, human rights, peace, freedom and equality. Yet European citizenship, while clearly a form of democratic citizenship, is problematic. Issues of the relationship between European and national identity remain unresolved (Naval et al. 2002).

The framework clarifies what education for democratic citizenship should be concerned with and summarises this in seven parts:

- * What is democracy?
- * Who belongs and who rules in a democracy?
- * Why choose democracy?
- * What makes democracy work?
- * How does democracy function?

- * How do democracies develop, survive and improve?
- * How does democracy shape the world and how does the world shape democracy?

Rejections

A recent Standard Eurobarometer survey shows that between autumn 2009 and autumn 2012, the number of Europeans holding a positive image of the EU has dropped from 48% to 30%, while the number of those with a negative image has risen from 15% to 29% (European Commission, 2012). The reasons for this degradation of the EU's image can, amongst others, be found in the perception that the recipes it proposed to deal with the economic and financial crisis have not improved citizens' socio-economic conditions over the past few years (European Commission, 2013).

The concept of European identity is, at least, problematic. To some extent, a great part of our continent's inhabitants feel themselves as Europeans, but a majority feel more intensely their belonging to France, Portugal, Spain, or Catalonia, Scotland or Flanders. Identities are not easily separated and, often, different feelings of affinity -ethnic or racial group, gender, political ideas, cultural affinities...- are mingled. A genuine European Union requires a European identity, but it does not exist. There is no linguistic or cultural homogeneity. A common identity cannot be constructed on neither Christianity, nor democracy, nor economical identity, or, of course, ethnic identity⁷. A lot of scholars have been lately trying to get to the bottom of what means to be a European (Buzăianu, 2006).

Samuel Huntington, a celebrated American academic, affirms that Europe finishes where Eastern Orthodox Christendom and Islam start. So, Greece, member State of the EU, is it not a European country? The Muslims that have been so long living any neighbourhood of London, Paris or Düsseldorf, are they not European?

From another point of view, a French scholar, Henry Mondrasse, has claimed that a common cultural European identity does exist and that it could be the base for a political Union. Should this identity be based on

individualism, the idea of nation developed in the last centuries, a certain way of combining science and technology or a certain idea of democracy, according to this definition of European culture, which is the difference between an American or an Australian and a European? Could a Russian or a Bulgarian be considered as Europeans?

It is often said that the future is already contained in the past and this is also true with respect to European Union citizenship. It has been the product of institutional design and co-creation by actors at all levels of governance and is actualised by citizens' formal and informal citizenship practices. In this respect, continuing to encourage practices, dialogues and mechanisms that facilitate its co-creation, and viewing citizens, residents and their families as equal partners in its future development and the delivery of solutions to impediments to its exercise are important. For there is hardly another European institution which captures more clearly and profoundly Jean Monnet's dictum 'we are not forming coalitions of states, we are uniting men [people]' (European Commission, 2013).

REFERENCES

Blot, C.; Rozenberg, O.; Saraceno, F. and Strehö I. (2014). Reforming Europe? When economists, law scholars and political Scientists care about the future of the EU.

Buzăianu, A. (2006) European Citizenship And Identity. <http://www.sferapoliticii.ro/sfera/125/art11-buzaianu.html>.

Crowley, J.(2001). Differential Free Movement and the Sociology of the Internal Border," in Implementing Amsterdam: Immigration and Aylum Rights , EC Law, 13: 18.

Everson, M. (2010). The Legacy of the Market Citizen", in New Legal Dynamics of the European Union, p.73.

European Commission, Brussels (2012). Standard Eurobarometer 78, Autumn 2012, page 15.

European Commission, Brussels (2013). Co-Creating European Union Citizenship. http://ec.europa.eu/research/social-sciences/pdf/co-creating_eu_citizenship.pdf

Idor, R.(2013). European Citizenship. University of Southern Denmark.

Jenson, J. (2007). “The European Union’s citizenship regime. Creating Norms and Building Practices” in Comparative European Politics, No. 5 (1), pp.53-69.

Naval, C.;Print, M.and Veldhuis, R.(2002). Education for Democratic Citizenship in the New

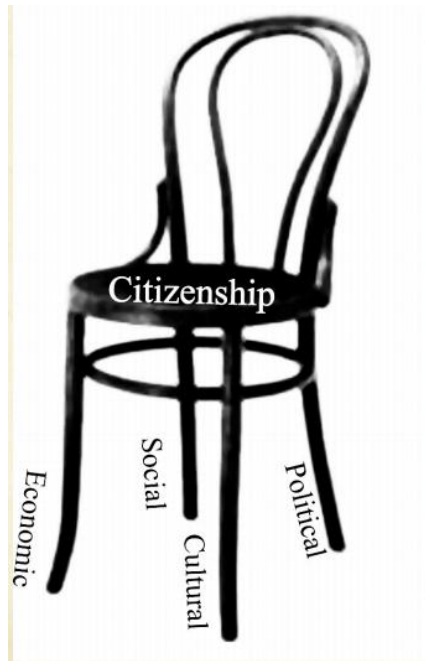
Europe: context and reform. *European Journal of Education*, 37(2):107-128.

Oreja, M. (2003). European Citizenship and the Regions”, published in Queen’s Papers on Europeanization No. 7.

Smirnov-Brkic, A.; Christopoulos, M.; Karakosta, K.; Martinez Bermejo, S.; and Reboton, J. (2010) ‘Milestones in the Development of the Concept of Citizenship’, in K. Isaaks, *Citizenship and Identities: Inclusion, Exclusion, Participation* (Pisa University Press,) 2-12.

T.H. Marshall, *Citizenship and social class*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1950.

ANNEX





**INTERRELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN FORMAL
EDUCATION AND NON FORMAL EDUCATION IN
THE TRANSMISSION OF EUROPEAN VALUES**

**(INTERRELACIONES ENTRE LA EDUCACIÓN
FORMAL Y LA EDUCACIÓN NO FORMAL EN LA
TRANSMISIÓN DE VALORES EUROPEOS)**

Dr. Alfonso CONDE LACÁRCEL

Granada University, Spain

Dr. Mohamed EL HOMRANI

Granada University, Spain - mohammed@ugr.es

Abstract

The development of European citizenship is a constant concern perceived by different educational systems of the 25 countries in the European Union. Not only as a way to unite and promote democratic values, social inclusion and participation, but as an element of economic growth and development. However, today's high unemployment rates and rising inequality, an aging population and the difficulty to face the new challenges of globalization require redoubled efforts to be able to respond in a coordinated manner with quality education. A key element intertwined with the formal educational system believes it is the non-formal education

as a complement to these policies will develop common social values, cohesion and combat exclusion agent.

Throughout this paper, we present a brief review of the relationships and current state established between the formal and non-formal education, along with its influence in the transmission of European values and citizenship development. Also, we provide data relating to some of the most recent and significant developments in the Third Sector in Social Action Research. That are working in many non-governmental and non-profit organizations (NGOs and NPOs) and related to non-formal education, the differences between countries in respect, and its development and employability.

Following the data analysed as a fundamental conclusion, we need clear coordination between formal and non-formal education to achieve all the goals from a given in educational -training and level of development.

Keywords: citizenship education, non-formal education, skill development, Third Sector.

Resumen

El desarrollo de la ciudadanía europea es una preocupación constante percibida desde los distintos sistemas educativos de los 25 países que integran la Unión Europea no solo como una manera de cohesionar y favorecer los valores democráticos, de inclusión social y de participación, sino como un elemento de crecimiento económico y de desarrollo. Sin embargo, hoy día las tasas de paro elevado y el aumento de las desigualdades, el envejecimiento de la población y la dificultad para afrontar los nuevos retos derivados de la globalización hacen necesario redoblar los esfuerzos para ser capaces de responder de manera coordinada con una educación de calidad. Un elemento decisivo interrelacionado con los sistemas educativo formales creemos que es la educación no formal, como agente complementario a estas políticas que desarrollan valores sociales comunes, de cohesión y lucha contra la exclusión.

A lo largo de este documento, presentamos una breve revisión del estado actual y las interrelaciones que se establecen entre la educación formal y no formal, y su influencia sobre la transmisión de los valores europeos y el desarrollo de la ciudadanía. Igualmente, aportamos los datos referidos a algunas de las investigaciones más recientes y significativas en el espacio del Tercer Sector de Acción Social en el que trabajan muchas de las organizaciones no gubernamentales y no lucrativas (ONGS y ONL) relacionadas con la educación no formal, las diferencias entre países al respecto, y como factor de desarrollo y empleabilidad. A raíz de los datos analizados y como conclusión fundamental, vemos necesaria una clara coordinación entre agentes formales y no formales para alcanzar entre todos los objetivos propuestos a nivel educativo –formativo y de desarrollo.

Palabras clave: educación ciudadana, educación no formal, desarrollo de competencias, Tercer Sector.

Education and European Citizenship

Since the signing of the Treaty of Rome in 1957, the European Economic Community, or better said the European Union has developed a whole series of policies (Maastricht Treaty 1992, Treaty of Nice, 2001, the Constitutional Treaty, and the Treaty 2004 Lisbon, 2007) with the aim of promote social cohesion and economic development of all the countries that are members, as well as those new states are joining.

In the case of education, training and the youth, we can find numerous general and specific directives and programs in favour of these policies on school education; higher education; mobility; e-learning and learning different languages or on-going training throughout life.

Without saying, the implementation and prioritization by the different member states combined with resource allocation has not always been the most appropriate. It was between 1985 and 1992 when education began to be recognized, with the creation of various programs to promote the European dynamics in schools, or groups for enhancing mobility in

transnational programs such as Erasmus (higher education), Petra, Lingua, Force, Tempus or Comett (Pepín, 2007).

The development of the European citizenship identity is part cooperation between schools (Comenius Programme among others), and continues throughout all the levels of education, reaching the levels of Higher Education in Europe.

Translating to Karlsen (2002) cited by Agirdag, Huyst and Van Houtte (2012, p 202.): "The EU has spent millions of euros on education, training and youth programs in an attempt to encourage young people to enter the European professional market and prepare them for their roles as European citizens. "

As for the European framework in education, it today focuses on the development of key abilities, the quality and equity of both individual learning and the teachers who try to reduce educational disadvantage social groups at risk both individually and in groups. At the same time, empowers European citizens need to function in society, at a social, educational and professional level (Web Europe, 2014) competitions.

Within this brief introductory overview, the development of a European mentality on the part of the citizens, although the various studies conducted so far have yet to be implemented and reinforced by different enterprises.

This way we can see, for example in the program "Europe for Citizens" 2014-2020 approved by the European Commission with a budget of 21 million euros and whose general objectives are:

- To contribute to a better understanding of the Union, their history and diversity.
- Promoting European citizenship and improving conditions for active participation in civic and democratic life in the Union (Web Consulta Europa S.L., 2014).

The main points of research based on the education of European identity of its citizens have been primarily referred to factors such as gender, age or socioeconomic status (Shore and Black, 1994; Majone,

1998; Medrano and Gutierrez, 2001; Rise, 2005; Bruter, 2008; Agirdag, Huyst and Van Houtte, 2012).

However, other factors such as religion, ethnicity or the educational context have hardly ever been taken into account, showing, individual variables, influential in developing this identity (Agirdag, Huyst and Van Houtte, 2011).

The context is dependent on ethnic diversity and or the individual characteristics of the members. These groups should be taken into account when designing and carrying out the various activities such as teaching and learning; in order to promote the development of the European stature in the educational curricula of different countries.

Equally in these studies, the influence of the socioeconomic status with the presence of a greater or lesser identification as European citizens among children aged 10-14 is evident; i.e., children from families with high social status identity feel more European than those from a lower socioeconomic group (Fligstein, 2009 cited by Agirdag, Huyst and Van Houtte, 2011, p. 209).

But, what is the meaning of "European identity"? We can find various theories for this purpose and each will enhance and or highlight different aspects. However, we agree with the author that follows the European identity is: "A set of values shared by all citizens of the European Union" (Patrutui, 2013, par. 3).

The European Commission's report "Orientation of Young Men and Women to Citizenship and European Identity" (2007) presented in respect a number of recommendations obtained by different research groups. Focusing on issues related to governance, citizenship and European dynamic integration; including education, training and new forms of learning.

One of the most important conclusions to note in this regard was complementary discovery by a researcher after an extensive literature review and researcher's findings not excluding the differences between given national identities and European identity (Ruiz, 2005, European Commission, 2007). (Ruiz, 2005; European Commission, 2007).

These recommendations, as well as many others, have continued to develop until today, although there is still little research related to both formal contexts as non-formal and citizenship education.

Besides all this, we want to present our vision for the acquisition of key competencies and learning throughout life, enterprises developed by different members of the Third Sector Social Action and to develop educational and training activities from Non-Formal Education, that are wholly consistent with and complement both formal educational systems in different countries as to programs and projects developed in Europe from childhood, through youth and reaching adult education.

Key Competencies & Lifelong Learning

The development of education and citizen participation according to authors such as Johnson and Morris (2010) is related to aspects such as thinking and critical pedagogy. So over the last 20 years it has undergone a series curricular reforms focused on democratic education, social justice, linking multicultural national identity and supranational elements. That way in the future European citizens (children, youth, and adults.) will be able to participate actively in their daily life.

In this sense, the development of key competencies and lifelong learning play a crucial role, as states seek to strengthen their competitiveness in the global economy with a workforce that is creative, thoughtful, innovative and independent.

The Council and the European Parliament in late 2006 made a number of recommendations regarding the development of the key competences throughout life, In order to respond to changes in society and promote the acquisition of knowledge, abilities and skills necessary to properly incorporate young people into the labour market, and to encourage professional development and adaptation of those already in it. (European Commission, 2007).

These sets of skills are equally important, as they contribute to personal and community success, along with the creation of a knowledge society (Gordon, Halász, Krawczyk, Leney, Michel, Pepper, &

Wisniewski, 2009). At the same time, constitute a set of learning tools that promote problem solving; the ability to take risks, decision-making and affective-emotional development in a constructive way.

Either way, we want to emphasize here, that whichever produces a more obvious impact on the development of citizenship and responsive to civic and social skills. According to the European Reference Framework for the learning of key competences throughout life, social and civic competences are defined as:

Social and civic competences includes the personal, interpersonal and intercultural competence and cover all forms of behavior that enables individuals to participate in an effective and constructive way in social and working life way. Particularly in the social diversity and resolution conflicts when necessary. Civic competence allows individuals to fully participate in civic life, based on knowledge of social and political concepts and structures and a commitment to active and democratic participation (EU, 2007, p.9).

It aims to develop community participation in activities through the decision-making, development of tolerance, empathy, negotiation or the expression and understanding of different points of view. A notable example in this regard related to the development of key skills and learning and teaching and responsible global citizenship is made by HMIE (2010) by the Scottish government to youth. To do this, and with the help of teachers, conducted a set of good educational practices in order to develop interdisciplinary experiences in different areas of the curriculum:

- Exchanges between schools.
- Projects networking between different educational centres.
- Creating blogs, forums, diverse educational material related to international education.
- Learning 2nd languages.

This coincides with other authors as Kaya (2014) to say that lifelong learning has become the guiding principle for a generation of new community education and training programs; in which "people are the main asset of Europe." However, citing the same author is also presented as an

opportunity and not as a right, so those who cannot access these continuing education programs will be relegated to the background.

Also from UNESCO (2014), in its report "Teaching and Learning: Achieving quality for all", we were warned of the need for quality teachers is recognized and in constant training, research, explore new ways of responding to urgent educational needs in relation to the proposed agenda for governments 2015.

Thus, we can see that the formal educational systems of different countries in the European Union individually and in a coordinated fashion, attempting to create a common educational framework that is useful to its citizens. But ... does it always work? What can they do about it and how will they influence other educators outside the regulated systems and suppliers of a degree or certification to favour the development of an exemplary citizenship and committed to the good of all?

Here is where the informal educators and the Third Sector Social Action as elements of cohesion and development come into play.

Non Formal Education and Third Sector Social Action: elements of social cohesion and economic development

Non-formal education from a community partner view and the relationship with formal educational systems could be defined by us as:

The attempt by man to respond to the sphere of education, to all social demands and needs of the education system as a formal means and fails to respond completely and integrate. Through non-formal education it can be reconstructed and complements the knowledge offered by formal means, in a meaningful and functional manner to the complexity of the situations with which we are immersed. (Conde, 2013).

This definition tries to bring together the various authors, collected by international organizations throughout history (Coombs et al, 1974; Faure et al, 1983; Trilla, 1998, Pastor 2001; Torres, 2007). Unesco, in 2006 defined it as a factor of development of people, and tool so people who find difficulties of various kinds to access education and training as well as achieving acceptable levels of labour training that allow them live with

dignity (Unesco 2006 Office of Public Information Non-Formal Education).

Terms such as non-formal education, informal, extracurricular ... they are analysed investigated thoroughly and discarded until reaching common definitions by all the scientific and educational population, the a few of them reinforcing the idea of non-formal education as an ongoing process of learning throughout a lifetime.

Since 2000 until today, after a confusion about what to call non-formal education has returned to the international stage. According to the World Bank (2001) over this period of time, have increased the number of countries preparing projects on non-formal basic education partly funding this and other agencies. Primarily for developing countries and for a very specific population (mainly children at primary school, youth groups at risk of exclusion and less educated adults).

In specific contexts, it is used as an alternative to primary schools, the development of basic life skills, specific programs for women, training for working life, local community development etc. In other countries (mostly developing) is has created specific departments and official organisations that coordinate and complement the formal education; this is the case for example, Philippines and Botswana.

In Europe and in Spain, the reality is quite different. It is mainly and widely focused on a range of labour training to leisure and free time courses, along with working with specific groups. We can cite for example, Baraibar, J. (2003) carried out a study on the construction of learning processes in non-formal education.

The Community in seeks a real purpose and usefulness for society, based on four fundamental pillars that seem to be paramount, according to Dominguez, Lamata and Baraibar (2003, pp. 53-54):

1. The relationship with community associations and the real needs of society.
2. Relationship between education and quality.
3. Relationship with public and private entities as potential allies and partners.

4. Relationship with the official education system.

Trilla et al. (2003) we offer based upon reflection and analysis, an eminently practical proposal for the different areas in which to conduct educational activities in non-formal education:

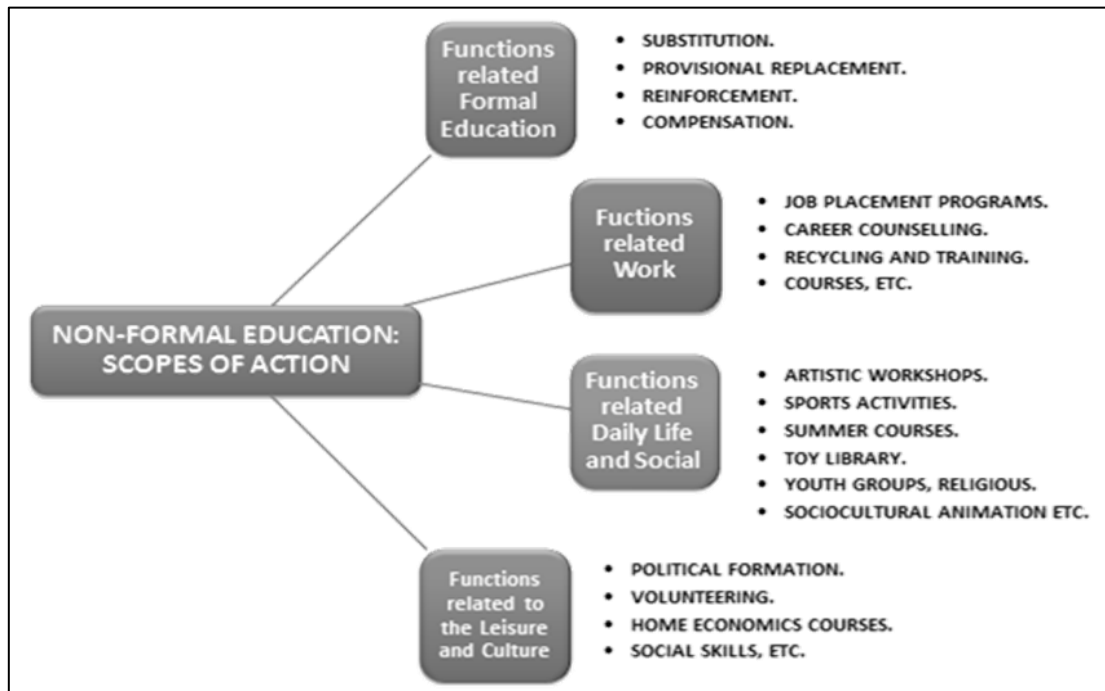


Figure 1: Functional motion of the various educational Areas of Non-Formal Education (own elaboration based upon Trilla et al, 2003.)

Hoppers, meanwhile, presents (2006, p.24) later classification focused on 7 major types of ENF:

1. Para-formal education.
2. Popular education.
3. Personal development.
4. Professional and vocational training.
5. Literacy with skill development.
6. Supplementary NFE programs.
7. Early childhood care and education.

Most definitions developed by these authors agree systematic, organized and functional characteristics of non-formal education and its application outside the formal framework of the educational systems of different countries. Equally, another feature of identity is the

contextualization and specification for specific groups and contexts of the objectives, content and methodology to be used.

The methodologies used to answer a variety insufficiently developed in formal areas such as those based on emotional intelligence, ecological intelligence, empathy, learning through play, the techniques of behaviour modification, shaping; as well as more traditional ones that we can find in companies, schools, workplaces ... such as primary and secondary education, discussion groups, work projects, etc..

For its part, funding and the costs generated by the non-formal education NGOs and Non-profit Organizations (NPOs), are mainly due to private contributions and grants from various official bodies of the Region. At the same time, costs are lowered with the involvement of the different volunteers and hiring the necessary professionals without compromising on quality theory and pedagogical effectiveness. Taking into account these defining features, and following authors; Martinez (2003) and Herrera (2006), we can establish the following characteristics of Non Formal Education:

Table 1: *Characteristics of Non-Formal Education*

CHARACTERISTICS OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATION	
It takes place outside the formal framework	Does not have fundamental objectives or ability to provide titles, but learning contexts that supplement and or complement the formal educational systems.
Allows positive climates for learning	Promotes learning from "conduct" such as social relationships, teamwork and creativity, etc. in a relaxed and confident atmosphere.
Uses a variety of methodologies	Is multidisciplinary, using methods, resources, and ways to work in all areas and climates, not only that of education but also of psychology, medicine, economics, ecology, etc...

Facilitates specific learning	Prioritise learning that can help improve the quality of life and social participation, avoid pockets of exclusion, acquire professional skills, enjoy leisure ...
It is functional	Prioritise purely practical learning in academics, giving users the resources they need on a personal or group level.
It is planned	It is an intentional activity that requires a design and organization of the different elements that it is composed of, as well as an assessment of their effectiveness and efficiency.
It is systematic	Follow a defined functional and accurate in the design and implementation processes for their actions.
It is organised	There is a proper structuring between means, resources, and functions to fulfil goals.
It is adaptable	Can change and adapt to different situations, problems, contexts and individuals depending on what is required.
It is voluntary	Individuals and groups participate freely and may abandon it when they see fit.
It is active	Encourages and requires active participation of users.

(own elaboration based upon Martínez, A. 2003; p.35-39 y Herrera, M. 2006; p.18-22)

From 1998 paraphrasing Vazquez in the play "Informal Education", has spoken of the importance of non-formal education and lifelong learning (now Education during life) as a complement to the existing educational system. Related to the social context, in which the individuals are inserted, with direct link to the self-training and requires a rigorous analysis based on the real needs of users.

The difficulty and variety of designs in terms of activities to be developed, and its difficulty to be formally evaluate in terms of efficiency and performance, has caused many of these actions to be aimed at obtaining a hardly measurable results in the long term.

However, bringing to the forefront a Colom (1998a, 1998b, 2005) responds to a set of variables of social engineering (effective, sectorial planning, referring to specific groups, and compensatory) looking to "improving the quality of life of citizens and deepening democratic values "(p. 169, para.2).

For all this, we believe that NFE has a relevant role in the European Union and needs to be taken into account when establishing channels for collaboration within the formal education system and specifically the various structures involved and defined as third Sector. This has shown to be for years as a generator of jobs and economic wealth in the different European countries.

All the aspects mentioned in non-formal education can be developed from business areas and profit (schools, institutions, etc...). Or in our case we want to highlight those organizations that are included within and referred to as Third Sector Social Action.

Following the International Classification of Non-Profit Organizations (ICNPO), by Solomon and Sokolowski (2004) is organised into 11 areas of activity that we see in the diagram below:



Figure 2: International Classification of Third Sector ICNPO
 (Prepared by Conde, 2013 starting from Solomon and Sokolowski, 2004)

In Spain, the term Third Sector used to identify currently to all those organizations that throughout history have participated in actions based in Charities. The social economy or the non-profit sector, as defined in the Anglo-Saxon, in order to ensure that the help of the State or outside of it. Some basic rights and values of citizenship are centred on democracy, participation of the people, willingness to help, care for and the promotion of groups for the disadvantaged (Conde, 2013).

This field, along with the public sector and the private sector is configured into three sectors of the economy, making us realise that it is an asset increasingly both in gross domestic productivity and economic wealth of the country, and in terms of employability (Pimentel, 2013).

Escobar (2010) refers to the organisations and their influence on societies, defining them as follows:

Organisations (...) have a very strong impact on the societies in which they are inserted (...) manage to affect the social dynamics but also are affected by it. (...) Form small social systems within larger social systems. (...) authors such as Amitia and Etzioni (1961 and 1964) see the organisations as the only medium through which ends are achieved as desired peace, prosperity and social justice (p.124).

The different organisations which belong to the Third Sector are characterised as being complementary government actions. Social peace, the idea of mutual support and assistance are present in their intentions. According to the most commonly accepted orthodoxy Anheier and Salamon (1997), these types of organisations that are part of Third Sector are characterised by:

- _Are formally organized.
- _Are private.
- _Are non-profit sharing between owners and managers.
- _Are independent.
- _Have significant degree of voluntary participation.

The idea of active citizenship began to emerge from the handful of critical social movements. While the growth of legislation related to social organisations, the development of the welfare state reform, or to decentralise social and health services. It has favoured the provision of social services increasingly proportion by the organisations in the Third Sector.

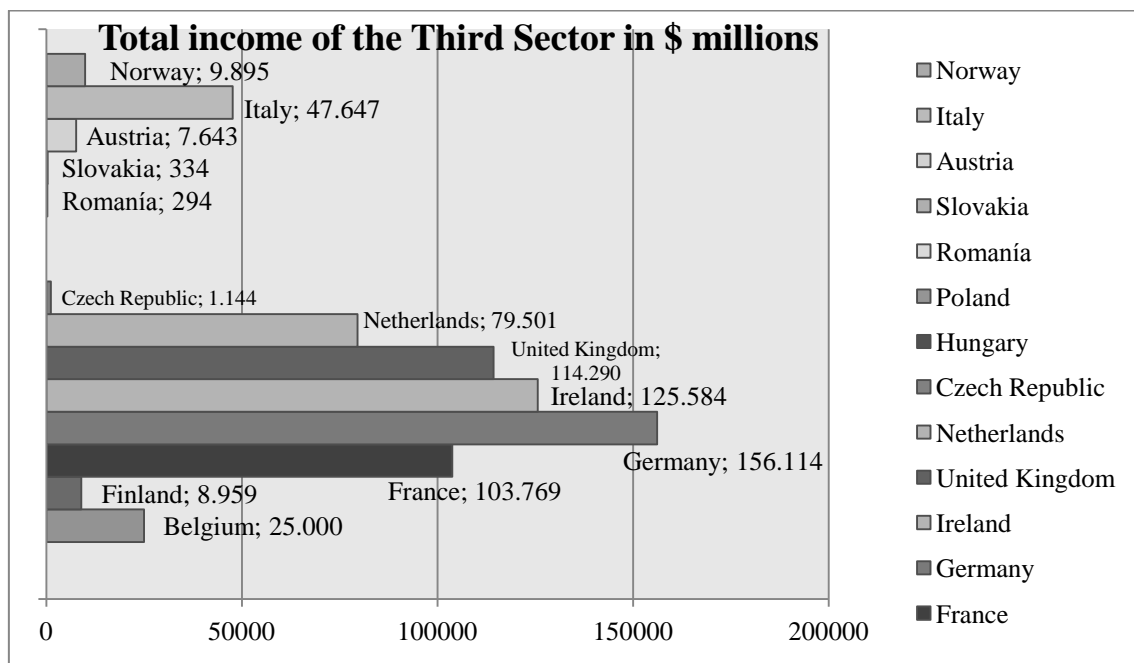
However, following the crisis suffered so far in Spain and the rest of Europe, we are facing a dismantling and privatization in many of the achievements achieved so far (German, J., 2013) due to inappropriate policies focused on deficit reduction, and profitability of public funds and private donors Through the reduction in funds for social policy and development cooperation, a the braking of dependency laws and in many cases are not applied due to lack of public resources. In turn effecting and causing privatization of health service, attention to marginalized groups etc. This has all diminished because of reductions in budgetary allocations of the various NGOs, associations, foundations, etc.

This is why the Third Sector Social Action, despite their difficulties to be finalized, defined or studied, takes on a remarkable relevance; (Olabuénaga Ruíz, J. I., 2006). Their flexibility to adapt to different situations, their creativity in providing solutions, and its proximity to the different groups, make them a consultative agent and action necessary for economic growth and wealth of countries and a prerequisite for a skilled workforce and responsible citizenship.

For guidance, we provide data in economic terms, employability and volunteering (Salamon and Anheier, 1994, 2004). As of 2004, the third sector generated 1.3 trillion worldwide; 45'5 million employing full time staff including volunteers and religious organisations.

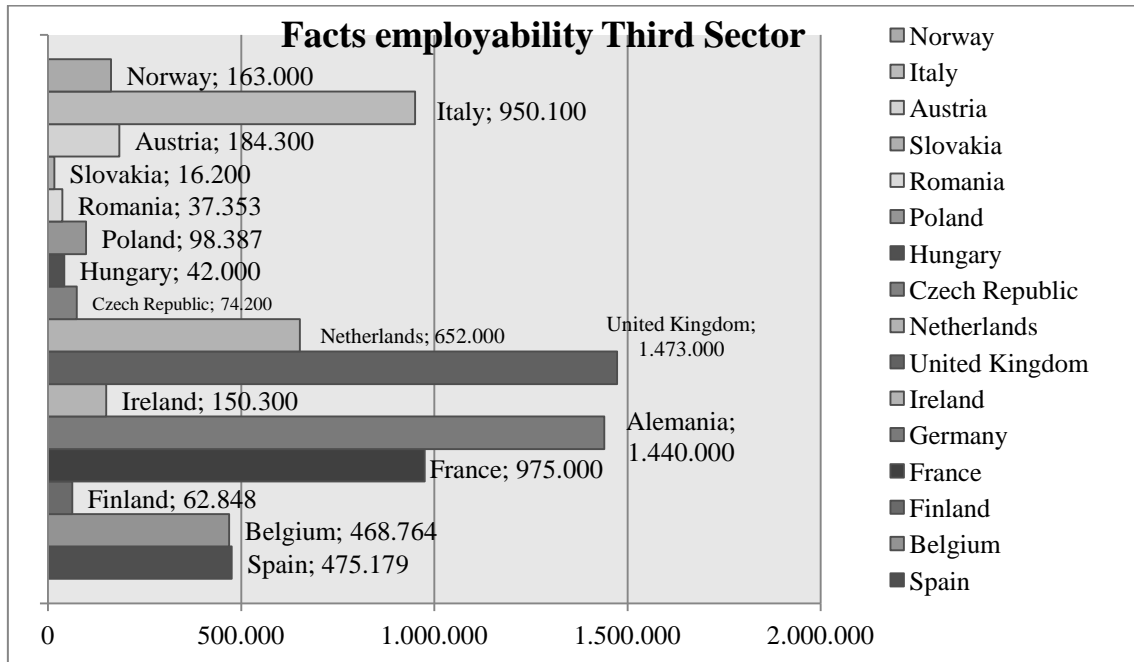
The 2020, for example (European Commission, n.d.) seeks to develop a growth of smart, sustainable and inclusive economy through a series of goals that the representatives of the Third Sector have a lot of responsibility.

Graphic 1: Total income of the Third Sector in \$ millions



(Prepared by Conde, 2012 starting from Salamon, L. y Anheier, H. 1999; 2004)

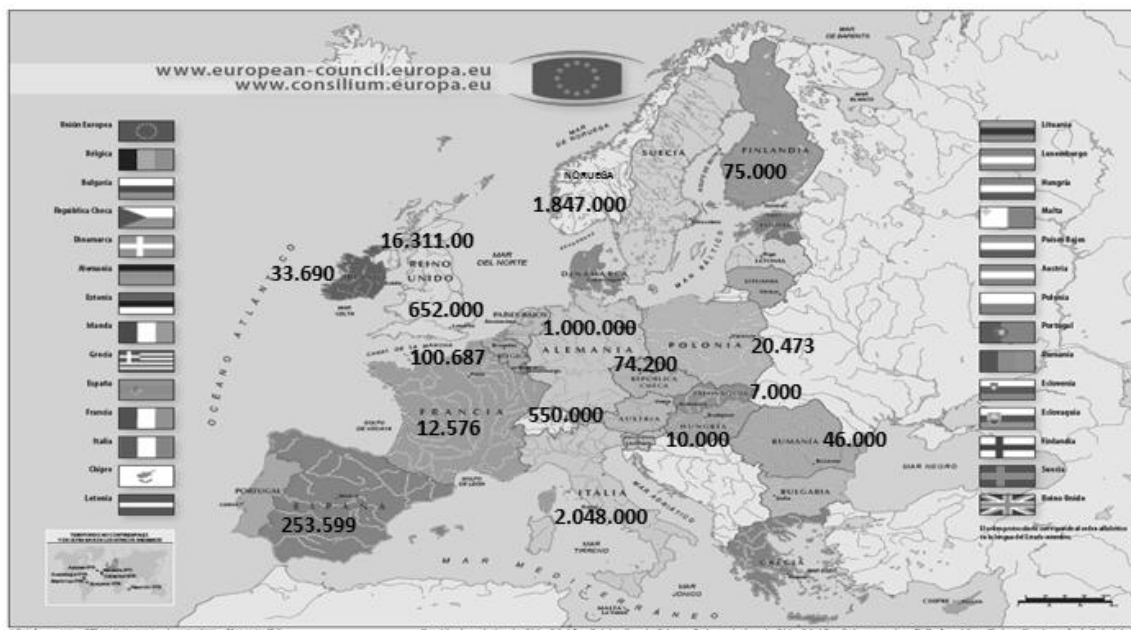
Graphic 2: Facts employability Third Sector.



(Prepared by Conde, 2012 starting from Salamon, L. y Anheier, H. 1999; 2004)

As we can see in the graphs and the map below, the importance of the third sector to the economy and employability of European is significant; even among the volunteer workforce generated to respond to the different socio-educational and community projects by the NGOs and NPOs.

Graphic 3: Full-Time Volunteers of the Third Sector.



(Prepared by Conde, 2012 starting from Salamon, L. y Anheier, H. 1999; 2004)

CONCLUSIÓNS: THE EDUCATIONAL-TRAINING PROJECTS FOR CITIZENS FROM NO FORMAL EDUCATION

After this brief survey conducted, in which we wanted to show the possible relationships between the development of community educational policies from formal systems focus on European citizenship education; non-formal education; Third Sector and Social Action, we conclude this paper contributes to our conclusions.

According to various documents and information obtained contrasted to the Third Sector Social Action, and based on employability and economic importance of this sector, we believe that non-formal education developed in NGOs and NPOs is a necessary complement to the educational policies based on the development of an engaged educated and skilled society.

From non-formal education, and through various initiatives, projects, activities or workshops may be supplemented and developed values such as social justice, critical thinking, multiculturalism, interfaith wealth or

effective equality between men and women, through an eclectic and practical methodology.

According to the "Citizenship Education in Europe" (2012) published by Eurydice Report "Education for Democratic Citizenship has incorporated all European educational system at all stages. Meanwhile, the human rights content are present in the curricula of more than 20 European countries. "

The level of Spain, unfortunately we actually have a setback scoring within the educational system and relegating it to a point of dubious accomplishment.

That is why we find in the complaint made by more than 60 NGOs, Spanish and European platforms working on the development of global citizenship-oriented values. These can be found in numerous online media sites such as the Network of Educators, Educators for global citizenship etc. (<http://www.ciudadaniaglobal.org/>) or Intermón Oxfam, amongst others (<http://www.oxfamintermon.org/es/sala-de-prensa/nota-de-prensa/espana-debe-formar-en-ciudadania-democratica-derechos-humanos-desde-es>).

However, we continue to count on the unselfish, collaborative and networking of a good number of organizations focusing on this common good. As a guide, we list a few of these organisations that can be found operating in the case of Spanish, at a European level:

- Fundación Cives.
- Amnistía Internacional.
- Intermon Oxfam.
- Confederación Española de Asociaciones de Padres y Madres de Alumnos (CEAPA).
- Fundación Cultura de Paz.
- Asociación Pro Derechos Humanos de España (APDHE).
- Proyecto Atlántida.
- Educación y Cultura Democráticas.
- Movimiento Contra la Intolerancia (MCI).
- Liga Española de la Educación y la Cultura Popular.

- Movimiento por la Paz (MPDL).
- Federación de Mujeres Progresistas.
- Coordinadora de ONG para el Desarrollo.
- Periódico Escuela.
- Seminario Galego de Educación para la Paz.
- Hegoa -Instituto de Estudios sobre Desarrollo y Cooperación Internacional.
- Confederación Estatal de Movimientos de Renovación Pedagógica.
- Educación Sin Fronteras.
- Plataforma Ciudadana contra la Islamofobia.
- Instituto de la Víctima de Odio.
- Discriminación e Intolerancia.
- Institut de Drets Humans de Catalunya.
- Sección de Educación del Ateneo de Madrid.
- Fundación IPADE
- Federación de Asociaciones de Defensa y Promoción de los Derechos
- Humanos –España.
- Asociación para las Naciones Unidas en España (ANUE).
- Asociación para la Defensa de la Libertad Religiosa (ADLR).
- Comisión Española de Ayuda al Refugiado (CEAR).
- Instituto de Estudios Políticos para América Latina y África (IEPALA).
- Justicia y Paz.
- Liga Española Pro Derechos Humanos.
- Paz y Cooperación.
- Mundubat.
- UNESCO Etxea.
- Plataforma de Mujeres Artistas contra la Violencia de Género.
- Coordinadora Estatal de Asociaciones Solidarias con el Sáhara).

- Red Europea Contra los Crímenes de Odio.
- Citizens for Europe (incluye a 197 organizaciones europeas).
- Foro Cívico Europeo (incluye a más de 100 organizaciones de 27 países).

REFERENCES

Agirdag, O., Van Houtte, M. & Van Avermaet, M. (2011) ‘Ethnic School Context and the National and Sub-national Identifications of Pupils’. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, v.32, n.2, 357–78.

Agirdag, O., Huyst, P., & Van Houtte, M. (2012). Determinants of the Formation of a European Identity among Children: Individual-and School-Level Influences. *JCMS: Journal of Common Market Studies*, v.50, n.2, 198-213.

Alemán, J.J. (2013). De la sociedad del riesgo al desmantelamiento del estado de bienestar. *Dilemata*, (11), 139-147.

Baraibar, J.M. (2003). Análisis de necesidades formativas. En Lamata, R. y Domínguez, R. (Coord.). *La construcción de procesos formativos en educación no formal* (pp. 111-128). Madrid: Narcea.

Bruter, M. (2008) ‘Legitimacy, Euroscepticism and Identity in the European Union: Problems of Measurement, Modelling and Paradoxical Patterns of Influence’. *Journal of Contemporary European Research*, v.4, n.4, 273–85.

Conde Lacárcel, A. (s.f.). *Eficacia de los estándares de calidad educativa en la Educac. No formal: estudio sobre el grado de implantación del modelo EFQM y la norma ONG con calidad en ONGs y ONLs que desarrollan actividades educativas en la provincia de granada* (Tesis Doctoral inédita). Facultad de Ciencias de la Educación. Granada.

Colom, A. (1998a). Planificación y evaluación de la educación no formal. En Sarramona, J.; Vázquez, G. y Colom, A (Ed.) *Educación No Formal*. (pp. 168-200). Barcelona: Ariel.

Colom, A. (1998b). Estrategias metodológicas en la educación no formal. En Trilla, J. (Coord.). *La educación fuera de la escuela. Ámbitos no formales y educación social*. (pp. 52-73). Barcelona: Ariel.

Colom, A. (2005). Continuidad y complementariedad entre la educación formal y no formal. *Revista de Educación* (338), 9-22.

Comisión Europea (s.f.). *Documento de Estrategia Europa 2020*. Recuperated from <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2010:2020:FIN:ES:PDF>

Coombs, P.H. & Ahmed, M. (1974). *Attacking Rural Poverty: How Non-Formal Education can help*. Baltimore: J. Hopkins University Press. (Castellans version. Madrid: Edit. Tecnos, 1975).

De Coster, I, Borodankova, O, De Almeida Coutinho, A.S., & Paolini, G. (2012). *Citizenship Education in Europe*. Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency, European Commission.

Domínguez, R., Lamata, R., y Baraibar, J.M. (2003). *La construcción de procesos formativos en educación no formal*. Madrid: Narcea.

Escobar, R.A. (2010). Las ONG como organizaciones sociales y agentes de transformación de la realidad: Desarrollo histórico, evolución y clasificación. *Diálogos de Saberes: Investigaciones y Ciencias Sociales* (32), 121-131.

European Commission. (2007). *The Key Competences for Lifelong Learning – A European Framework*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities. Recuperated June, 30th, 2014 from <http://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/britishcouncil.uk2/files/youth-in-action-keycomp-en.pdf>

European Commission (2007). *Orientations of Young Men and Women to Citizenship and European Identity*. Luxemburg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

Faure, E., Herrera, F., Kaddoura, A.R., Lopes, H., Petrovski, A.V., Rahnema, M. y Champion, F. (1983). *Aprender a ser. La educación del*

futuro. Madrid: Alianza. Recuperado de <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001329/132984s.pdf>

Gordon, J., Halász, G., Krawczyk, M., Leney, T., Michel, A., Pepper, D., & Wiśniewski, J. (2009). Key competences in Europe: opening doors for lifelong learners across the school curriculum and teacher education. *CASE Network Reports*, (87).

Herrera, M. (2006). La educación no formal en España. *Revista de estudios de juventud*. (74), 11- 26.

Hoppers, W. (2006). *Non-formal education and basic education reform: a conceptual review*. Paris: UNESCO: International Institute for Educational Planning.

HMIE (2010). *Learning Together: International education: responsible, global citizens*. Recuperated June, 30th, 2014 from http://www.educationscotland.gov.uk/inspectionandreview/Images/Learningtogetherinternated_tcm4-712919.pdf

Johnson, L., & Morris, P. (2010). Towards a framework for critical citizenship education. *The Curriculum Journal*, v.21, n.1, 77-96.

Kaya, H.E. (2014). Lifelong learning: As for living or a living. *European Journal of Research on Education*, 62-66. Recuperated June, 30th, 2014 from <http://iassr.org/rs/020610.pdf>

Martinez, A. (2003). El programa Mus-E, o la metodología de la educación no formal en espacios formales de educación. *Indivisa: Boletín de Estudios e Investigación*. (4), 33 - 41.

Majone, G. (1998) 'Europe's Democratic Deficit: The Question of Standards'. *European Law Journal*, v.4, n.1, 5–28.

Medrano, J.D. and Gutiérrez, P. (2001) 'Nested Identities: National and European Identity in Spain'. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, v.24, n.5, 753–78.

Patrutiu, L. (2013). Europe and Europeans-questions of identity. *One*. Recuperated October, 14th, 2013 from <http://one-europe.info/europe-and-europeans-questions-of-identity>

Pastor, M.I. (2001). Orígenes y evolución del concepto de educación no formal. *Revista Española de Pedagogía*, (59), 525 – 545.

Pépin, L. (2007), The History of EU Cooperation in the Field of Education and Training: how lifelong learning became a strategic objective. *European Journal of Education*, 42, 121–132.

Pimentel, A. (2013). El sector no lucrativo, una fuerza en auge. *Revista Istmo. Liderazgo con valores*. Recuperated from: http://istmo.mx/1999/07/el_sector_no_lucrativo_una_fuerza_en_auge

Risse, T. (2005) ‘Neofunctionalism, European Identity and the Puzzles of European Integration’. *Journal of European Public Policy*, v.12, n.2, 291–309.

Ruiz Jiménez, A.M. (2005). Identidad europea y lealtad a la nación. Un compromiso posible. *Revista Española de Ciencia Política* n.12, 99-127

Ruiz, J.I. (2006): *El sector no lucrativo en España: una visión reciente*. Bilbao: Fundación BBVA.

Salamon, L. & Anheier, H. (1994): *The Emerging Sector. An Overview*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Comparative Nonprofit Sector Project Studies. The Johns Hopkins University Institute for Policy Studies.

Salamon, L.M. & Anheier, H.K. (eds.) (1997): *Defining the Nonprofit Sector: A Cross-national Analysis*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.

Salamon, L.M., & Sokolowski, S.W. (2004). *Global civil society: Dimensions of the nonprofit sector*. Bloomfield, CT, USA: Kumarian Press.

Torres, C. (2007). Conceptualización y Caracterización de la Educación No Formal. En Torres, C. y Pareja, J. (coord.), *La Educación No Formal y Diferenciada*. (pp. 14-38). Madrid: CCS.

Trilla, J. (1998). *La educación fuera de la escuela. Ámbitos no formales y educación social*. Barcelona: Ariel.

Trilla, J., Gros B.; López, F. y Martín, M.^a J. (2003). *La educación fuera de la escuela. Ámbitos no formales y educación social*. Barcelona: Ariel

UNESCO (2006). Educación No Formal. En “Educación no formal”, preparado para la 55^a semana (25/09-01/10/2006) del 60^o aniversario de la

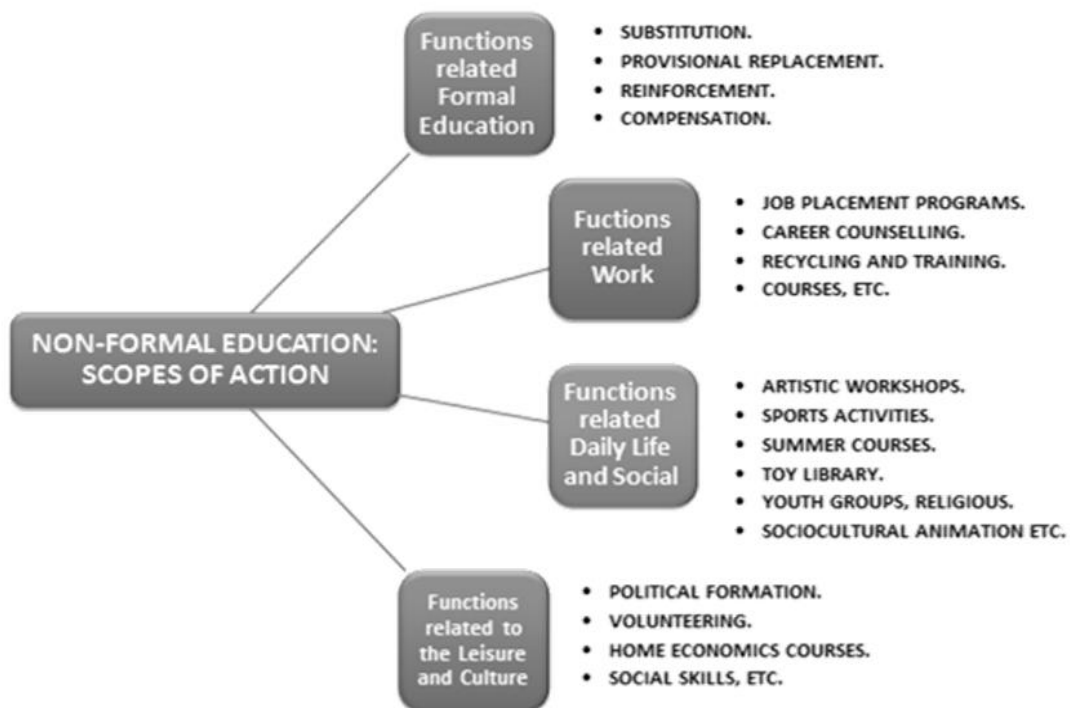
UNESCO. Oficina de Información Pública. Memobpi. Recuperated from http://www.unesco.org/bpi/pdf/memobpi55_NFE_es.pdf

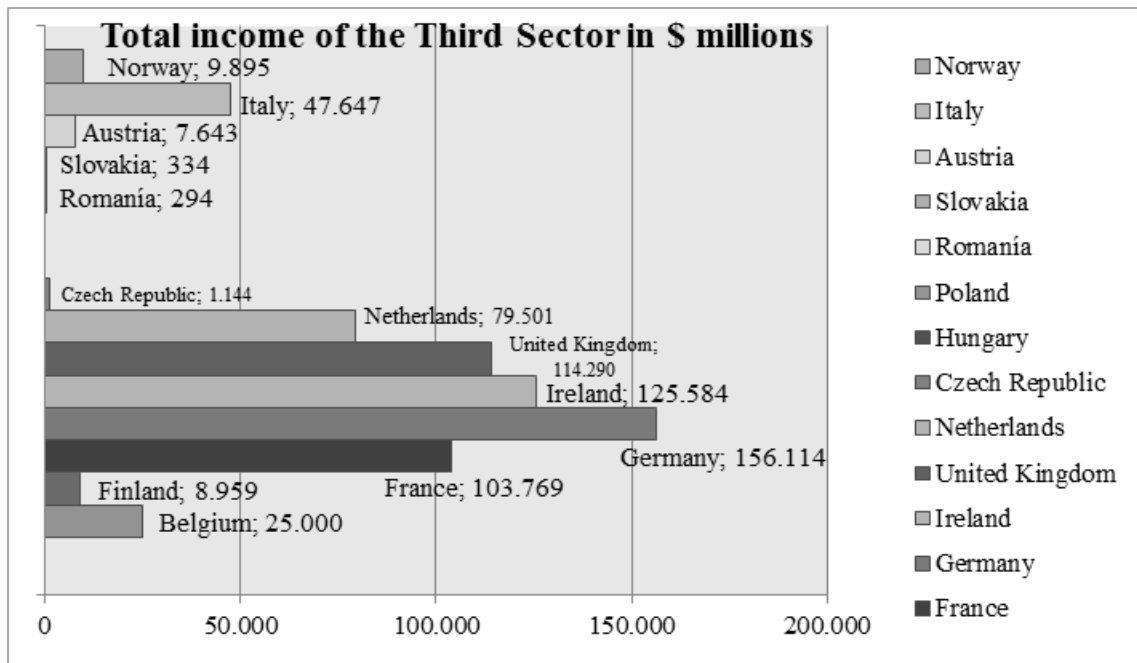
UNESCO (2014). Teaching and Learning: Achieving quality for all. Recuperated June, 30th, 2014 from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002256/225660e.pdf>

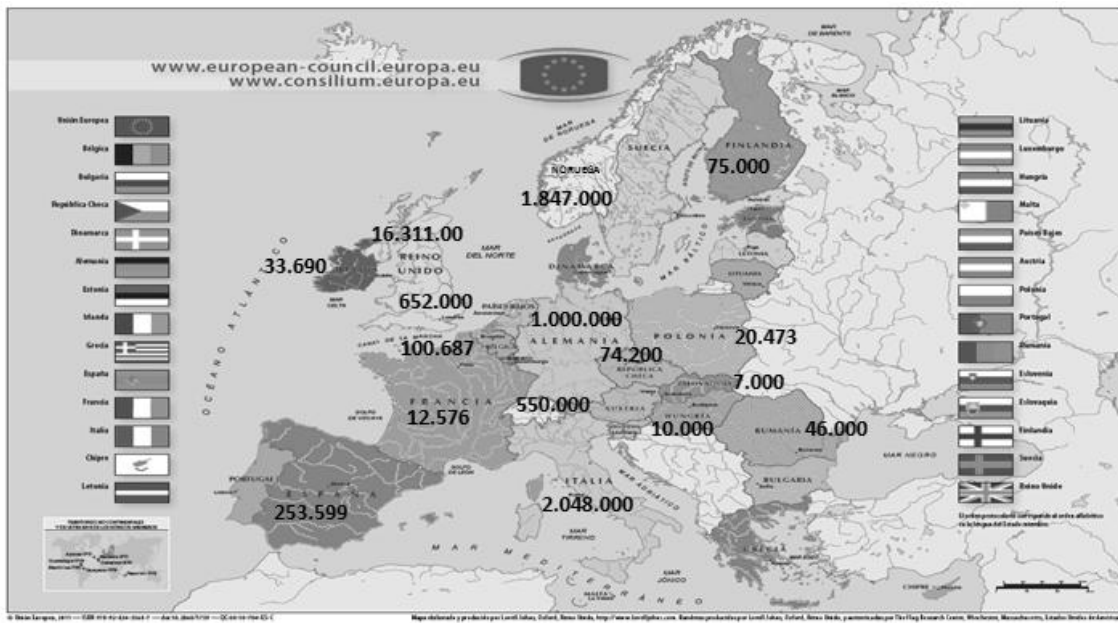
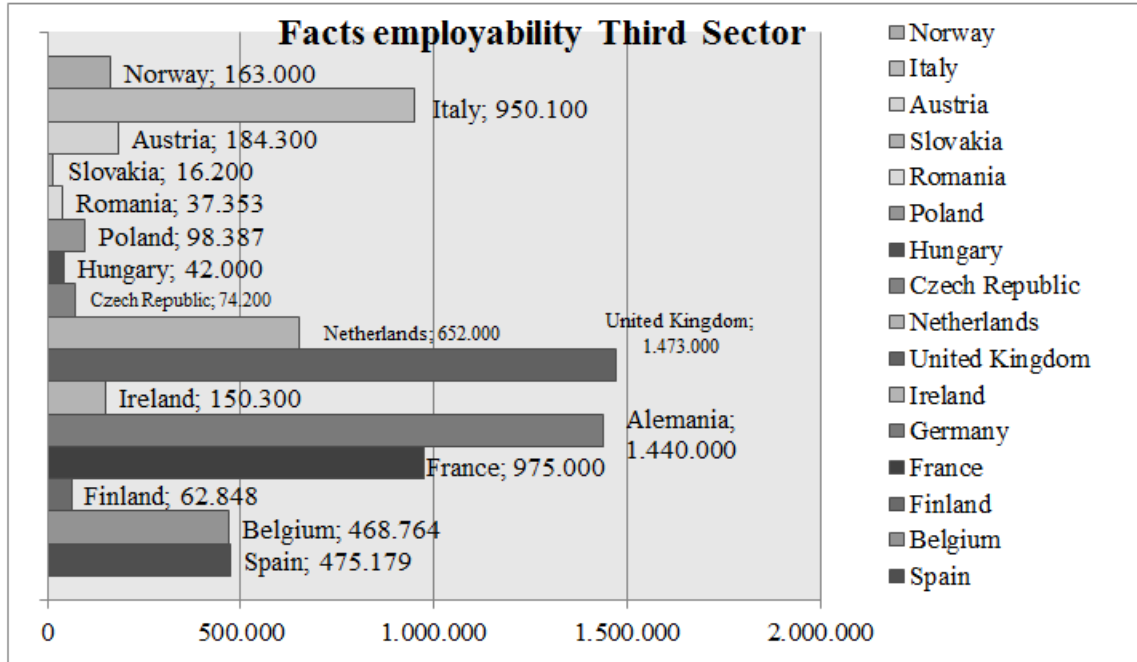
Vázquez, G. (1998). La educación no formal y otros conceptos próximos. En Sarramona, J.; Vázquez, G. y Colom, J.A. (Ed.). *Educación no formal*. (pp. 11-24). Barcelona: Ariel Educación.

World Bank (2001): Report of Distance Learning Seminar: Use of Outsourcing in the Implementation of Literacy and Non-Formal Basic Education Programs, May-July, World Bank paper.

ANNEX







CHARACTERISTICS OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATION	
It takes place outside the formal framework	Does not have fundamental objectives or ability to provide titles, but learning contexts that supplement and or complement the formal educational systems.
Allows positive climates for learning	Promotes learning from "conduct" such as social relationships, teamwork and creativity, etc. in a relaxed and confident atmosphere.
Uses a variety of methodologies	Is multidisciplinary, using methods, resources, and ways to work in all areas and climates, not only that of education but also of psychology, medicine, economics, ecology, etc...
Facilitates specific learning	Prioritise learning that can help improve the quality of life and social participation, avoid pockets of exclusion, acquire professional skills, enjoy leisure ...
It is functional	Prioritise purely practical learning in academics, giving users the resources they need on a personal or group level.
It is planned	It is an intentional activity that requires a design and organization of the different elements that it is composed of, as well as an assessment of their effectiveness and efficiency.
It is systematic	Follow a defined functional and accurate in the design and implementation processes for their actions.
It is organised	There is a proper structuring between means, resources, and functions to fulfil goals.
It is adaptable	Can change and adapt to different situations, problems, contexts and individuals depending on what is required.
It is voluntary	Individuals and groups participate freely and may abandon it when they see fit.
It is active	Encourages and requires active participation of users.

**DIMENSIONS OF THE EUROPEAN
CITIZENSHIP AND CIVIC COMPETENCE
ACQUISITION**

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Marinescu Mariana

Oradea University, Romania - marinescum54@yahoo.com

Prof. Dr. Vasile Marcu

Oradea University, Romania

Lecturer Anca Albu

Motto

A day will come when you France, you Russia, you Italy, you England, you Germany, you all, nations of the continent, without losing your distinct qualities and your glorious individuality, will be merged closely within a superior unit and you will form the European brotherhood. (Victor Hugo, 1849).

Abstract

În zilele noastre, societatea contemporană se confruntă cu numeroase probleme, care determină oamenii să găsească soluții ingenioase pentru a le rezolva. De exemplu, putem menționa diferite provocări din domeniul politic, juridic, socio-cultural, economic, de mediu, etc. Problema care se ridică este ce fel de cetățenie ar putea fi promovată de învățământul superior, ce fel de procese educative sau altele ar putea contribui la asta? Cu alte cuvinte, care este potențialul învățământul superior european în dezvoltarea cetățeniei europene?

În astfel de circumstanțe, educația pentru cetățenie europeană ar trebui să pregătească tinerii în domenii mult mai complexe, decât de exemplu investițiile financiare. În această lucrare, ne-am propus să abordăm subiectul educației pentru cetățenia europeană dintr-o perspectivă interdisciplinară și modul în care elevii/studenții pot fi implicați activ în viața UE. Deci, în prima parte a lucrării, vom analiza problemele majore ale educației și problematica lumii contemporane.

*De asemenea, prezentăm Proiectul: **Colaborare pentru egalitatea de șanse în educația multiethnică** și rezultatele acestuia privind implicația instituțiilor de învățământ superior din România și Ungaria în responsabilitatea pentru dezvoltarea culturală, socială și civică, la nivel național și European, dar și responsabilitatea pentru formarea viitoarei generații de angajați.*

*Probleme ale învățământului superior european vizează: curriculum, pedagogiile, activitățile extra-curriculare care pot contribui la dezvoltarea cetățeniei europene. Partea a treia a lucrării: **Cetățenia europeană și competența civică – abordare sintetică** dorește să demonstreze că ideea cetățeniei active este strâns legată de educația civică și politică, de dobândirea competenței civice.*

În concluzie, considerăm că dobândirea competenței civice ar putea reprezenta cea mai bună modalitate prin care elevii și studenții pot deveni cetățeni eficienți într-o Europă Unită, contribuind la dezvoltarea societății ce să-i pregătească pentru lumea de mâine.

Nowadays the contemporary society is faced with numerous problems which determine people to find ingenious solutions to solve them. For example, we can mention different challenges in the political, legal, social, cultural, economic fields. The question that arises is what kind of citizenship could be promoted by the higher education, what kind of educational or other processes could contribute to that? In other words, what is the potential of the European higher education in developing the European citizenship?

In such circumstances the European citizenship education should prepare young people for more complex areas than for instance, financial investments.

In this paper, we have decided to tackle the subject of the European citizenship education from an interdisciplinary perspective and to present how pupils/students can be actively involved in the life of the European Union. Therefore, in the first part of this paper we analyse major issues concerning education and the contemporary world issues.

*We also present the project: **Collaboration for Equality of Chances in the Multiethnic Cross-border Education** and its results concerning the implication of the higher education institutions in Romania and Hungary in the cultural, social, civic development at the national and European level as well as assuming responsibility for the training of future generations of employees.*

European higher education issues refer to curriculum, pedagogies, extracurricular activities which may contribute to the European citizenship development.

*The third part of the paper **European citizenship and the civic competence – synthetic approach** wants to show that the idea of active citizenship is closely related to the civic and political education, to the acquisition of the civic competence.*

In conclusion, we believe that the civic competence acquisition might represent the best way through which pupils and students can become effective citizens in a United Europe, contributing to the development of the society which prepares them for the world of tomorrow.

Structured on two dimensions, a theoretical and a practical one this paper has a triple objective:

- to highlight the place and the role of education in the context of the contemporary world issues;
- to highlight the dimensions of the European citizenship education;
- to present the contribution of our work to the European citizenship (the project: *Collaboration for Equality of Chances in the Multiethnic Cross-border Education*).

Education and Contemporary World Issues

Today the problem of education is addressed in connection with the contemporary world issues, a world which is characterized by multiple transformations, changes in all areas driven by advances in science and technology, the proliferation of information, the development of people's spiritual and material needs. However, one should not forget that mankind may be characterized by specific requirements and aspirations. At the end of the last century UNESCO proposed in a document entitled *World Issues in School* the introduction in schools of topics such as:

- human (children's) rights and fundamental freedoms;
- hunger, poverty and economic progress;
- protection of childhood and adolescence;
- the proliferation of conflicts between Nations;
- increased health problems;
- nutrition, malnutrition and under nutrition;
- the disappearance of plant and animal species, etc.

These realities prompted Aurelio Peccei – former President of the *Club of Rome* to introduce the new concept of the *Contemporary World Issues*. Representatives of the Club of Rome warn mankind about the dangers which lurk. Preparation for the future is based on a deep understanding of these Contemporary World Issues, of the causes that generated them, to anticipate their developments and to adapt to them creatively.

Contemporary World Issues have several features:

- *universal character*, all regions and countries are placed at the core of these issues; solutions are cooperation and solidarity;
- *global character*, these issues are present in all the sectors of the social life, constituting a source of open questions, but also difficulties, both in the sphere of the material and spiritual life;
- *rapid evolution and unpredictability* in the sense that the modern man frequently copes with unusual situations and most of the times is not prepared to address them;
- *complexity, multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary character*, often in solving problems connections with other issues must be taken into account;
- *priority character*, prompt response, ingenuity and very often financial answers are required from the national and global communities.

New educations must not be regarded only as a source of renewal and reconstruction of some contents which derive from the traditional dimensions of education. It is the merit of the Romanian School when it comes to the preoccupations for the *new educations*, which coincided with the preoccupations in the western world. More than 25 years ago Professor George Văideanu and collaborators used the term to describe the *new educations*. Previous achievements must be mentioned as well: the University of Bucharest is among the top ten universities in the world which created its own Computing Centre five decades ago thanks to the Academician Gr. C. Moisil.

In their order of appearance the *new educations* include:

- Environmental education;
- Demographic education;
- Nutritional education;
- Education for new technology and progress;
- Media education;
- Education for peace and cooperation;
- Education for democracy and human rights;

- Modern health education;
- Economic and modern household education;
- Education for leisure time;
- Education for a new international order;
- Education with international vocation;
- Education for a good quality life;
- Intercultural education etc.

This list will remain open, being possible to be completed at any time.

Practical ways of achieving the *new educations* (possibilities of action)

A few practical ways of achieving the new educations

Practical ways of achieving the new educations (possibilities of action) are:

- introduction of new disciplines, centered on a particular type of education; the difficulty lies in overloading the school curriculum;
- creation of specific educational modules, respectively of special chapters within the traditional disciplines (e.g. Modules with an interdisciplinary character);
- infusing classical subjects with educational messages including informational content specific to “new educations”. (Cozma, Momanu, 2009; Marinescu, 2013)

Project: *Collaboration for Equality of Chances in the Multiethnic Cross-border Education*

This project *Collaboration for Equality of Chances in the Multiethnic Cross-border Education* was completed by The Teacher Training Department of the University of Oradea in collaboration with the University of Debrecen (project coordinator: Professor Vasile Marcu).

❖ ***Project description***

In initial and lifelong learning the University of Oradea applies the Romanian legislation and curriculum and the University of Debrecen the

Hungarian ones. Having studied them, it has been concluded that there are a lot of common views, but neither of them includes the specific resulting from the challenges posed by the presence of multiethnic groups in the cross-border area. Findings reveal that folkloric values and customs of each ethnic group (Romanian, Hungarian, Swabian, Slovak, Roma) are not exploited. Promoting in Romania and Hungary the new European dimension of education, we believe it is necessary to implement the concept of the Romanian scholar Mircea Malița “ten thousand cultures, a single civilization” (Malița, 2002). Thus, the impact of the globalization phenomenon must start with real rapprochement between multiethnic communities on both sides of the border.

The two universities signed a partnership agreement which made possible the realization of the project *Collaboration for Equality of Chances in the Multiethnic Cross-border Education* (HURO/0801/124 – CESEMT) within the cross-border Cooperation Programme between Hungary and Romania 2007-2013. Representatives of the University of Oradea are The Teacher Training Department and The Department of Education of the Faculty of Social Sciences and for the University of Debrecen, the Hajduboszormeny branch.

Project team members (academics in Romania and Hungary) work involving students who are preparing for the teaching profession at the pre-primary and mandatory level to implement the folkloric values of the multiethnic cross-border communities in the non-formal education.

Point participation in folk customs and traditions of the Romanians, Hungarians, Swabians, Slovaks, Romani will create the possibility of a better inter-ethnic understanding and knowledge with particular impact on the *equalization of opportunities in education and career*.

A number of 20 academics and 40 students – future-to-be teachers (20 Romanians and 20 Hungarians) are involved in the project. These are the direct beneficiaries of the project. The indirect beneficiaries will be local inhabitants, teachers and students from 10 villages, 5 from Romania (Hirip, Bervenii, Cenaloș, Foieni, Palota) and 5 from Hungary (Nagykereki, Körösszakál, Körösszegapáti, Bojt, Körösnagyharsány). The Romanian

partners analysed the whole situation of the multiethnic cross-border communities and chose 10 villages in which there are different ethnic groups with significant clout.

We have chosen two representative villages to point out the characteristics of the population, the inhabitants' nationalities.

❖ In Romania

Palota

Sântandrei (Bihar County) is located in the western part of the country, in the Crişurilor Plain, at a distance of 5 km from the county seat, the city of Oradea. Sântandrei administratively includes two villages: Sântandrei, the administrative seat of the authority and Palota. Sântandrei has a population of 4.015 inhabitants, 3.450 in Sântandrei village and 565 in Palota.

565 people live in Palota, out of which:

- Romanians - 23%
- Hungarians - 27,2%
- Germans - 48,8%
- Slovaks - 0,53%
- Italians - 0,35%

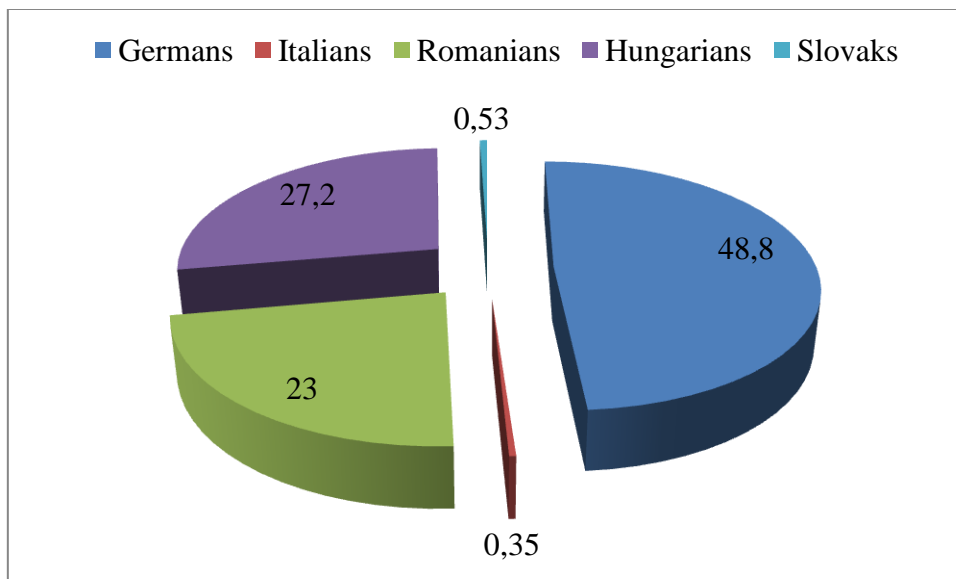


Figure 1. Graphical representation of nationalities in the Romanian village

❖ In Hungary

Nagykereki

A village located in Hajdu-Bihar county.

Population: 1275 inhabitants, out of which:

- Hungarians – 66%
- Romanians – 30%
- Roma – 4%

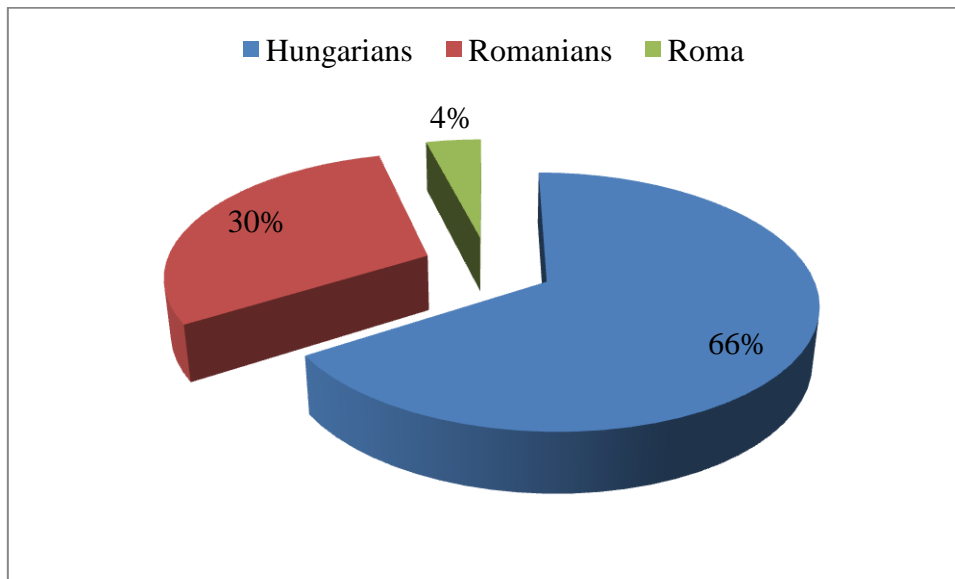


Figure 2. Graphical representation of nationalities in the Hungarian village

From all the activities which were carried out within the project we present the last activity:

Activity 5 – Communication activities with subtasks

- 5.1. informing the public and the target group about the assistance offered through European structural funds of cross-border cooperation;
- 5.2. organizing seminars for the project dissemination;
- 5.3. press conference for the media information;
- 5.4. informing the beneficiaries and the public through leaflets, posters, radio and TV broadcasts;
- 5.5. making a web page;
- 5.6. organizing a scientific reunion with international participation on the project topic.

European citizenship and the civic competence – synthetic approach

At a conceptual level, the term citizenship is specific to several disciplines, including: political theory, philosophy, sociology, history, law and even economy.

Every person holding the nationality of a Member State shall be a citizen of the Union. Citizenship of the Union shall complement and not replace national citizenship. (Treaty of Amsterdam,1997)

The notion of *citizenship* can be used in two ways:

1. In the political sense, the *citizenship* is regarded as belonging to a collectivity (nation, people) organised in a state.
2. In the legal sense, in the science of constitutional law, the concept of *citizenship* is structured in two ways:
 - a. *citizenship* used in the designation of a legal institution;
 - b. *citizenship* used in the characterization of the legal condition.

In the first instance, the concept of citizenship is understood as a group of legal norms with a common regulatory object. In the second instance, the concept of citizenship is focused around the idea of a subject of law, concerned with a person's citizenship, the way of acquiring and losing it.

In the legal literature, citizenship is looked at from several points of view:

1. citizenship regarded as a connection between the individual and the state;
2. citizenship as a legal and political bond;
3. citizenship seen as political membership;
4. citizenship regarded as a person's quality.

EU citizenship confers a series of citizens' rights in the Member States and strengthens the protection of their interests. These rights are:

- move and reside freely within the EU;
- be protected by the diplomatic and consular authorities of any other EU country;

- vote for and stand as a candidate in European Parliament and municipal elections;
- contact and receive a response from any EU institution in one of EU's official languages;
- petition the European Parliament and complain to the European Ombudsman;
- access European Parliament, European Commission and Council documents under certain conditions;
- equal access to the EU Civil Service.

The citizens are the persons who belong due to their line of descent or territorial connection to a particular national state. They differentiate from foreigners as long as they are subject to the legislation of their state, enjoying the rights that the state has established to confer them and responding to the obligations the state imposes on them. We can refer to citizenship in terms of four dimensions:

- citizenship establishes conditions of belonging to a particular political community;
- citizenship confers rights and imposes a number of duties, whose recognition contributes to setting boundaries of inclusion or exclusion from a particular political community;
- citizenship aims to establish a set of responsibilities which citizens are required to meet in relation with certain institutional actors;
- citizenship specifies certain democratic rules which a democratic political entity must submit in order to maintain the proper functioning of the mechanisms which provide access to institutions, civic involvement, participation in public debates and legitimacy of claims.

What is the civic competence?

The civic competence endows the individuals so that they can actively participate in society. It also involves having knowledge about concepts such as: democracy, justice, equality, citizenship, civil rights as they are presented in the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union and in the international documents and the way they are applied by

various institutions at local, regional, national, European, international level.

It includes knowledge about contemporary events, European integration and European Union structures, it raises awareness about the aims, values, policies of social and economic development as well as about the cultural diversity in Europe.

It also implies getting involved in solving problems which affect local communities and willingness to participate in the decision-making process at all levels. This involves responsibility, respect for shared values which are necessary in order to ensure the social cohesion, support for diversity and for people's private life.

In Romania the *Civic Education* is taught in the 7th grade.

We present the Table of Contents of the Student's Book.

Civic Culture-7th grade Student's Book

Table of Contents

Part I - The Civic Culture in the Contemporary World

1. Civic Culture-Education for Democracy
2. The Need for Civic Culture

Part II - Life in society

The Human Person

1. The Dignity and Uniqueness of the Person
2. Similarities and Differences between People
3. Human Rights

The Man-A Social Being

1. Social Groups
2. The Family as a Social Group

Human Communities

1. Local and National Communities
2. The International Community

Part III - Modern States and Constitutions

Modern States and Constitutions

1. Theories about the Appearance and the role of the State in the Society Life

2. Forms of Government and Political Regimes
3. Modern States and Constitutionalism

Constitutions of the Modern Age

The Romanian Constitution-1991

1. Brief history of Constitutionalism in Romania
2. Elaboration of the Romanian Constitution
3. Constitutional Values and Principles
4. The Structure of the Romanian Constitution

Democratic Institutions and Practices

1. The Democratic State and the Principle of Separation of Powers

2. State Authorities

A. Legislative Authority

Laws and their relationship to values and norms
Civil Disobedience

B. The Executive. Local and Central Administration

C. Judicial Authority

D. The President of Romania

The Media and Public Opinion

1. The Mass Media and Its Functions
2. Freedom of the Press
3. Freedom of Speech

Citizenship and Democratic Practices

1. Civil Society and Democracy
2. The Political and Social Forces. Right of Association
3. Elections and Voting
4. Participation in public decision making

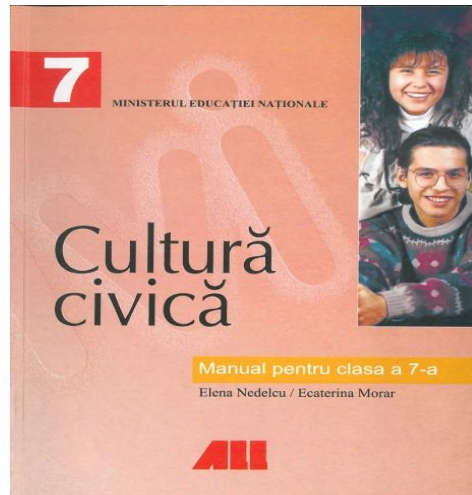


Figure 3. The graphical representation of the Student's Book cover (Civic Education, 7th grade)

Education for citizenship is considered at European level as a priority of the educational reforms. This is seen as an instrument of social cohesion, based on citizens' rights and responsibilities. It also represents a major dimension of the educational policies in all European countries. Thus, it may be said that *education for citizenship* is an educational goal, directing the education towards a set of shared values, such as: *diversity, pluralism, human rights, social justice, welfare, solidarity*.

Professor Cezar Bârzea (2012) says that "in all periods characterized by crises and dilemmas, the civic ideal was invoked as a hope, as a solution, as a new project of civilization".

Citizenship education is regarded as the most effective means for the establishment of a new social contract, based on the citizens' rights and duties and which would restore social cohesion and solidarity based on moral order.

To the question "What can unite us?", history has given different answers in periods which have marked its existence. In the Middle Ages, it was religion which united people, in the twentieth century culture and in the twenty-first century the values of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Consequently, the European Union experience is able to provide three or more lessons. We suggest the following:

- preoccupation for the citizenship goal;
- citizenship institutionalization;
- the need to refer to the citizenship as a dynamic process.

In conclusion, through our activities as European citizens and not only, we encourage citizens' involvement in activities of this kind (i.e. projects) and citizens' active involvement in reflections and discussions on the European Union construction.

REFERENCES

Andreșan, B., & Grigoriu, T.Ș., (2007). *European Union Treaties* (pp. 40-41), Bucharest: Hamangiu

Bârzea, C.; Cecchini, M.; Harrison, C.; Krek, J.; Sprajic-Vrkas, V., (2005). *Textbook for ensuring the quality of the education for democratic citizenship*, Centre for educational political studies. Available at <http://www.coe.int/>, accessed on 16.06.2014

Bârzea, C., (2012). *Education for citizenship in a democratic society: a perspective on lifelong learning*. Strasbourg: European Council

Cozma, T., & Momanu, M., (2009). *New educations and contemporary world issues* in C. Cucuș (coordinator), *Psychopedagogy for Teachers' Exams* (pp.132-134), Iași: Polirom

Fuerea, A., (2006). *Business community law* (2nd edition, pp.44-45), Bucharest: Universul Juridic

Malița, M., (2002). *Ten thousand cultures, a single civilization*, Bucharest: Nemira

Marcu, V., (2009). *Pedagogy for teacher training*, Oradea: University of Oradea Publishing House

Marcu, V., (2010). *Intercultural approach in the multiethnic education*, Oradea: University of Oradea Publishing House

Marinescu, M., (2013). *The new educations in the society of knowledge*, Bucharest: ProUniversitaria

Marinescu, M., (2014). *New educations* (pp 54-67) in *Pedagogy and elements of psychology*, F. Ortan (coordinator), Cluj Napoca: Risoprint

Marinescu, M.; Marcu, V.; Albu, A.; Botea, M., (2014). *European Education Finalities*, Oradea: University of Oradea Publishing House

Muraru, I., & Tănăsescu, E.S., (2008). *Constitutional Law and Political Institutions* (13th edition, vol. I, pp.114-133), Bucharest: C.H.Beck

Nedelcu, E., & Morar, E., (2010). *Civic Education. 7th grade Student's Book*, Bucharest: All

Voicu, M.,(2007). *Introduction in European Law* (pp.110-130), Bucharest: Universul Juridic

http://www.ier.ro/Tratate/11957_ROMA.pdf, accessed on 21.06.2014.

http://www.civica_online.ro accessed on 21.06.2014.

<http://www.educatie-oradea.ro/DOCS/Carti/Educatiaomuluideazi.pdf>

EDUCATION PROMOTING ACTIVE CITIZENSHIP WITHIN THE EU

Romalda KASILIAUSKIENE
Marijampole College, Lithuania

Odetta GRUSELIONIENE
Marijampole College, Lithuania -
odeta.gruselioniene@mkolegija.lt

Abstract

It is essential for schools to play a role in sustaining and promoting democratic system by educating students in the values, skills, and knowledge necessary for active citizenship. Civic education is preparing students for effective participation in civic life. Young people in Lithuania are sufficiently motivated to become engaged in civic and political activity. Students find inspiration in civic values, they gain a sense that they are able to engage effectively in civic and political domains. It should be noted that Lithuanian schools devote sufficient time and effort to civic education in spite of the fact that they often lack access to high-quality materials aimed at promoting civic education, and they receive little recognition for promoting it effectively, as it is not difficult to find young people who have not enough interest in civic affairs to inspire any aspirations to present or future civic leadership.

Keywords: active citizenship, EU, education

Santrauka

Mokykloms būtina vaidinti svarbų vaidmenį tam, kad palaikytų ir remtų demokratinę sistemą ugdydamos studentų vertybes, įgūdžius ir žinias, reikalingas aktyviam pilietiškumui. Pilietinis ugdymas rengia studentus efektyviam dalyvavimui pilietiniame gyvenime. Jauni žmonės Lietuvoje yra pakankamai motyvuoti, kad užsiimtų pilietine ir politine veikla. Studentai randa įkvėpimo pilietinėse vertybėse, jie įgyja jausmą, kad galėtų veiksmingai dalyvauti pilietinėje ir politinėje srityse. Pažymėtina, kad Lietuvos mokyklos skiria pakankamai laiko ir pastangų pilietiniam ugdymui, nepaisant to, kad jos dažnai neturi galimybės naudoti aukštos kokybės medžiagą, kuria siekiama skatinti pilietinį ugdymą ir jos gauna nepakankamą pripažinimą dėl pilietiškumo ugdymo veiksmingumo, kadangi nėra sunku surasti jaunų žmonių, kurie nepakankamai domisi pilietiniais reikalais, kurie inspiruotų troškimą esamam ar būsimam pilietiniam lyderiavimui.

Civic development has three dimensions that are important to cultivate in order to educate young people for citizenship. The first dimension—knowledge—comprises the facts and ideas of democracy, citizenship, government, and global concerns that students need to know to be informed participants in civic life. The second dimension—skills—includes the ability to navigate the rules and processes of citizenship and governance in our society. The third dimension—values—includes the democratic ideals and commitment to those ideals that motivate civic commitment.

People can be divided into 3 groups:

1. Those that make things happen;
2. Those that watch things happen;
3. And those that wonder what happened.

Which group do you belong to?

Students in multicultural groups find out (5-7 min.)

Video: www.youtube.com/watch?v=PT_HB12TVtl or

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ewpAjEqbT4k> or

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JVPrS68HYZs> or

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8XfPdtXSLBk>

In order to cultivate civic virtues, civic education must address a number of issues that are currently overlooked or avoided in most schools. Schools should take a broad view of citizenship education and prepare their students to acquire constructive civic skills and values as well as necessary civic knowledge.

In addition, the meaning of citizenship contains several distinct elements: it can be understood as a legal status, as a requirement to take responsible action such as following the law, as a set of democratic rights of access, and as a responsibility to participate actively in civic affairs. In our currently dominant understanding of citizenship, we sometimes emphasize the rights of citizens and neglect the responsibilities that such rights imply. An initial mission of educators should be to convey to students both the rights and responsibilities of citizens in a democracy, thereby cultivating a commitment to contribute to the common good through active civic participation.

Schools should promote, in the classroom and throughout the school, pro-social virtues such as *tolerance, open-mindedness, truthfulness, responsibility, diligence, self-control, empathy, and cooperation*, all of which are needed for constructive resolutions of political debates through civil communication and deliberative discourse (Banks, 2001). These virtues should be integrated with the teaching of civic skills by introducing controversial political issues for discussion in the classroom. Schools should also promote the values needed to sustain the common good, such as civic duty and willingness to sacrifice. So these are the three approaches to cultivate civic virtues: teaching the controversies, encouraging attachment to one's society and to democracy, and promoting an ethic of sacrifice.

Teaching the Controversies. Civic life in a democracy is rife with political controversy. The trend in the society is for individuals to avoid controversial encounters by affiliating and interacting primarily with those who share their political perspectives (Hess, 2009). This is an unhealthy direction for our democracy, causing a decline in tolerance and civility, decreasing the capacity of citizens to hold reasoned debate on contentious political issues, and clearing the path for extreme political ideas to go unchecked. If we want democracy in the EU to flourish, our young people need to be introduced to the realities of political controversy. They need exposure to the diversity of perspectives that make up our political landscape, and they need to be taught how to engage respectfully and effectively with opinions that differ from their own. Classrooms offer an important forum for exposing young people to the controversies that they are unlikely to encounter at home and in their increasingly homogeneous neighbourhoods.

In the classroom, young people can learn about the issues as well as be guided by a skilled teacher in discussing them. Constructive participation requires the ability to work with people one disagrees with in a respectful way and in a spirit of progress toward mutually beneficial outcomes. This involves skills of civil discussion and compromise, and also the ability to advocate and deliberate effectively and tenaciously about important issues. Deliberation requires that individuals assert positions they feel strongly about through reason and persuasion. By learning how to deliberate about controversial political issues, students also learn how to hear the opinions of others with an open mind, weigh diverse opinions and ideas, wrestle with a clash of principles that may never be resolved, and ultimately find a way forward. Schools should prepare students for constructive civic life by embracing political controversies and disagreements in the classroom and using them as a teaching tool.

As a starting point for embracing political controversy in the classroom, schools can reflect on their own unexamined assumptions: Is there an ideological slant in how we convey values to students? Does our practice as a learning community align with the values we propose to

teach? Do all students feel safe in expressing their political opinions? Are we, as a school community, honest about what opinions we do and don't allow to be expressed? The people who make up a school community bring their own biases, which can fall anywhere on the political spectrum, and these biases influence the civic learning that takes place, whether consciously or not. A school that is reflective about its own political and partisan tendencies can then be open to genuine political disagreement and debate in the classroom. Such openness to disagreement enables students to share their own contested perspectives and learn how to engage in reasoned and respectful debate even when they feel passionate about an issue. This is vital to a vision of civic education that aims to cultivate civic virtues such as tolerance, open-mindedness, and compromise.

A Felt Attachment to Nation and Democracy. Historically, schools promote national identity and patriotic sentiments as a matter of course. First, patriotism is often understood in very different ways. Some lean towards a patriotism that advocates “my country, right or wrong,” while others favour a more discerning patriotism; this reflects a longstanding distinction between loving one's country unconditionally versus loving democracy by, at times, publicly criticizing the country's shortfalls (Damon, W. 2009) . Some educators worry about indoctrinating students with chauvinistic or jingoistic forms of patriotism.

Patriotism has three parts that educators should address: 1) felt attachment to society and to the ideals that the EU has espoused; 2) willingness to criticize and change aspects of the country that do not live up to those values; and 3) commitment to make personal sacrifices, when necessary, for those ideals and for the common good.

Sacrifice for the Common Good. Democracy requires that citizens be willing to make personal sacrifices for the common good. Yet, in this era of self-absorption and single-minded striving for personal success, the value of sacrifice is rarely addressed with young people. Few young people today have been asked to sacrifice for their nation, or for any cause greater

than themselves. There is expectation of government services without consideration of the cost of those services and the need to contribute to the society that offers them. Schools should introduce students to the idea that all citizens must be prepared to make sacrifices for the common good.

The pedagogy employed for civic learning should embrace a concept-based approach that meaningfully incorporates opportunities for students to develop their knowledge through the study of primary documents, case studies of civic leaders, systems and structures, and the problems that result from diversity and racial and income inequality, within a curriculum based on knowledge, values, and democratic skills. Teachers should be encouraged to creatively incorporate interactive, participatory, controversial, challenging, relevant, inclusive, and inspiring assignments and activities, so that students are not simply learning history by memorizing dates and historical facts, but rather developing civic understanding.

Given the role that testing plays in setting (as well as reflecting) the nation's educational agenda, it will be difficult to gain the momentum needed to revitalize civic learning without establishing some accountability for these outcomes. The only way to do that is to broaden the learning outcomes that are regularly assessed to include the basics of civic learning. As important as this is, however, the power of assessment is a two-edged sword. On the one hand, if civic learning is regularly assessed, with real consequences for failing to meet standards, this will surely make it a higher priority for educators. On the other hand, the wrong kind of assessment can distort teaching and learning in this area, potentially reducing it to the outcomes that are easiest to measure—that is, factual knowledge (Hess, 2013)

Civic leaders and educators are generating many creative ideas for recognizing and supporting civic learning programs, which are already being implemented to good effect in some schools. One approach that is gaining traction is to recognize schools that have high-quality civic education programs and reward their achievements.

The substance of civic education: Key concepts and values.

Curricula for civic education should be centered on fundamental concepts that shape democracy and civic life (Liu, 2011). Some of these key concepts are: *core values of the country's civic tradition, such as liberty, equality, opportunity, justice, independence, interdependence, awareness of global civic issues.*

The ideas that constitute the foundation of democracy should also form the foundation of the civics curriculum. Liberty, equality, diverse views and values, responsibility, the common good, individual rights, and justice are not just concepts that young people need to understand, but also values that they need to identify with and be inspired by if they are to fully participate in and reap the benefits of belonging to a democratic society. Democracy can be sustained only if individual citizens understand and embrace these values, and uphold them through civic activity.

Understanding and embracing these fundamental values is not simply a matter of learning what they mean. They are complex, not only in isolation, but in relation to each other, and individuals need to develop a relationship with them that respects this complexity. In many ways, the core democratic values are inextricably linked. This means that liberty and equality—generally considered the most powerful of the democratic values—cannot be fully understood apart from each other, but only in the relations and interactions that exist between them. A nation cannot have authentic liberty, for example, if conditions of severe inequality render freedom an illusion for some members of the democratic community. Nor can we understand the areas in which equality is essential unless we link those elements of meaningful access and opportunity to the freedoms we ultimately must exercise in order to flourish throughout our lifetimes. The values of liberty and equality are connected to a core notion of human dignity. Schools need to be open to expression of diverse opinions and encourage engagement around disagreement rather than merely assuming that certain opinions are off-limits within the context of classroom discourse. The goal should be to provide an environment in which all students can feel ideologically safe, that is, an environment in which all

students can discuss and argue on behalf of the values they feel passionately about. In a respectful, open-minded environment, vigorous discussions about the fundamental concepts of democracy can exemplify a fully participatory approach in which students can develop civic character and practice civic virtues.

Teaching for participatory citizenship requires a recognition that the citizens engage in civic action within their own nation's democratic structures and traditions. This requires an intimate knowledge of the particular constitutional system (Moran, 2012). The first and foremost responsibility of civic education is to provide students with an understanding of their nation's own constitutional principles, laws, doctrines, history, and traditions.

But the citizens also must operate in a global context that will affect virtually every part of their lives as humans and civic actors. There is now a growing awareness that the environmental health of any one region is inseparable from that of the world as a whole. Technological changes have made international communication and influence much faster and more potent than ever before. Civic issues ranging from economic policy to environmental regulation, immigration, workforce participation, and civil liberties must be taught against the backdrop of these global realities.

Increasing the priority given to educating for global understanding and concern should go hand in hand with strengthening education for citizenship and civic engagement. Instead of standing in opposition to each other, the two goals represent complementary aspects of a single, larger picture. A complete civic education is one that produces graduates who understand the political systems of the EU, who feel a commitment to its national ideals, but who also respect and feel connected to people living in other societies around the world.

Civic virtues and character as the heart of constructive participation. Revitalizing civic education must include the goal of preparing young people to participate constructively in the political process, both as a way of pursuing their own personal interests and as a

way of seeking to improve their communities, their nation, and the world. When realized, this goal enables communities to sustain democracy and provides each citizen with the chance to flourish by making meaningful contributions to society. Fulfilling this goal requires more than conveying the facts of national history and government functions. It requires that schools cultivate civic character by encouraging active commitment to democratic values. Committed citizenship comes from a deeply felt attachment to democratic values, from which the individual can find inspiration to take action and the motivation to make personal sacrifices when necessary.

Democracy in practice is emotionally exhilarating and often conflict-ridden. Civic education should reflect this. Civic character and profound attachment to democratic values are not developed by teaching young people neutral historical facts and apolitical civic skills. Instead, the hallmarks of democracy—*liberty, tolerance of diverse perspectives, inclusiveness, collaborative and cooperative problem solving, and willingness to make personal sacrifice for the good of the whole*—can become integral to young people’s identities only when they engage in the authentic practices of civic life. Authentic engagement means experiencing the challenges of democracy and learning to address them constructively. To that end, schools should strive to place the most essential and challenging concepts of democracy at the heart of the civics curriculum.

As current and future citizens, students need to learn the values that sustain democracy, not without questioning those values, but rather by questioning them, arguing about them, and experiencing them. Civic virtues and the character they constitute are developed by practicing civic skills, gaining authentic experience by applying them. Civic character emerges when a person is challenged and pressed to take a stance in relation to democratic values, demonstrating his or her commitment through personal sacrifice. In so doing, a young person develops an attachment to these values and finds in them motivation for meaningful civic participation. This brings us to the question of how to educate for civic virtues and character.

Outcomes and examples of civic education in Lithuania

The Institute for the Study of Civil Society in Lithuania has begun a long-term survey project, which annually determines and announces the civil power index in our society. In 2007, the first survey was carried out. The findings help to answer important questions whether we are socially active, what could encourage our civic engagement, what suppresses our citizenship today. In 2008 the second survey was carried out on civil power index. Unlike the previous, this survey included the teachers' civil power evaluation as a separate group of respondents.

In 2012 the civil power of Lithuanian students was surveyed. The data not only allows a more detailed evaluation and comparison of citizenship of all society and of Lithuanian students, but also reveals students' approach to civic education at school (<http://www.civitas.lt/lt/?pid=74&id=78>).

Civil power index is composed of four dimensions: the current civic activity, the potential of civic engagement, perception of civic influence, and risk of civil activities.

Presentation of students' opinions in 2012 survey:

1. Is civic development necessary at school?

Yes - 60,6%;

Probably yes – 27,9%;

Probably no – 2,1%;

No – 1,5%;

Unaware – 7,9%.

2. How much attention is given to civic development at school?

Much – 26%;

Enough – 54%;

Little – 15%;

No attention at all – 4%;

Unaware – 1%.

3. Is/was Civic development as a subject useful personally?

Very useful – 16%;

Useful – 67%;

Useless – 11%;

Useless at all – 3%;

Unaware – 2%.

4. Do you think that Civic development should be excluded from the curriculum?

Totally agree – 4%;

Agree – 9%;

Disagree – 40%;

Totally disagree – 32%;

Unaware – 16%.

Students' civic engagement compared to all population in 2012:

1. Participation in environmental cleaning: students' participation – 74,5%, all population participation – 53,7%;

2. Participation in the activities of local community: students' participation – 56,7%, all population participation – 36,5%;

3. Participation in the activities of social organizations/movements: students' participation – 27,9%, all population participation – 12,1%;

4. Donation to the charity: students – 48,2%, all population – 10%;

5. Participation in social or civic campaign for free: students' participation – 21,3%, all population participation – 6,6%.

Here are some examples of the outcomes of enhancing civic pedagogy at schools (here we can see mature citizens acting nationally and globally):

Mission 'Siberia'

Mission Siberia. It is the annual project in Lithuania which began in 2006 and lasts till these days. Participants of all the Lithuania meet together and the main goal of the team is to tidy up all found Lithuanian graves and cemeteries and to connect and spend time with countrymen who settled in Siberia. The new group of the expedition goes to Siberia in the

summer (July – August casually). We must to admit that the participants are youth mostly.

History. It all began during the World War II in 1939 September 1 (1945 September 2). On the 14th of June 1941 the massive process of exile by the Soviet Union started in Lithuania. In just first three days – 14th, 15th and 16th of June more than 17,000 of citizens of Lithuania had been exiled. In total more than 100,000 of Lithuanians have died or been killed in Lithuania and abroad during the exile period.

Goals of project „Mission Siberia“:

1. Foster national history awareness and patriotism among youth;
2. Form a positive image of Lithuania's patriotic and publicly aware youth in the public;
3. Remember and honour the lost souls and injured during the Exile of Lithuanians in the middle of the 20th century;
4. Commemorate the memory of the confined countrymen in Siberia, according to the capabilities of the expedition help to clean and tidy up the graves and tombs of the exiled;
5. Meet with local Lithuanians still living in Siberia.

Stages of the project: Everyone who wants to participate in the project has to fill in a form that can be found on "Mission Siberia" website. From all the contenders 70 people are being selected to the second stage of the selection where a mock hike in Lithuania of at least 50km takes place. After the mock expedition the final participants are select. After the mock expedition the final participants are chosen.

Importance: After the expedition the group starts working on the most important stage of the project – presenting the results of the mission to the public. That kind of presentations is being organised all year long until the next expedition.

Development of citizenship: 'Mission Siberia' presentations are being presented in public schools, universities, community centers, also the participants of the project are welcome to raise awareness of the Project and to raise citizenship between local Lithuanians and foreigners in other countries.

In the year of 2007 the project was nominated for 'LT identity' – awards that are intended for the most recent achievements and meaningful activity in making the image of Lithuania more positive.

In 2010 the laureate producer of the Lithuania's National award for Culture and Art Jonas Jurašas produced a play called „Antigone in Siberia" which was inspired by the project 'Mission Siberia". The play was produced to commemorate the 70th anniversary of the first exiles of Lithuanians to Siberia during the Soviet occupation. In the same year for the part of Antigone in the mentioned play, Lithuanian actress Eglė Mikulionytė was awarded The Golden Stage Cross.

In 2011 in the conference organized by the Lithuanian Union of Student Representations (LSAS) called 'Student Awards 2010' the project 'Mission Siberia' has won the 'Student Award of respect' for the patriotism and citizenship education. In 2011 the project 'Mission Siberia'11' has won the nomination 'Project of the Year' for youth civil and national initiatives.

In 2011 Lithuanian Parliament established the award of the Parliament of the Republic of Lithuania in remembrance to Gabrielė Petkevičaitė-Bitė called „Serve Lithuania". The youth citizenship and patriotism project 'Mission Siberia'11' was announced as a winner along with four other projects for civic initiative and state-building.

Lithuanian National Anthem Around the World

This unique nation's tradition started back on 6 July 2009 when Lithuania celebrated 1,000 years since the first mention of its name in written sources and with the legendary sailing voyage of the “Millennium Odyssey”. Upon the invitation of the “Millennium Odyssey” yachtsmen, the national anthem joined Lithuanian communities, in the homeland and scattered around the world, for a few historic moments. It was a nation's way to proudly celebrate one thousand years anniversary of Lithuania. Ever since, a simple act of singing National Anthem at the same time on the July 6th turned into unique nation's tradition. It should be mentioned that we have become the first nation to ever sing the national anthem simultaneously all over the world.

History. I should state that Mindaugas was the first and only King of Lithuania who founded the first independent Lithuanian state in 1240. Fearing that Lithuania would be unable to withstand attacks from neighbouring groups, Mindaugas sought help from the Teutonic Knights, a religious military order that had established power in the south-eastern Baltic region. In gratitude for their support, Mindaugas became a Roman Catholic in 1251. For this reason Mindaugas was the first and the only King of Lithuania crowned in 1253 bringing the Baltic people together under his leadership. Due to the fact that Lithuania celebrate its Statehood day on 6 July, Lithuanians celebrate with a series of cultural activities, including operas, folk music concerts, folk dance performances, parades and festivals.

About the idea. There is no denying that the idea of “National anthem across the globe” is simple as that: if you feel Lithuania is your homeland, on the day of Statehood stop for a moment and pay respect. National Anthem travels the world from mouth to mouth along with the light from Australia to Hawaii, being sung in Lithuanian communities and individually. It is doubtless to say that lots of Lithuanian municipalities, global communities as well as private businesses organize the singing of National Anthem. People gather to sing in town squares, bars, at friends’ homes, by the lakes, some even said they will sing with their families at the airports on their way to vacation. It has definitely turned into inherent part of our national identity.

The national anthem is always sung at 21:00 Lithuanian time. Lithuanians in the USA, Ireland, Belgium, Poland, Paris, Norway, Argentina, Germany, UK, Georgia, China, Sweden, Canada, in the resorts of Turkey, Greece, Bulgaria and Egypt, even the holiday charter planes will join organized singing of the national anthem.

This simple peaceful act of unity is of special crucial now. With all our history behind, we can once again remind to the world that the simple peaceful act, when accomplished united by thousands, can turn into a great power, which is stronger than any act of aggression. It is obvious that Lithuanians are true citizens and we love our homeland.

Lithuanian Riflemen's Union

Lithuanian Riflemen's Union is a voluntary, independently acting in self-defence civil society organization, strengthening the defensive power of the state, developing citizenship and national consciousness, developing educational public work of defence. The organization recently mentioned 95th years anniversary.

Ideology. It is divided into internal and external.

The built-in ideology was created:

One of the most prominent ideologues LRU is Vlad - Pūtvis Putvinskis. He has written a number of works that mention who has to be a real shooter, but the best-known works of his are the 10 commandments for a shooter like to protect independence of Lithuania and its lands, to get educated and help to educate others, to strengthen mind and body, to be polite and obeying, to respect a gun, to be direct and righteous, to keep own word, to be alert, to protect the state's property, to honour a rifle's name and the name of Lithuania.

Outside ideology was created by Vlad - Pūtvis Putvinskis and Matas Šalčius. External ideology is developed by all riflemen, military and government officers.

History

1. Riflemen's Union was founded as a branch of the Union of



Lithuanian sports - shooting club in 1919. June 27.

In 1919 September 15th Ministry of Defence confirmed LRU statute, and LRU became an independent union of small, separate organization in



September 15, in 1919.

2. In the interwar period of military training conducted nation wide riflemans cultivation work, as well as actively involved in sports.



3. In 1940 July 11 the order was published that the organization is wound up. Until 1941 June 22 imprisoned and deported 80 percent of Riflemen's Union divisions, staffs, members of the Boards. 1941-1953 m. shooters actively participated in the battles of resistance against the German and Soviet occupiers.

4. These days LRU includes the young and the old to the solar activity. Introducing young people to “soldier’s bread” and gives primer wanting to pursue a career in professional soldier on duty. LRU propagates not only military, but also sports, arts, culture, fostering education.

What does it mean to be a Rifleman?

A rifleman is a multifaceted personality. Riflemen learn military disciplines, are interested in arts, also to be sociable, to be occupied in sports and most important aspect is that the shooter must be true Lithuanian.

Young riflemen are Lithuanian Riflemen's Union members aged from 11 to 18 years. Young riflemen are familiar with the Lithuanian Riflemen's Union activities and features of the Lithuanian Armed Forces, participate in public festivals, city events, camps and other projects. Their citizenship is being educated since young days. At the city events, and other projects, they gain more knowledge about history and other things.

Riflemen's Union and the creation of the ideology develops a very important role in the organization - a journal "Trumpet." The first trumpet "issue appeared in 1920. Since 1921, the "Trumpet" is published weekly. The table of contents was very wide, not restricted to the solar news and small essays, but published the State and international news, literature, poetry, songs, articles, military, sports and cultural topics. After the

restoration of the Riflemen's Union, in July 1990, the "Trumpet" became a monthly magazine, and from 2010 published once every two months. Its main purpose - to reflect small business, to inform the members of the organization about the news.

Saja. Lithuanian Riflemen students' SAJA Corporation unites Lithuanian higher education. It was founded in 1934 by Vytautas Magnus University students. LRU Corporation Saja is an integral part of the Lithuanian Riflemen's Union. All corporate members give their oaths and a rifleman is ready to strengthen and defend Lithuania.

Corporations' colours and their meanings:

YELLOW - honestly and nobly serving their Fatherland union;

GREEN - patriotic Freedom of Lithuania;

GREY - intelligence.

The last example is a created video by the student to strengthen citizenship of the pupils at schools in Lithuania using a historic aspect.

REFERENCES

Banks, J. A. 2001. Cultural Diversity and Education: Foundations, Curriculum, and Teaching (6th ed.). Pearson.

Damon, W. 2009. The Path to Purpose: How Young People Find Their Calling in Life. New York.

Hess, D. 2009. Controversy in the Classroom: The Democratic Power of Discussion. New York.

Hess, F.M. 2013. Cage-Busting Leadership. Harvard Education Press.

Liu, E. 2011. The Gardens of Democracy. Sasquatch Books.

Moran, R. 2012. Educational Policy and the Law. Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

<http://www.civitas.lt/lt/?pid=74&id=78>

EUROPEAN CITIZENSHIP STARTS WITH CULTURE

Mg.paed., Mg.philol. Indra Kalniņa

Liepaja University, Latvia

Mg.sc.educ. Aira Klampe

Liepaja University, Latvia

Mg.sc.educ., Mg.sc.sal. Līga Enģele

Liepaja University, Latvia - liga.engele@liepu.lv

Abstract

Globalization has brought great changes in the world. Only 20 years ago there were apparent and obvious differences between European national cultures. People dressed, ate and shopped in instantly recognizable and totally different styles. Nowadays everybody knows McDonalds, dress the same, listen to the same music and access the same internet sites. In culture the differences are deeper and more influential, particularly in people's attitudes, beliefs and behaviour. Because of the growing ethnic, cultural, racial, linguistic and religious diversity in the world, the students of the 21st century must be prepared to function effectively and gain intercultural competence.. They need new cultural knowledge, attitudes and skills to become multicultural citizens. The underlying goal of multicultural education incorporates three strands of transformation: * the transformation of self, the transformation of educational establishments, the transformation of society.

Culture is a component of those changes. Everybody must know the culture of his nation, school and his own. The capital of Latvia Riga is the European capital of culture 2014 and organizes a lot of cultural activities thus helping people get a new understanding of culture. In the process of getting to know other cultures people can experience culture shock. It is important to realize its existence and know remedy to fight it. **Keywords:** culture, citizenship, collectivism and individualism

Abstract in Latvian

Globalizācija ir atnesusi lielas izmaiņas pasaulē. Tikai 20 gadus atpakaļ starp dažādu Eiropas kultūru pārstāvjiem bija vērojamas acīmredzamas atšķirības. Cilvēki ģērbās, ēda un iepirkās citādi. Mūsdienās visi pazīst McDonalda ēdnīcas, ģērbjas vairāk vai mazāk vienādi, klausās to pašu mūziku un atver vienas un tās pašas Interneta lapas. Runājot par kultūru, atšķirības ir dziļākas un ietekmīgākas, it īpaši cilvēku attieksmēs, pārliecībās un uzvedībā. Pieaugušo etnisko, kultūras, rasu, valodas un reliģisko atšķirību dēļ pasaulē 21.gadsimta studentiem jāiegūst starpkultūru kompetence. Lai kļūtu par multikulturālu pilsoni, viņiem vajag jaunas zināšanas par kultūru, jaunu pārliecību un prasmes. Multikulturālās izglītības mērķis paredz 3 veida pārmaiņas: pārmaiņas pašā cilvēkā, pārmaiņas izglītības iestādē, pārmaiņas sabiedrībā.

Kultūra ir šo pārmaiņu sastāvdaļa. Katram ir jāzin savas tautas kultūra, savas skolas un sevis paša kultūra. Latvijas galvaspilsēta Rīga šajā gadā ir Eiropas kultūras galvaspilsēta 2014 and organizē daudz kultūras pasākumus tādējādi palīdzot cilvēkiem gūt jaunu izpratni par kultūru. Iepazīstot citu tautu kultūras cilvēki var piedzīvot kultūras šoku. Ir svarīgi apzināties, ka tas pastāv, un pārzināt līdzekļus, kā to ārstēt.

INTRODUCTION

According to the English author G.K.Chesterton “Modern man is educated to understand foreign languages and misunderstand foreigners”. Edward T.Hall has said „ Culture hides much more than it reveals, and strangely enough what it hides, it hides most effectively from its own participants. Years of study have convinced me that the real job is not to understand foreign culture but to understand our own”.

Collins English dictionary explains that culture is :

1. the quality in a person or society that arises from a concern for what is regarded as excellent in arts, letters, manners, scholarly pursuits, etc.

2. that which is excellent in the arts, manners, etc.

3. a particular form or stage of civilization, as that of a certain nation or period: Greek culture.

4. development or improvement of the mind by education or training.

5. the behaviors and beliefs characteristic of a particular social, ethnic, or age group: the youth culture; the drug culture.

6. the sum of all the forms of art, of love and of thought, which, in the course of centuries, have enabled man to be less enslaved.

Different authors have come forth with different models of culture

1. Orientation to people – Individualism vs. Collectivism (G. Hofstede)

2. Orientation to responsibility – Universalism vs. Particularism
(F. Trompenaar)

3. Orientation to time – Monochronic vs. Polychronic (E.Hall)

4. Orientation to context – High vs. Low Context (E.Hall)

1. Individualism vs. collectivism (G. Hofstede)

Individualism

- competition, self-thought, self-reliance, self-interest, personal growth and fulfillment (own goals)

- Frequent use of “I”
- Ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after him/herself and his/her immediate family

Collectivism

- cooperation, social concern, public service and social
- legacy (Reliance on informal controls, team approach, group goals)
- Frequent use of “We”
- strong, cohesive in-groups, often extended families (with uncles, aunts and grandparents)

2. Universalism vs. Particularism (F. Trompenaar)

- In universalistic cultures , the rules apply equally to the whole ”universe” of members, regardless of relationships
 - General rules, codes, values and standards
 - What is good and right can be defined and always applied
 - Particularist cultures pay attention to the obligations of relationships and unique circumstances
 - Human friendship, extraordinary achievement and situations, the ”spirit of law” are more important than the ”letter of law”

Universalist countries: USA, UK, Netherlands, Germany, Scandinavian cultures

Particularist countries: Latin, African and Asian cultures

3. Every culture has its own responses to time (E.Hall)

Monochronic cultures

- Doing one thing at a time. They value a certain orderliness and sense of there being an appropriate time and place for everything. They do not value interruptions.

The Germans, Americans, Swiss and northern Europeans tend to be monochronic

Polychronic cultures

➤ Doing multiple things at the same time. A manager's office in a polychronic culture typically has an open door, a ringing phone and a meeting all going on at the same time.

➤ Problems that can arise:

- Interactions between types can be problematic. German businessman cannot understand why the person he is meeting is so interruptible by phone calls and people stopping by. Is it meant to insult him? When do they get down to business?

- Similarly, the Latin American employee of a German company is disturbed by all the closed doors -- it seems cold and unfriendly.

4. High-context and Low-context Communication (E.Hall)

Human interaction can be divided into two communication systems:

➤ Low-context communication

Intention or meaning is best expressed through explicit verbal messages (emphasize communication via spoken or written words)

Typical cultures: North America, Germany, Switzerland

➤ High-context communication

Intention or meaning is best conveyed through the context (e.g. social roles or positions) and the non-verbal channels (e.g. pauses, silence, tone of voice) of the verbal message

Typical cultures: South America, Middle East, Japan, South Korea, Vietnam

PROBLEMS

➤ Japanese can find Westerners to be offensively blunt. Westerners can find Japanese to be secretive, devious and unforthcoming with information.

➤ French can feel that Germans insult their intelligence by explaining the obvious, while Germans can feel that French managers provide little direction

Low-context	High-context
<i>Communication</i>	<i>Communication</i>
➤ Individual values	Group-oriented values
➤ Self-face concern	Mutual-face concern
➤ Linear logic	Spiral logic
➤ Direct style	Indirect style
➤ Person-oriented style	Status-oriented style
➤ Self-enhancement style	Self-effacement
➤ Speaker-oriented style	Listener-oriented style
➤ Verbal-based understanding	Context-based

understanding

Germany	USA	Middle East	Japan
Switzerland	Canada	Mexico	South Korea Vietnam

Students of the 21st century must be prepared to function effectively because of the growing ethnic, cultural, racial, linguistic and religious diversity in the world. They need to acquire new **intercultural competence**. To become a multicultural citizens they need new :

- cultural knowledge
- cultural awareness (attitudes)
- cultural competences (skills)

What new cultural knowledge is needed?

3 knowledge domains are needed for the 21st century student

- Foundational knowledge (to know) - Digital/ICT literacy, Core content knowledge, Cross-disciplinary knowledge
- Humanistic knowledge (to value) - Life/job Skills, Ethical/emotional awareness, Cultural Competence
- Meta knowledge (to act) - Creativity and innovation, Problem-solving and critical thinking, Communication and collaboration

What new cultural awareness (attitudes) is needed?

(emotional aspect, positive attitude towards ourselves and valuing others);

In becoming culturally aware, people realize that:

- We are not all the same
- Similarities and differences are both important
- There are multiple ways to reach the same goal and to live life
- The best way depends on the cultural contingency. Each situation is different and may require a different solution.

Game “The Intimate and the Strange” (students in groups of 15)

- handouts

What new competences (skills) are needed?

- skills (behavioural aspect, critically analysing, interpreting, relating and discovering).
- Intercultural Competence is the ability to communicate effectively and relate appropriately in a variety of cultural contexts.

Can intercultural competence be taught? Yes!

- Intentional and developmentally sequenced program design.
- Balancing challenge and support; anxiety reduction.
- Facilitating learning before, during, and after intercultural experiences.
- Depth of intercultural experiences, new language acquisition.
- Intercultural competence training.
- Cultivating curiosity and cognitive flexibility.

The **underlying goal of multicultural education** incorporates three strands of transformation:

- the transformation of self
- the transformation of school and schooling. All aspects of teaching and learning must be re-directed to the students themselves instead of school ranking. Emphasis should be put on critical thinking, learning skills and deep social awareness
- the transformation of society. Societies should change towards a situation where all individuals and groups interact with each other in a full and free expression, sharing some common values, even if they maintain some values and ideas which are specific to them.

Milton Bennett's Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS)

According to M. Bennet personal growth includes ethnocentric stages and ethnorelative stages

Ethnocentric stages:

- DENIAL of cultural difference:

1. Isolation: I live isolated in my homogeneous group, and I am uninterested in experiencing difference.

3. Separation: I intentionally separate myself from cultural difference to protect my own worldview.

- DEFENSE against cultural difference:

The world is organized into "us and them." My own culture is obviously the best, which is why

1. Denigration: I denigrate other cultures.

2. Superiority: My culture is superior to other cultures

3. Reversal: My adopted culture is superior to my own original cultural. I went native.

- MINIMIZATION of cultural difference:

1. Physical Universalism: We humans have all the same physical characteristics: we must eat, procreate, and die. These common biological features dictate behavior that is basically recognizable across cultures.

2. Transcendent Universalism: Whether we know it or not, deep down all humans share basically the same universal values. I assume that elements of my own cultural worldview are experienced as universal.

Danger: cultural differences are often trivialized or romanticized.

Ethnorelative stages:

Ethnorelativism supposes that "cultures can only be understood relative to one another, and that particular behavior can only be understood within a cultural context".

- ACCEPTANCE of cultural difference:

I recognize and accept the fact that my own culture is just one of a number of equally complex worldviews. Therefore, I accept

1. Respect for Behavioral Difference: all behavior
2. Respect for Value Difference: that all values and beliefs exist in a cultural context. I am curious and respectful toward cultural difference.

- ADAPTATION to cultural difference:

1. Empathy: I have developed enough intercultural communication skills to be able

to adapt to difference and consciously shift, through empathy, into another

perspective, into another cultural frame of reference. I can also act in culturally

appropriate ways in the other culture.

2. Pluralism: I understand that difference must always be understood within the context of the relevant culture. I have internalized more than one worldview.

- INTEGRATION of cultural difference:

1. Contextual Evaluation: I am able to manipulate multiple cultural frames of

reference in my evaluation of a situation. I am conscious of myself as a chooser

of alternatives.

2. Constructive Marginality: My identity is not primarily based on any one culture.

I am a constant creator of my own reality.

Do we know our own culture? Discuss in groups of 8 handouts

1. Think of three values that are important in your culture.
2. Write down three values in your culture that are important for you.

3. Why do you think it's important to get to know your own culture when building alliances with other groups?

4. Who benefits from the cultural values you named in the first part of the exercise?

A self-assessment of my Intercultural Experience (students raise hands if they agree to the statement)

A. Interest in other people's way of life

I am interested in other people's experience of daily life, particularly those things not usually presented to outsiders through the media.

B. Ability to change perspective

I have realised that I can understand other cultures by seeing things from a different point of view and by looking at my culture from their perspective.

C. Ability to cope with living in a different culture

I am able to cope with a range of reactions I have to living in a different culture (euphoria, homesickness, physical and mental discomfort, etc)

D. Knowledge about another country and culture

I know some important facts about living in the other culture and about the country, state and people.

E. Knowledge about intercultural communication

I know how to resolve misunderstandings which arise from people's lack of awareness of the view point of another culture

I know how to discover new information and new aspects of the other culture for myself

Quiz on cultures

We associate particular nation or country with the artists, musicians, writers and poets, singers and dancers , actors and many more representatives from so called “creative professions”– popular people who represent particular cultural heritage.

Latvia – the country of singers, the country of poets, Riga, Art Nouveau, Alvis Hermanis, Egils Zarins, Vilhelms Purvītis, Emīls Dārziņš, Imants Kalniņš, Pēteris Vasks, Rūdolfs Blaumanis, Imants Ziedonis, Vecrīga skyline, Minox legend lives on, “Limo the Colour of Solstice Night”,

Austria – F. Hundertwasser, G. Klimt, J. Haydn, W. A. Mozart, H. von Karajan, F. Schubert, Strauss family, Porsche, Swarovski, M. Buber, E. Husserl, P. Watzlawick, Baumgartner, R. M. Rilke

Belgium – R. Campin, K. Clijsters, A. Hepburn, V. Horta (architect), M. Maeterlinck, P.P. Rubens, A. Sax, R. Magritte, F. Snyders (painter), J. van Ghent, J. C. van Damme, J. van Rompaey, G. Lemaitre (astronomer), Plastic Bertrand (punk/rock singer), H. Poirot

Czech Republic – K. Čapek, J. Hašek, F. Kafka, M. Kundera, A. Dvorak, B. Smetana, K. Gott, M. Forman, J. A. Komensky, J. A. Comenius, G. Mendel, H. Kucera, J. Jagr, J. Palach

Denmark – Vitus Bering, Connie Nielsen, Nina Agdal, Hans Christian Andersen, Niels Bohr, Daniel Agger, Lars Ulrich, Mads Mikelsen

Germany – Martin Lawrence, L. Van Beethoven, M. Luther, Heidi Klum, A. Einstein, Mesut Ozil, Bruce Willis, Pope Benedict XVI, M. Schumacher, Marco Reus

Spain – R. Nadal, S. Dali, A. Banderas, D. Velazquez, F. Alonso, Fernando Torres, Xavi, P. Cruz, M. de Cervantes, E. Iglesias

Hungary – Laszlo Kovacs, F. Liszt, H. Houdini, Z. Z. Gabor, Erno Rubik, B. Palvin, Endre Ady, Imre Makovecz, Janos Ader

Turkey – Elia Kazan, Kivanç Tatlitug, Farah Zeynep Abdullah, Mustafa Kemal Ataturk, Nevin Cokay, Resat Nuri Guntekin, Demir Demirkan, Ali Babacan, Tugba Karademir

Lithuania – A. Sabonis, Eimuntas Nekrošius, Jonas Mekas, M. Mažvydas, M. K. Čiurlionis, A. Mamontovas, Vytautas Landsbergis, Dalia Grybauskaitė, S. Daukantas, Mindaugas, Darius Mockus

Cyprus - Anna Vissi, Michalis Hatzigiannis, Kyriacou Pelagia, James Alexandrou, Peter Andre, Tina Charles, Antony Costa, Mihalis Kakogiannis (director), George Michael (singer), Stelios HajiIoannou

(owner of EasyJet airlines), Christophoros Pissarides (Nobel Prize winner in Economics)

European capital cities

Rīga – European Capital of Culture 2014

The Chain of Booklovers - a symbolic living chain in which inhabitants and visitors of Riga passed books down from the old building of the National Library of Latvia to the new one 1.2 miles (2 km) away - the Palace of Light (“Gaismas pils”). The Library is designed by Latvian-born US architect Gunnar Birkerts and will open in August.

Sing, Riga! July 9 – 19, 2014

Culture shock

The term, culture shock, was introduced for the first time in 1958 to describe the anxiety produced when a person moves to a completely new environment. We can describe culture shock as the physical and emotional discomfort one suffers when coming to live in another country or a place different from the place of origin.

Some key symptoms of culture shock include:

- Homesickness
- Boredom
- Withdrawal
- Frustration and anxiety
- Irritability
- Stereotyping of host nationals
- Hostility toward host nationals
- Depression
- Melancholy
- Insomnia

Culture shock quiz

Stages of culture shock

- Kalvero Oberg was one of the first writers to identify five distinct stages of culture shock. He found that culture shock is almost like a

disease: it has a cause, symptoms, and a cure. Psychologists tell us that there are five distinct phases (or stages) of culture shock. It is important to understand that culture shock happens to all people who travel abroad, but some people have much stronger reactions than others.

- During the first few days of a person's stay in a new country, everything usually goes fairly smoothly. The newcomer is excited about being in a new place where there are new sights and sounds, new smells and tastes. The newcomer may have some problems, but usually accepts them as just part of the newness. The newcomer may find that "the red carpet" has been rolled out and they may be taken to restaurants, movies and tours of the sights. This first stage of culture shock is called the "honeymoon phase."

- Unfortunately, this honeymoon phase often comes to an end fairly soon. The newcomer has to deal with transportation problems (buses that don't come on time), shopping problems (can't buy their favourite foods) or communication problems (just what does "Chill out, dude." mean?). It may start to seem like people no longer care about your problems. They may help, but they don't seem to understand your concern over what they see as small problems. You might even start to think that the people in the host country don't like foreigners.

- This may lead to the second stage of culture shock, known as the "rejection phase." The newcomer may begin to feel aggressive and start to complain about the host culture/country. It is important to recognize that these feelings are real and can become serious. This phase is a kind of crisis in the 'disease' of culture shock. It is called the "rejection" phase because it is at this point that the newcomer starts to reject the host country, complaining about and noticing only the bad things that bother them. At this stage the newcomer either gets stronger and stays, or gets weaker and goes home (physically, mentally or both).

- If you don't survive stage two successfully, you may find yourself moving into stage three: the "regression phase." The word "regression" means moving backward, and in this phase of culture shock, you spend much of your time speaking your own language, watching

videos from your home country, eating food from home. You may also notice that you are moving around campus or around town with a group of students who speak your own language. You may spend most of this time complaining about the host country/culture.

- If you survive the third stage successfully (or miss it completely) you will move into the fourth stage of culture shock called the "recovery phase" or the "at-ease-at-last phase." In this stage you become more comfortable with the language and you also feel more comfortable with the customs of the host country. You can now move around without a feeling of anxiety. You still have problems with some of the social cues and you may still not understand everything people say (especially idioms). However, you are now 90% adjusted to the new culture and you start to realize that no country is that much better than another - it is just different lifestyles and different ways to deal with the problems of life.

- Much later, you may find yourself returning to your homeland and -guess what? - you may find yourself entering the fifth phase of culture shock. This is called "reverse culture shock" or "return culture shock" and occurs when you return home. You have been away for a long time, becoming comfortable with the habits and customs of a new lifestyle and you may find that you are no longer completely comfortable in your home country. Many things may have changed while you were away and it may take a little while to become at ease with the cues and signs and symbols of your home culture.

How to Fight Culture Shock

- Develop a hobby
- Don't forget the good things you already have!
- Remember, there are always resources that you can use
- Be patient, the act of immigrating is a process of adaptation to new situations. It is going to take time
- Learn to be constructive. If you encounter an unfavorable environment, don't put yourself in that position again. Be easy on yourself.
- Don't try too hard.

- Learn to include a regular form of physical activity in your routine. This will help combat the sadness and loneliness in a constructive manner. Exercise, swim, take an aerobics class, etc.
- Relaxation and meditation are proven to be very positive for people who are passing through periods of stress
- Maintain contact with your ethnic group. This will give you a feeling of belonging and you will reduce your feelings of loneliness and alienation
 - Maintain contact with the new culture.
 - Learn the language.
 - Volunteer in community activities that allow you to practice the language that you are learning. This will help you feel less stress about language and useful at the same time
 - Allow yourself to feel sad about the things that you have left behind: your family, your friends, etc.
 - Recognize the sorrow of leaving your old country. Accept the new country. Focus your power on getting through the transition.
 - Pay attention to relationships with your family and at work. They will serve as support for you in difficult times.
 - Establish simple goals and evaluate your progress.
 - Find ways to live with the things that don't satisfy you 100%.
 - Maintain confidence in yourself. Follow your ambitions and continue your plans for the future.
- If you feel stressed, look for help. There is always someone or some service available to help you. You may want to check out

Factors to consider when going to other countries

1. According to the anthropologist Edward Hall there are high context and low context cultures. In a high-context culture, there are many contextual elements that help people to understand the rules. As a result, much is taken for granted. This can be very confusing for person who does not understand the 'unwritten rules' of the culture. In a low-context culture,

very little is taken for granted. Whilst this means that more explanation is needed, it also means there is less chance of misunderstanding particularly when visitors are present. Therefore it is necessary to acquire at least some words in the language of the particular ethnic group, jokes, proverbs, sayings . For example, while having business talks with Germans and Japanese partners it is not advisable to joke. In the southern states of the USA do not make fun about adultery as family relationships are highly valued. In China there are not separate women's and men's restrooms, just common toilet . No problem, as long as there are no major events as in Chinese toilets there are no booths. In Chinese culture, it is not objectionable.

2. Get to know about the social structure of the country you are visiting. For example, there are kingdoms, but the parliament is the one that decides about the country policies. These countries want to maintain the royal traditions. For example, in Spain their kings and queens marry no one who is not from the royal family. This was the case why also Princess Diana was disapproved of.

3. Be aware of some stereotypes. For example, in West and East Germany people still do not understand each other although the Berlin Wall does not exist for a long time. In India there are still castes although the caste system has been banned. There are a lot if Indian films – a poor girl and a well off guy or vice versa.

4. It is typical to find a lot of immigrants in Europe. It started in 70ties of the 20th century when Turkish people were allowed to work in Germany because workers were needed. Now a lot of European countries have immigrant workers. A lot of them have fully integrated in the local society.

5. In England you can easily say from which layer of the society the person is while listening to his speech. Cockney accent clearly show that you are from the working class and live in the East End.

6. There are different subcultures within a particular culture – religious subculture, musicians’ subculture, drug dealers’ subculture,

teens' subculture, sexual subculture, inmate subculture, etc. The subculture agents have the same beliefs and symbols

7. Style of life. For instance, Germans and also Latvians like fatty food, Americans eat large calorie food (hamburgers,etc.), Koreans eat very spicy foods , even hotter than Mexican food. Koreans eat very spicy foods, even sharper than a lot of Mexican food. In Korea and Vietnam people also eat dogs, worms, cockroaches, snails. In China people fry herring, in Latvia we eat them marinated. Africans eat soup with hands and sit on the floor

8. Showing satisfaction In Arab countries people greet each other with both hands. In Arab countries the left hand is considered dirty and is used just for toilet purposes. In China when eating you must make smacking noises to show that the food is delicious.

9. Taboo themes. In the USA one may talk about health problems while eating, but the Spaniards believe that it is unacceptable. At the same time in Spain people could not get used to McDonald's because they do not serve wine there.

10. Female-male relationship. In Arab countries women wear paranja, do not work and leave the house relatively rarely. However, it is the woman who decides how to raise children and other family matters. Women in Russia are very active, as the woman is forced to be active by the life style. In Iran and Iraq men cry and get hysteric, hug at meeting, kiss and hold hands. In Latvia one can see a man crying only in 3 cases – at the friend's grave, in a tragic satiation, because of a dead lover.

11. Status of a woman in society. In Japan women never get a high status in society despite high education they get.. There is a belief in Japan that if a woman participates in business negotiations, they will not be successful. The same can be said about young men as old age is highly valued in Japan. In order to be promoted a young Japanese man leaves for another country.

12. Understanding of an honest person. Every nation has its own opinion about it. In Japan men and women wash together, but eat separately.

13. American Indians are often blamed for alcoholism. But in their blood there is not an enzyme that breaks down alcohol, so these people after just one glass can become alcoholics. That is also the reason why they don't drink cow's milk. They prepare milk from the milk powder.

14. In Japan companies recruit people for life and they are never fired. Schooling is free there. In Scandinavian countries, also Germany the government pays large unemployment benefits.

15. If someone does something wrong in class, he has to eat alone. Separation from others is a terrible punishment. If a worker is separated from the rest of the workers for a month and is forced to live in a hut alone without being asked to work, in a month he has a nervous collapse. The Americans never close the door behind them. Their life is open.

16. Education system. In Latvia we gradually pass over to the American education system – it is easy to learn at school but in higher educational establishments it is difficult. In the USA the lecturer tells students what they are to acquire themselves and speaks about the things which are not to be found anywhere. Mostly students study individually. In the U.K. there are tutors who help students individually.

17. Games. There are countries where team sports are popular. And there are also countries where it is not popular. In Japan there is a rubber scarecrow (the boss ☺) which can be beaten if somebody has hurt you.

REFERENCES

Beck, U. (1999). What is Globalization. SAGE Publications.

Bennett, M. J. (1993). Towards ethnorelativism: A developmental model of intercultural sensitivity (revised). In R. M. Paige (Ed.), Education for the Intercultural Experience. Yarmouth, Me: Intercultural Press.

Bennett, M. J. Education for the Intercultural Experience. Ed. R.M. Paige. 2nd edition. Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press, 1993. 21-71.

Byram, M. (1998) Intercultural Communicative Competence – The Challenge for language Teacher Training/ Teaching Towards Intercultural competence. BC, pp. 92 – 103

Kiefer S. (2005). ECMA European Counsellor for Multicultural Education Teaching and Learning Material. Comenius development programme, p. 225.

Perroti A. (1994). The Case for Intercultural Education. – Starsbourg: Council of Europe Press, p. 112

Tomalin B., Stempleski S. (2006). Cultural Awareness. Oxford University Press, pp. 160.

Vink, N. (2005). *Dealing with differences*. KIT Publishers – Amsterdam

Electronic resources

<http://dictionary.reference.com/>

<http://tumblairka.tumblr.com/post/68451037904/modern-man-is-educated-to-understand-foreign>

<http://untilallhaveheard1.wordpress.com/2008/12/13/culture-hides-much-more-than-it-reveals/>

<http://kozaigroup.com/inventories/the-intercultural-effectiveness-scale/>

<http://www2.pacific.edu/sis/culture/>

<http://www.clearlycultural.com/geert-hofstede-cultural-dimensions/>

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bennett_scale

<http://www.johnsesl.com/templates/reading/cultureshock/>

DIVERSITY IN THE CLASSROOM AND EQUALITY IN DEMOCRACY

Dipl.-Päd. Sabine Grull

Flensburg University, Germany - sabine.Grull@uni-
flensburg.de

Abstract

This lecture shows a problem with two different sides and the authors are hopeful to initiate lively and interesting discussions about antinomies. At first students explain the constitution of their country. Accordingly they describe four categories of diversities in society and in the classrooms. These are Gender, multilingualism, migration and social disparity. After that three students present two conflict areas in the educational scientific discourse. The first conflict in teaching business is deficit orientation vs. individual resource orientation and the second conflict in teaching is between the intent of individual support vs. the order to select pupils. At least the teacher reunites all that topics together with parts of two political ethic theories, which are Seyla Benhabib's ideas about multiculturalism and Juergen Habermas' theory about the society of discourse.

Keywords: equality, diversity, democracy, education

Preface (by Sabine GRULL)

The topic of this lecture > Diversity in the classroom an equality in democracy< is a problem with two opposing sides. Also we will hopefully initiate a lively and interesting discussion about antinomies. But at first the introduction of ourselves: Melany, Loreen, Janina, Moritz und Hauke are students at the Europa-Universität Flensburg, my own profession is teaching the henceforth teachers in following issues: anthropology, intercultural education, gender and social disparities. All together we prepared the following chapters, each of us one special part.

In the beginning, in chapter one, Melany will explain the system of democracy in the Federal Republic of Germany. Furthermore she will introduce the political system and the four relevant articles of the basic law. In Chapter two the whole group of authors is involved, because it is a lot of content. Chapter two specifies four categories of diversity in classrooms – diversities between pupils in a classroom as a micro level as well as diversities of members in a society as the macro level. These four categories are called gender, multilingualism, migration, social disparity and disability. Loreen will inform you about gender and multilingualism. Afterwards Moritz will inform you about migration and social disparity. Although there is a constant discussion about the integration of disabled pupils into regular classes, this lecture is going to ignore this very important topic, because the lecture of Czech Republic will broaden the issue of disabled pupils in public schools. In chapter three and four Hauke and Janina will show two areas of conflicts in context of the main question: Hauke illuminates the antinomies between public interest in career educations against individual interest in education with the object of self-realizing. Then Janina debates another point of conflicts for teachers in the German education system: individual support versus selecting students. Both of these matters of debate don't find a perfect solution; so it will be a good reason to talk about it here in this context. The last chapter is Sabine's part and it is entitled as following: without diversities no global democracy-Seyla Benhabib's term of multiculturalism.

Putting all these aspects together, the lector hopes to build a bridge from naming problems to an exchange of similar experiences in this field. But at first we would like to start the short introduction of the system of democracy in the Federal Republic of Germany by Melany.

1 Democracy in the federal Republic of Germany (by Melany UGAZ MENDOZA)

Democracy has been established in Germany through the Allied Victory after the Second World War. Initially it has been divided in the democratic West and in the communist East Germany, but in 1989 the country has been reunited again to one state. The roots of democracy lie in these historical incidents, hence it has been a continuous process to reach the democracy we live in today (Andersen & Woyke, 2003).

Germany introduced a new political system for its country; characteristic is the anti-totalitarian consensus and the differentiation of the ideology of communism established by the Soviet Union. The mistakes from the past have shaped Germany's future; abuse of power, i.e. a potential dictatorship as well as the loss of power shall be avoided at all costs. This attitude influences especially the structure of the internal and external constitution, which differs from political systems in the past. Security mechanisms such as the constructive vote of no confidence, the sole jurisdiction of the Federal Constitutional Court for party bans and the five-percent clause have been established according to sustain the democracy (Andersen & Woyke, 2003).

Today Germany can be defined as a democratic and social federal state. Fundamental principles are the parliamentary system, the separation of powers, federalism, the welfare state and the multi-party principle. The image below shows a short version of the constitutional principles, which are stated in the article 20 of the 'Basic Law for the Federal Republic of Germany'.

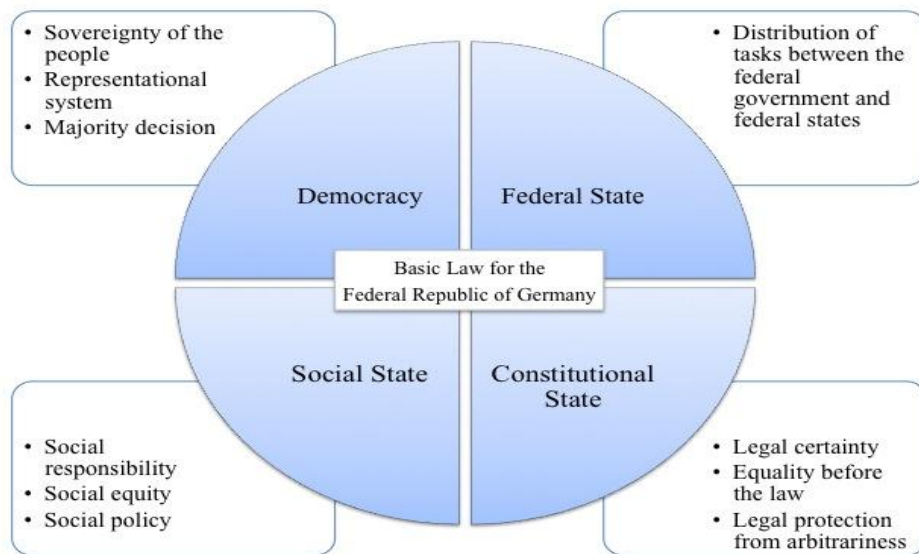


Figure 1. Bundeszentrale für politische Bildung (2009). Strukturprinzipien des Grundgesetz. Retrieved from <http://www.bpb.de/politik/grundfragen/24-deutschland/40423/grundgesetz> (14.07.2014).

The most important principles are stated in article 1 of the ‘Basic Law for the Federal Republic of Germany’ (2010) and have certain wording:

(1) Human dignity shall be inviolable. To respect and protect it shall be the duty of all state authority.

(2) The German people therefore acknowledge inviolable and inalienable human rights as the basis of every community, of peace and of justice in the world.

(3) The following basic rights shall bind the legislature, the executive and the judiciary as directly applicable law.’

Article 7 of the ‘Basic Law for the Federal Republic of Germany’ refers to the education system. The entire school system is supervised by the state. The concept of law describes in detail religious issues, i.e. non-denominational schools exclude religion subjects. But in all the other schools religion is part of the regular curriculum. Nevertheless, religion

instruction lies in the hands of parents and guardians, they can decide whether their children shall receive religious education (Basic Law for the Federal Republic of Germany, 2010).

Germany is a founding member of the European Union and gradually has become the largest immigration country in Europe. (Andersen & Woyke, 2003). An overview of the democratic construct the Federal Republic of Germany and the values enshrined to this underlying are given now. This text also has referred to the design of the school system, which is prescribed in the 'Basic Law for the Federal Republic of Germany'.

2 Classes of Diversities

The German educational scientific discourse about heterogeneity in the classroom mostly distinguishes between five different categories of diversities: Gender, Multilingualism, Migration, social disparity and disability. The following part of this lecture will describe not all of them. Therefore the last diversity disability is eliminated.

2.1 Gender (by Loreen HENF)

Having a sexual orientation and specific gender identity is a characteristic of modern society. Gender identity and sexual orientation are usually connected to society's expectation and moral ideas about the 'right way to live'. If a person's sexual orientation differs from the majority, the person is often seen as a legitimate target for discrimination or abuse.

Gender equality, meaning that males and females have the same rights, is typical for modern society. It belongs to individual interpretation how a person construes sexual identity. Self-perception and objective awareness are a central point in this aspect. Every single person influences how much society knows about private and business life.

A person's identity is influenced by gender, sexual orientated origin, age and ideology. Sexual identity means a person capability to understand him with regard to gender. Self-perception and public image are elementary. It includes the biological and social gender, but also sexual

orientation. It means which gender is target of human sexuality. This could be the same, homosexual or the other gender, heterosexual.

There is also a “diversity dimension” of sexual orientation. Transgender people belong to this group. They don’t identify with biological gender specifications automatically or just partly. Also people who don’t identify with the typical characteristics of their biological gender belong to this group. Representative studies show that 7% of the entire population consists of gay men or women. To the group of transgender people belongs an amount of 5 % of the population. Accepting every sexual orientation and fighting discrimination in this regard, are main goals of society. (Schröter, 2010; Weigel, 1990)

2.2 Multilingualism (by Loreen HENF)

At some German schools 50 % of the pupils have a multicultural background. A huge amount of these pupils just speak a little bit German, because it is not their mother tongue. Another reason for not being able to speak German is that the children’s parents don’t speak German at home.

To make it easier for these children to learn the language there are establishments where they can learn German as their second language. The program’s short form is “DaZ”. This program supports children when they don’t speak any German or if they do not speak fluent enough.

During the time when other students in class have their German lessons or sports, pupils who don’t have German as mother tongue get this special support by teachers who are educated for teaching German as a second language.

Pupils who start from zero get fulltime support. After a short time with fulltime support the pupils become integrated in their ‘normal’ class. So they are not overwhelmed by language and all the new cultural impressions. It also helps to practice speaking. The children get a better contact to other students, because of their daily working together during, for example, arts and sports. Also, social integration is going to be easier. A main target is to integrate children with German as second language also

into social life of their class just with low language barriers after the special support.(Ahrenholz/Oomen, 2010; Rösch, 2011)

2.3 Migration (by Moritz LUND)

In the early 20th century Germany was a country which was characterized by immigration. Since the early sixties of the 20th century more and more immigrants came to Germany. Most of them were so called “Gastarbeiter” (guest worker) who were allowed to work in the industrial sector, based on bilateral contracts with e.g. Spain, Turkey and Italy. Most of the offered jobs often had low qualification standards. Between 1950 and 1998 round about 30 million people immigrated to Germany. Migration is and was always an important part for social change, modernization and it was important for the economic progression of the BRD¹. Despite the advantages of migration for the German society, there is, in Germany and in general in Europe, still a perspective of deficits and the enhancement of the negative aspects of migration. Migration is often associated with criminality or with disturbing and threatening aspects. In 2009 every fourth person under the age of 25 in Germany has a transnational migratory background. (Mecheril, 2010, pp. 7–10)

A number of 1.5 million German citizens have Turkey as their origin country. The next highest numbers (532.000) of citizens are originally from Poland followed by Italy with 529.417. (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2013, pp. 64–66) Having this in mind the society came to the broad agreement that a so called “Migrationsgesellschaft” (migratory society) is inevitable. (Mecheril, 2010, p. 9)

According to the German Constitution every human being has the same equal rights and no one should be discriminated because of his gender, origin, race, language, religious and political beliefs. (Bundesgesetzblatt, 1949/ 11.07.2012) There are innumerable programs to empower victims of discrimination and to raise awareness for this topic in

¹Federal Republic of Germany

the society. While fighting open discrimination is on the agenda of most teachers, the hidden discriminating structures in the German educational system are mostly unknown. Gomolla et al. call this the institutional discrimination. Institutional discrimination is not based on prejudices but based on social processes and the organizationally acting. For instance, it is empirical proven that the allocation of the pupils after the primary school by their teachers to different secondary schools is not only based on the scholastic performance of the pupils. (Kai Maaz, Jürgen Baumert und Ulrich Trautwein, 2010, p. 35) Especially in unclear cases the family background is the dominating factor. It has been shown that the teachers give the “ticket” for the academically higher rated school type more often to the pupils that have similar social habitus than to pupils with another cultural background. (Mechthild Gomolla, 2006) Another amplifying part of institutional discrimination is the monolingual habitus of the German education system and most of its teachers. On the one hand nearly every publication in the school, e.g. worksheets, are written in German, on the other hand the immigrants experience that languages like French have a higher rating than Persian in the perception of the teachers with a monolingual habitus. (Gogolin, Tanner, & u.a., 2006)

2.4 Social Disparity (by Moritz LUND)

Substantial socio-economic disparities are well documented in Germany and they are in the focus of the academic, political and public community after the so called- “Pisa-Schock”². The PISA surveys from 2000 proved that the scholastic performance is closely linked to the social environment of the pupils. (Büchner, 2003) Especially pupils with transnational background and/or educationally disadvantaged parents have the most deficits. The relationship between social environment and scholastic performance in Germany change from one of the worst proportion in comparison with the other OECD-states in 2000 to a mean position in the OECD-states ranking in 2012. (Simone Bloem, 2012) It has

²The release of the PISA-survey 2000

been empirical proven that children with economically better ranked parents have got a higher chance to visit the Gymnasium³ than children with economically worse ranked parents even if these children have the same abilities and scholastic performance. (Kai Maaz, Jürgen Baumert und Ulrich Trautwein, 2010, pp. 34–35) A popular and mostly accepted model to explain the reproduction of social inequality in the German educational system is based on the research of Pierre Bourdieu in France. A misfit between social and cultural habitus, originating from the individual possession of different capital categories⁴, of teachers and some specific groups of pupils can lead to inequality in the education system. This means that success in the education system depends on the social and cultural fitting between mostly middle-class, white, heterosexual and German teachers and the socio-economic heterogenic pupils. (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1971; Kramer & Helsper, 2011)

3 Deficit Orientation and individual Resource Orientation as Conflict area

An Educational scientific Discourse: Free market versus Human
(by Hauke SCHROEDER)

Education means the pursuit of a self-identity against social function requirements. This fact that the education of people is always oriented to the individual on the one hand (self-fulfillment), and the society on the other hand (function), results in contradictions (e.g. autonomy-heteronomy, education-vocational training) (Helsper, 2007, p. 28): (Particularly in western countries such as the member states of the EU the paradigm of education within schools has been transformed increasingly to an result based evaluation.)

"Education for all" is centrally required by the UNESCO and anchored as a key fundamental right in Article 26 of the General Declaration of Human Rights. In this context education is understood as a

³ Advanced secondary school, to prepare pupils for advanced academic studies at universities

⁴ A summary of the different capital categories can be found in Pierre Bourdieu (1983)

prior condition to realize other fundamental rights and to participate in cultural, social, and economic life of each society (Jahnke, 2014, p. 153). This perspective considers education as an individual privilege. The purpose is founded in forming the spirit and mind and it is oriented on the anthropological condition of the child's curiosity - or on the individual needs, interests, and talents (Helsper, 2007, p. 29). In this regard, education is the opportunity to archive fulfillment and participation through learning and fostering individual resources (Wischer & Trautmann, 2014, pp. 106-107).

"Education at a glance" is the annually published World Report of the OECD, that gives information of the educational level of the member states. Analytical comparison measurements - for example, PISA (Program for International Student Assessment) - crystallize out which countries have a particularly efficient education policy in terms of competitiveness on the global labor market. Thus process is developing more and more to an understanding of education as human capital and supply goods on an increasingly economized education market (Jahnke, 2014, p. 153). On a smaller scale there are stepless standardized performance tests taking place within the institution school (class work, exams etc.) to expose the student's different levels of performances. This permanent focus on competitiveness causes in an increasing dominance of economical figures of thought. The orientation towards results [outcomes] means that the priorities of education through an economic analysis by standard specifications and a measurement of achievement are determined by standards (Weltbank, 1995, p. 94). Under this perspective the focus is on finding the deficits of students who are not able to archive the class's standard and bring them on the society acquired standards through reducing individual weaknesses.

Currently, the understanding of education as a "human capital" has reached a great importance in Germany and Europe, leading to a comprehensive structural change within the educational institutions. With this shift in meaning the critical standards of education are abandoned.

Criticism from educational science perspective (Ruhloff 1997, Radtke 2003 Bröckling 2007):

- Problems of measurability of Education (constructs of performance skills, establishment of criteria for assessment)
- Problems of comparability of services (no contextualization)
- Restructuring of costs / private financing
- Abandonment of claim to critique of education against social function requirements
- Limits of the "entrepreneurial self"

4 Individual Supports versus Selecting Students as Conflict Area

(by Janina JAESCHKE)

Individual support is a central idea in German schools in order to enhance students' performances. It is seen as a key element to students' success, but looking at the scientific publications shows that different people have different concepts in mind (Winkler, 2008, p. 173).

One perspective understands individual support as help for low-performing students who were not able to reach the basic aims of the class curriculum and do not show the competences that are expected (Winkler, 2008, p. 173). The reasons for their below average performances are seen in a physical, psychological or organic disability. These children belong to the group of students that is categorized as special education (Winkler, 2008, p. 173). Other reasons for the low-performance can be found in the child's environment. Poverty, difficult family situation, or migration background are often seen in this aspect (Winkler, 2008, p. 173). In this perspective next to the low performing students, the high-performing students are also a group which needs individual support. Gifted intelligent students need extra work so that they do not get bored in class. Their mind needs extra challenges (Winkler, 2008, p. 176).

Looking at these ideas of individual support shows that the question if a student needs individual support is answered by comparing the student's scholastic accomplishments to standard performances (Winkler, 2008, p. 177). This approach has been criticized by several researchers.

They point out that the focus should not only be on low-performing or high-performing students, but instead on every student (Braun & Schmischke, 2008, p.8). They support a wider perspective on individual support. In this approach, the teacher looks at every single child and sees his strengths, weaknesses, interests and individual personality. Taking all these characteristics into account, the teacher then decides what is best for this one individual student (Braun & Schmischke, 2008, p. 8). It becomes clear that every student has the right for individual support in this approach. It is not about practicing the things you are not good at to compensate the weaknesses, but instead it is about giving every child the best learning opportunity (Arnoldt, 2009, p. 64).

This wider perspective on individual support changes the teaching-culture in classrooms. A more open lesson plan is necessary as well as a new view on the children's living environment (Rabenstein, 2010, p. 23). Individual learning schedules and different learn settings in the classrooms are necessary so that the students have more choices about what they want and need to learn (Haenisch, 2010, p. 67). Following this perspective in matter of individual support often brings the teacher into an inner conflict situation as he/she has the duty to give every child the best learning opportunity, but at the same time the German education system forces him/her to sort the students into categories for their scholastic accomplishments.

5 Without Diversities no global and no European Democracy (by Sabine GRULL)

After the presentation of the four diversity categories gender, multilingualism, social disparity and migration we explained the following conflict areas in the German education system: public interest in career education against the education directed to self-realizing and the conflict area individual support against the mission of school selecting students.

The educational science doesn't find an answer to these problems by itself, but Seyla Benhabib analyzed the political entity of globalization. In her different books about Claims of Culture: Equality and Diversity in the

Global Era she presents an idea of henceforth political ethic. The important point is participation of all different society members. (Benhabib, 1993; 1998)

The intersectional education science assumes that, it is possible to transfer all types of differences in classroom into claims of culture and vice versa. Furthermore the classrooms are the main places for preparing kids to their citizenships. Also it is an interesting thing taking a look at Erol Yildiz, a German education scientist, who relegated to that political ethic from Seyla Benhabib in the following way of argumentation: Identity politics are the reason for a conflict area with two sides: the one side is the global - here in this context the European - integration with the solution of social-culture differences and the other side is a movement towards culture, races, religions, gender and social separating. (Yildiz, 2008:39)

Identity politics can have the perspective of essentialism or of constructivism, so Benhabib. Essentialism means that gender, race, nationality have unique type references. That would be a biological and anthropological fact. The other Position is the perspective of constructivism: identity movements create collective identities and collective identities have floating and unstable borders. (Yildiz, 2008:41) In this dichotomy between essentialism and constructivism Benhabib finds a limitation this way. The limitation for the essentialism is the following fact: individuals find the motivation for giving all they can for their opinions, but only, if they believe, that this opinion is absolutely constitutive for their livelihood. The limitation for constructivism is the following fact: the constructivism doesn't explain motives of action, doesn't explain, why human beings feel essential differences and constructivism doesn't explain the reason, why some practices of culture are very wise and resolve problems. Moreover constructivism doesn't explain how ideologists motivate people. (Yildiz, 2008:42)

Another important point of Benhabib's theory is the definition of culture against the definition of nationality, which is absolutely not the same. The identity of a community is not based on race, religious or ethnic reasons. Furthermore the identity of a community on the one hand and

political processes of government on the other hand are not the same and don't belong together. Next Benhabib recommends new political ways, a mixture from distribution and appreciation but and no different kinds of citizenships in terms of migration, no exclusion against the rest of the world. Example for realizing in parts show the daily experiences in urban lifestyle, what could be the future of >social grammar<, so Benhabib. (Yildiz, 2008:45-59)

After that side note to the topic of Seyla Benhabib's political ethic theory I want to revert to the main topic of this meeting. The question is how to prepare pupils to European democracy. The first point is: no democracy can survive without participation of the different society members. We have that problem in classrooms, too, because the schools are important places of preparing future citizens and education is one of the most important condition for an effective operation of democracy. Democracy doesn't work without discussions, that's why all members have to be able to produce and bring forward arguments. They have to be able to talk peacefully about their own different needs and wishes. The condition for that is at first a room without structural power relations, e.g. between men and women, countries, regions, classes, castes and ethnic groups. This is, what Jürgen Habermas means in his different publications about >Diskursgesellschaft< which means maybe >society of discourse<. (Habermas, 1998; 1992; 1981) Further these own and different opinions, which the members exchange in a lively democracy, need a place to grow up in security without fear. The members of democracy also have to be equal in their rights but can be different in their opinions. According to that democracy needs schools with more and more different pupils; democracy doesn't need exclusion from education. Democracy needs teachers, who are able to teach a heterogeneous class.

REFERENCES

Ahrenholz, B. & I. Oomen-Welke (2010): Deutsch als Zweitsprache. Reihe DTP Deutschunterricht in Theorie und Praxis, Band 9, Hrsg.: Winfried Ulrich. Baltmannsweiler

Andersen, Uwe/Wichard Woyke (2003). Handwörterbuch des politischen Systems der Bundesrepublik Deutschland. Retrieved from <http://www.bpb.de/nachschlagen/lexika/handwoerterbuch-politisches-system/40260/demokratie-in-deutschland?p=all> (14.07.2014).

Arnoldt, B. (2009). Der Beitrag von Kooperationspartnern zur individuellen Förderung an Ganztagssschulen. In L. Stecher, C. Allemann-Ghionda, W. Helsper & E. Klieme (Hrsg.), Zeitschrift für Pädagogik. Ganztägige Bildung und Betreuung. 54. Beiheft. (S. 63-80). Weinheim: Beltz.

Basic Law for the Federal Republic of Germany (2010). Retrieved from http://www.gesetze-im-internet.de/englisch_gg/englisch_gg.html#p0107

Baumert, Kai; Maaz, Jürgen und Trautwein, Ulrich. (2010). Genese sozialer Ungleichheit im institutionellen Kontext der Schule: Wo entsteht und vergrößert sich soziale Ungleichheit? In Y. Anders & K. Maaz (Eds.), Bildungsforschung: Vol. 34. Der Übergang von der Grundschule in die weiterführende Schule. Leistungsgerechtigkeit und regionale, soziale und ethnisch-kulturelle Disparitäten (pp. 27–63). Bonn [u.a.]:Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung (BMBF), Referat Bildungsforschung.

Benhabib, Seyla (1993): Demokratie und Differenz. In: M.Brumlik, H.Brunckhorst: Gemeinschaft und Gerechtigkeit. Frankfurt am Main

Benhabib, Seyla (1999): Kulturelle Vielfalt und demokratische Gleichheit. Politische Partizipation im Zeitalter der Globalisierung. Frankfurt am Main

Bourdieu, P., & Passeron, J.-C. (1971). Die Illusion der Chancengleichheit: Untersuchungen zur Soziologie des Bildungswesens am Beispiel Frankreichs: Tl. II : Die Aufrechterhaltung der Ordnung (1. Aufl). Stuttgart: Klett.

Braun, D. & J. Schmischke (2010). Kinder individuell fördern. Hilfen und Beispiele für die Förderdiagnostik, Entwicklung schuleigener Förderkonzepte für die Klassen 1 bis 4. Berlin: Cornelsen Scriptor.

Bröckling, U. (2007): Das unternehmerische Selbst. Soziologie einer Subjektivierungsform. Frankfurt/M.

Büchner, P. (2003). Stichwort: Bildung und soziale Ungleichheit. Zeitschrift für Erziehungswissenschaft, 6(1), 5–24. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11618-003-0002-9>

Bundesgesetzblatt. (1949/ 2012). Grundgesetz für die Bundesrepublik Deutschland. Retrieved from <http://www.gesetze-im-internet.de/bundesrecht/gg/gesamt.pdf>

Bundeszentrale für politische Bildung (2009). Strukturprinzipien des Grundgesetz. Retrieved from <http://www.bpb.de/politik/grundfragen/24-deutschland/40423/grundgesetz> (14.07.2014).

Gogolin, I., Tanner, A., & u.a. (2006). Sprachliche Heterogenität und der monolinguale Habitus der plurilingualen Schule. In Heterogenität und Integration. Umgang mit Ungleichheit und Differenz in Schule und Kindergarten (pp. 291–299). Zürich

Gomolla, Mechthild. (2006). Institutionelle Diskriminierung im Bildungs- und Erziehungssystem. In R. Leiprecht (Ed.), Reihe Politik und Bildung: Vol. 38. Schule in der Einwanderungsgesellschaft. Ein Handbuch (2nd ed., pp. 97–105). Schwalbach/Ts.: Wochenschau-Verl.

Habermas, Juergen (1981): Theorie kommunikativen Handelns. Frankfurt am Main

Habermas, Juergen (1992): Faktizität und Geltung. Frankfurt am Main

Habermas, Juergen (1998): Die postnationale Konstellation. Frankfurt am Main

Haenisch, H. (2010). Lern- und Förderumgebungen im offenen Ganztage. Erfahrungen und Sichtweisen von Lehr- und Fachkräften. In

Wissenschaftlicher Kooperationsverbund (Hrsg.), Lernen und Fördern in der offenen Ganztagschule. Vertiefungsstudie zum Primarbereich in Nordrhein-Westfalen. (S.67-129). Weinheim: Juventa.

Helsper, W. (2007): Pädagogisches Handeln in den Antinomien der Moderne. In: Helsper, Werner & Heinz-Hermann Krüger (Hrsg.): Einführung in Grundbegriffe und Grundfragen der Erziehungswissenschaft. Opladen: Budrich, 15-34

Jahnke, H. (2014): Bildung und Wissen. In: Lossau, Julia; Tim Freytag & Roland Lippuner (Hrsg.): Schlüsselbegriffe der Kultur- und Sozialgeographie. Stuttgart, 153-166.

Mecheril, P. (2010). Migrationspädagogik. Bachelor, Master. Weinheim [u.a.]: Beltz.

Rabenstein, K. (2010). Individuelle Förderung in unterrichtsergänzenden Angeboten an Ganztagschulen. In S. Appel, H. Ludwig & U. Rother (Hrsg.), Jahrbuch Ganztagschule. Vielseitig fördern. (S. 23-33). Schwalbach/Taunus:

Ramer, R.-T., & Helsper, W. (2011). Kulturelle Passung und Bildungsungleichheit: Potenziale einer an Bourdieu orientierten Analyse der Bildungsungleichheit. In Krüger, Heinz-Hermann, Ursula Rabe-Kleberg, Rolf-Torsten Kramer, Jürgen Budde (Ed.), Studien zur Schul- und Bildungsforschung: Vol. 30. Bildungsungleichheit revisited. Bildung und soziale Ungleichheit vom Kindergarten bis zur Hochschule (2nd ed., pp. 103–126). Wiesbaden

Rösch, H.(2011): Deutsch als Zweit und Fremdsprache. Berlin

Schröter, S. (2002): FeMale. Über Grenzverläufe zwischen den Geschlechtern. Fischer Taschenbuch Verlag, Frankfurt/Main 39.

Statistisches Bundesamt. (2013). Bevölkerung und Erwerbstätigkeit: Ausländische Bevölkerung Ergebnisse des Ausländerzentralregisters. Wiesbaden: Statistisches Bundesamt.

Retrieved from

<https://www.destatis.de/DE/Publikationen/Thematisch/Bevoelkerung/MigrationIntegra>

tion/AuslaendBevoelkerung2010200127004.pdf?__blob=publication
File

Weigel, S.(1990): Topographien der Geschlechter.
Kulturgeschichtliche Studien zur Literatur. Reinbek bei
Hamburg.

Winkler, M. (2008). Förderung. In T. Coelen & H.U. Otto (Hrsg.),
Grundbegriffe Ganztagsbildung. Das Handbuch. (S. 517-526).
Wiesbaden: VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften.

Yildiz, E. (2008): Die politische Ethik multikultureller
Gesellschaften im globalen Kontext: Multikulturalismusverständnis Seyla
Benhabibs. In: S. Neubert/ H.-J. Roth/ E. Yildiz: Multikulturalität in der
Diskussion. Wiesbaden

RECOGNIZING CULTURAL DIFFERENCES AND TAKING LEADERSHIP DECISIONS IN A MULTI-CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT

Prof. Dr. Michael Koniordos

TEI PIREUS University, Greece - mkoniord@otenet.gr

Abstract

This paper examines the meaning and content of culture and the relevant research that has been conducted having the above as a starting point and which has been implemented in business and organization management as well as in the science of Anthropology leading to the construction of cross-cultural models. In a globalized environment, being aware of these models contributes greatly to the taking of decisions in such a manner so that managers can be effective in implementing decisions and leaders can make decisions wisely. The application of this knowledge relies on the organizational culture of each organization or business as well as the managerial or leadership skills and competences of the managers and leaders.

Keywords: meaning and content of culture, cross-cultural models, globalized environment, effective managers and leaders

ΠΕΡΙΛΗΨΗ

Η εργασία αυτή εξετάζει την έννοια και το περιεχόμενο της κουλτούρας, τις έρευνες που έχουν διεξαχθεί με αφετηρία την έννοια και το περιεχόμενο της κουλτούρας και έχουν τύχη εφαρμογής στην διοίκηση επιχειρήσεων και οργανισμών και στην ανθρωπολογία και οδηγούν στην κατασκευή διαπολιτισμικών μοντέλων. Η γνώση των μοντέλων αυτών συμβάλει σημαντικά στην λήψη αποφάσεων κατά τέτοιο τρόπο ώστε, σ' ένα παγκοσμιοποιημένο περιβάλλον, να μπορούν οι μάνατζερς να είναι αποτελεσματικοί και οι ηγέτες να επιλέγουν σωστά. Η εφαρμογή της γνώσης αυτής επαφίεται στην οργανωσιακή κουλτούρα του κάθε οργανισμού και στις διοικητικές ή ηγετικές ικανότητες και δεξιότητες των μάνατζερς και των ηγετών.

Λέξεις κλειδιά: έννοια και περιεχόμενο της κουλτούρας, διαπολιτισμικά μοντέλα, παγκοσμιοποιημένο περιβάλλον, αποτελεσματικοί μάνατζερς και ηγέτες

Introduction

In most Schools of Business Administration, students are taught Management, Marketing, Sales, Accountancy and other useful subjects. Communication is often an elective course that is offered by other departments or is not offered at all. However, lately, this trend has started to reverse. Communication, which is considered to be a major course in Public Relations and Human Resources Management, gains new value in the multileveled spectrum of businesses. Many employers do not seek any longer employees that have practical knowledge of presentation issues, but also individuals who have theoretical knowledge of the right communication principles and know how to use them in changeable situations. The students of Business Administration Departments should be effective on communication matters and capable of analyzing, evaluating, adapting and cooperating in the context of a volatile business scene which involves a multinational workforce. Being occupied with the meaning, the context and the many aspects of culture plays an important role in the accumulation of this complex knowledge.

Ever since the rise of Japan as a leading industrial power, organization theorists and managers alike have become increasingly aware of the relationship between culture and management. During the 1960s, the confidence and impact of American management and industry seemed supreme. Gradually, but with increasing force, throughout the 1970s the performance of Japanese automobile, electronics, and other manufacturing industries began to change all this. Japan began to take command of international markets, establishing a solid reputation for quality, reliability, value and service. With virtually no natural resources, no energy, and over 110 million people crowded in four small mountainous islands, Japan succeeded in achieving the highest growth rate, the lowest level of unemployment, and, at least some of the larger and more successful organizations, one of the best-paid and healthiest working populations in the world. Out of the ashes of War World II the country built an industrial empire second to none.

Although different theorists argued about the reasons for this transformation, most agreed that the culture and general way of life of this mysterious Eastern country played a major role. “Culture” thus became a hot topic in management in the 1980s and early 1990s, with the special character of Japan prompting Western management theorists to take special interest in the culture and character of their *own* countries and the links with organizational life.

But what is this phenomenon we call culture? The word has been derived metaphorically from the idea of cultivation: the process of tilling and developing land. When we talk about culture we are usually referring to the pattern of development reflected in a society’s system of knowledge, ideology, values, laws, and day-to-day ritual. The word is also frequently used to refer to the degree of refinement evident in such systems of belief and practice, as in the notion of “being cultured.” Both these usages derive from nineteenth-century observations of “primitive” societies conveying the idea that different societies manifest different levels of social development. Nowadays, however, the concept of culture does not necessarily carry this old evaluative stance, being used more generally to signify that different groups of people have different ways of life.

When talking about society as a culture we are thus using an agricultural metaphor to guide our attention to very specific aspects of social development. It is a metaphor that has considerable relevance for our understanding of organizations.

For management practice, we define culture as the set of values and assumptions shared by a certain group of people. We focus specifically on the values and assumptions shared by a certain group of people. We focus specifically on the values and assumptions concerning how people interact with each other and with the world around them, because these dimensions most affect organizational life.

Culture is shared by the members of a group. It guides what they do and how they do it, as well as what is assumed to be important. In this sense, culture is to people what software is to computers – the programming of people’s thinking and behaving. Culture is passed on in

families and the institutions of the group, such as schools, churches, and the media. Most of the time, culture is not made explicit, but is simply a part of how things work. Therefore we are often unaware of this hidden aspect of culture until we are exposed to people with a different set of values, a different way of looking at the world and behaving in it. Even then, we often label the others' values and behaviour as strange, rather than become more aware of our own culture.

Note that culture is not necessarily related to a particular country. We often use a national label or the name of an ethnic group as a rough indicator of culture. But countries often include distinct subgroups, each with a different set of values and beliefs. Other kinds of groups also have cultures: different generations, genders, professions, religions, and organizations often have different set of values and assumptions about people and the world.

Also important to remember is that individuals *within* cultures are different. Patterns of values and behaviors characterize a particular culture, and most people within the culture either hold the values and follow the behaviors most of the time, or at least know what the expectations are.

However, no individual behaves consistently with his or her culture all of the time, and many individuals are quite different from the cultures in which they live. Just as we cannot know an individual's values simply by knowing what group the person comes from, we cannot predict the cultural values of a group just from knowing one or a few individuals.

Understanding culture is important for many aspects of management, both in single-country and multinational settings. People's cultural backgrounds influence their assumptions about organizational work and how interactions with other people should proceed. Culture's influence, though, is so profound that it often goes unseen. This results not only in deep and difficult conflicts, but also in untapped potential.

Cross- cultural models

Culture has been defined in many ways, among which is Prof. Geert Hofstede's definition who claims that: "Culture is the collective

programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one category of people from another” and that “Collective programming is the way a particular group of people or nationalities is trained from a very early age to internalize the behaviour and attitudes of the group”.

As globalization of companies from all regions of the world (not just the United States) has increased through a variety of expansion models (i.e., acquisition, joint venture, “greenfield” business development), the importance of understanding and incorporating the cross-cultural dimensions of different nations into the operating model and organization design has become absolutely essential. Given the depth of experience and empirical research that has been applied to this topic, companies expanding their global footprint into new and different geographies now have a choice of whether to “learn as you go” or “anticipate and orchestrate.” For those companies concerned with achieving their revenue and market share growth targets in the timeframes forecast in their business models, minimizing organization development cost, and minimizing human capital risk, the choice is in most cases clear.

Professor Geert Hofstede conducted one of the most comprehensive studies of how values in the workplace are influenced by culture. He analyzed a large database of employee value scores collected within IBM between 1967 and 1973. The data covered more than 70 countries, from which Hofstede first used the 40 countries with the largest groups of respondents and afterwards extended the analysis to 50 countries and 3 regions. Subsequent studies validating the earlier results include such respondent groups as commercial airline pilots and students in 23 countries, civil service managers in 14 countries, 'up-market' consumers in 15 countries and 'elites' in 19 countries.

The values that distinguished country cultures from each other could be statistically categorized into four groups. These four groups became the Hofstede dimensions of national culture : Power Distance Index (PDI), Individualism versus Collectivism (IDV), Masculinity versus Femininity (MAS), Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI).

A **fifth dimension** was added in 1991 based on research by Michael Harris Bond, supported by Hofstede, who conducted an additional international study among students with a survey instrument that was developed together with Chinese professors. That dimension, based on Confucian thinking, was called **Long-Term Orientation (LTO)** and was applied to 23 countries.

In 2010, research by **Michael Minkov** generated two dimensions using recent World Values Survey data from representative samples of national populations. One was a new dimension, and the second was more or less a replication of the fifth dimension. The number of country scores for the fifth dimension could now be extended to 93. On one hand, the fifth dimension of Bond and of Minkov correlate strongly, yet the constructs are not fully identical.

The same year (2010) a **sixth dimension** has been added, based on Michael Minkov's analysis of the World Values Survey data for 93 countries. This new dimension is called Indulgence versus Restraint (IND).

The six dimensions are:

Power Distance Index (PDI): This dimension expresses the degree to which the less powerful members of a society accept and expect that power is distributed unequally. The fundamental issue here is how a society handles inequalities among people. People in societies exhibiting a large degree of power distance accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a place and which needs no further justification. In societies with low power distance, people strive to equalize the distribution of power and demand justification for inequalities of power.

Individualism versus Collectivism (IDV): The high side of this dimension, called individualism, can be defined as a preference for a loosely-knit social framework in which individuals are expected to take care of only themselves and their immediate families. Its opposite, collectivism, represents a preference for a tightly-knit framework in society in which individuals can expect their relatives or members of a particular in-group to look after them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty. A

society's position on this dimension is reflected in whether people's self-image is defined in terms of "I" or "we."

Masculinity versus Femininity (MAS): The masculinity side of this dimension represents a preference in society for achievement, heroism, assertiveness and material rewards for success. Society at large is more competitive. Its opposite, femininity, stands for a preference for cooperation, modesty, caring for the weak and quality of life. Society at large is more consensus-oriented.

Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI): The uncertainty avoidance dimension expresses the degree to which the members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity. The fundamental issue here is how a society deals with the fact that the future can never be known: should we try to control the future or just let it happen? Countries exhibiting strong UAI maintain rigid codes of belief and behaviour and are intolerant of unorthodox behaviour and ideas. Weak UAI societies maintain a more relaxed attitude in which practice counts more than principles.

Pragmatic versus Normative (PRA): This dimension describes how people in the past, as well as today, relate to the fact that so much that happens around us cannot be explained.

In societies with a normative orientation most people have a strong desire to explain as much as possible. People in such societies have a strong concern with establishing the absolute Truth and a need for personal stability. They exhibit great respect for social conventions and traditions, a relatively small propensity to save for the future and a focus on achieving quick results.

In societies with a pragmatic orientation, most people don't have a need to explain everything, as they believe that it is impossible to understand fully the complexity of life. The challenge is not to know the truth but to live a virtuous life. In societies with a pragmatic orientation, people believe that truth depends very much on situation, context and time. They show an ability to accept contradictions, adapt according to the circumstances, a strong propensity to save and invest, thriftiness and perseverance in achieving results.

Indulgence versus Restraint (IND): Indulgence stands for a society that allows relatively free gratification of basic and natural human drives related to enjoying life and having fun. Restraint stands for a society that suppresses gratification of needs and regulates it by means of strict social norms.

The country scores on the dimensions are relative, as we are all human and simultaneously we are all unique. In other words, culture can be only used meaningfully by comparison.

These relative scores have been proven to be quite stable over time. The forces that cause cultures to shift tend to be global or continent-wide. This means that they affect many countries at the same time, so if their cultures shift, they shift together and their relative positions remain the same. Exceptions to this rule are failed states and societies in which the levels of wealth and education increase very rapidly, comparatively speaking. Yet, in such cases, the relative positions will also only change very slowly.

The country culture scores on The Hofstede Dimensions correlate with other data regarding the countries concerned. Power distance, for example, is correlated with income inequality, and individualism is correlated with national wealth. In addition, masculinity is related negatively with the percentage of national income spent on social security. Furthermore, uncertainty avoidance is associated with the legal obligation in developed countries for citizens to carry identity cards, and pragmatism is connected to school mathematics results in international comparisons.

Hofstede's researches are mainly based on Anthropology, however Business management and Business Administration can also be a starting point for the study of the term "culture".

In *When Cultures Collide: Leading Across Culture*, Richard. D. Lewis provides a global and practical guide to working and communicating across cultures, explaining how our own culture and language affect the ways in which we organize our world, think, feel and respond, before going

on to suggest both general and specific ways of making our influence felt across the cultural divide.

There are penetrating insights into how different business cultures accord status, structure their organizations and view the role of the leader, alongside invaluable advice on global negotiation, sales and marketing. The book ranges from differences in etiquette and body language to new thinking in the area of international management and team-building in Europe and the USA, as well as covering challenging new geographical ground in Russia, China and the Far East.

By focusing on the cultural roots of national behaviour, both in society and business, we can foresee and calculate with a surprising degree of accuracy how others will react and respond to us.

He suggests a broad model you can use to characterize different national characteristics as linear-active, multi-active, and reactive. These traits shape attitudes toward time, leadership, team building, and affect a range of organizational behaviors. Lewis includes brief national profiles you can refer to when doing business away from home. This in-depth book covers common patterns in different cultures, and offers many examples of how different groups act under different situations.

Lewis plots countries in relation to three categories:
Linear-actives - those who plan, schedule, organize, pursue action chains, and do one thing at a time. Germans and Swiss are in this group.

Multi-actives - those lively, loquacious peoples who do many things at once, planning their priorities not according to a time schedule, but according to the relative thrill or importance that each appointment brings with it. Italians, Latin Americans and Arabs are members of this group.

Reactives - those cultures that prioritize courtesy and respect, listening quietly and calmly to their interlocutors and reacting carefully to the other side's proposals. Chinese, Japanese and Finns are in this group.

Here's the chart that explains the world:

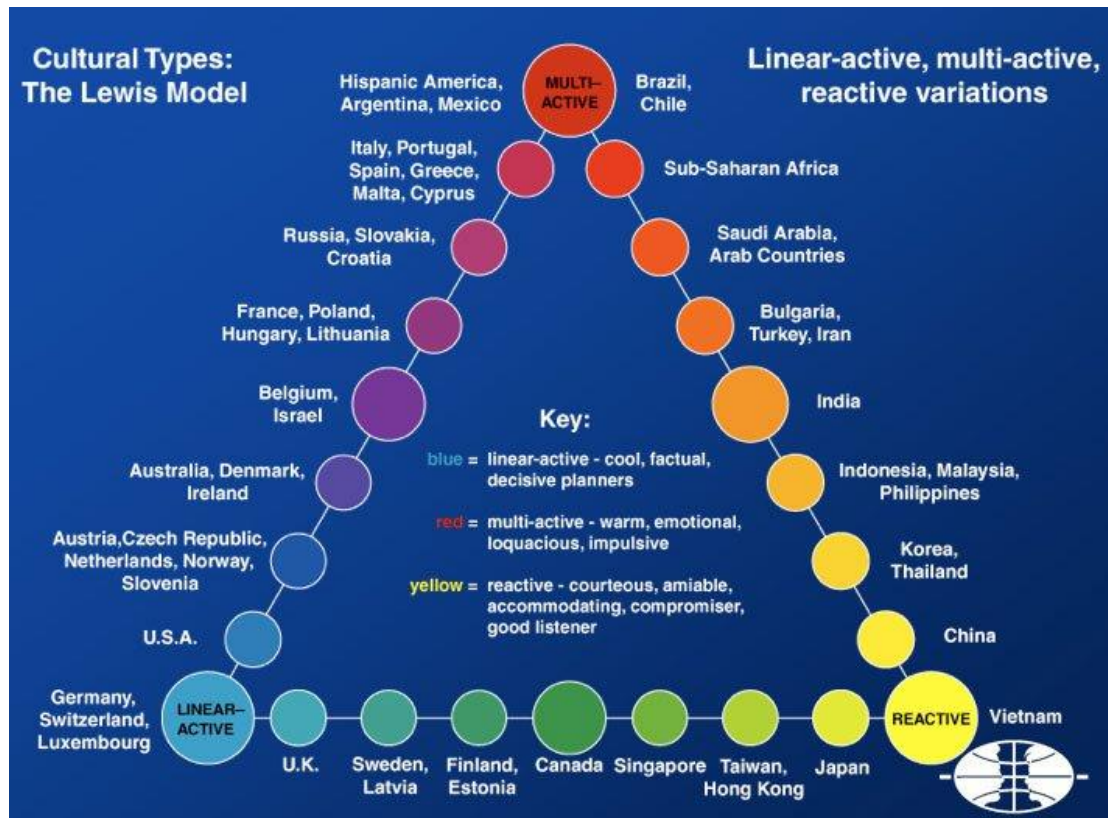


Table 1: The Lewis Model: Cultural Types

The point of all of this analysis is to understand how to interact with people from different cultures.

Some other very interesting researches could also be mentioned regarding the construction of cross-cultural models: the Universal Consensus Business Model of Intercultural Analysis (BMIA™), the GLOBE Framework for Assessing Cultures Description Begun in 1993, the Global Leadership & Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE), the Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's Seven Dimensions of Culture, the Denison Model, the Barrett Seven Levels of Consciousness Model, the Five Factor Model Description Facet 5, the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and the CW Model.

Knowledge and familiarity with the content of the various cross-cultural models is a good mentor for each manager.

Organizational culture and management

Managers must be able to understand the cultural particularities and differences and, more often than not, they must also be able to act in a globalized environment. Therefore it is very important to understand and recognize the complex factors that shape the structure of the organization in which they engage management. Organizational culture – the “personality” – of an organization that guides how employees think and act in the job – is central to the values, beliefs, interpersonal behaviors, and attitudes to stakeholders that determine how organization does its job. Culture is the key factor not only in achieving organizational goals, but in attracting and keeping desirable employees, creating a positive public image, and building respectful relationships with stakeholders.

The Hofstede’s organizational culture model recognizes certain principal dimensions:

Means-oriented vs. Goal-oriented:

The means-oriented versus goal-oriented dimension is, among the six dimensions, most closely connected with the effectiveness of the organization. In a means oriented culture the key feature is the way in which work has to be carried out; people identify with the “how”. In a goal-oriented culture employees are primarily out to achieve specific internal goals or results, even if these involve substantial risks; people identify with the “what”.

In a **very** means-oriented culture people perceive themselves as avoiding risks and making only a limited effort in their jobs, while each workday is pretty much the same. In a **very** goal-oriented culture, the employees are primarily out to achieve specific internal goals or results, even if these involve substantial risks.

Internally driven vs. externally driven:

In a **very** internally driven culture employees perceive their task towards the outside world as totally given, based on the idea that business ethics and honesty matters most and that they know best what is good for

the customer and the world at large. In a **very** externally driven culture the only emphasis is on meeting the customer's requirements; results are most important and a pragmatic rather than an ethical attitude prevails.

This dimension is distinguishable from means- versus goal-orientation because, in this case, it is not impersonal results that are at stake, but the satisfaction of the customer, client or commissioning party.

Easygoing work discipline vs. strict work discipline:

This dimension refers to the amount of internal structuring, control and discipline. A **very** easygoing culture reveals loose internal structure, a lack of predictability, and little control and discipline; there is a lot of improvisation and surprises. A **very** strict work discipline reveals the reverse. People are very cost-conscious, punctual and serious.

Local vs. Professional:

In a local company, employees identify with the boss and/or the unit in which one works. In a professional organization the identity of an employee is determined by his profession and/or the content of the job. In a **very** local culture, employees are very short-term directed, they are internally focused and there is strong social control to be like everybody else. In a **very** professional culture it is the reverse.

Open system vs. closed system:

This dimension relates to the accessibility of an organization. In a **very** open culture newcomers are made immediately welcome, one is open both to insiders and outsiders, and it is believed that almost anyone would fit in the organization. In a **very** closed organization it is the reverse.

Employee-oriented vs. Work-oriented:

This aspect of the culture is most related to the management philosophy per se. In **very** employee-oriented organizations, members of staff feel that personal problems are taken into account and that the organization takes responsibility for the welfare of its employees, even if

this is at the expense of the work. In **very** work-oriented organizations, there is heavy pressure to perform the task even if this is at the expense of employees.

Degree of acceptance of leadership style:

This dimension tells us to which degree the leadership style of respondents' direct boss is being in line with respondents' preferences. The fact that people, depending on the project they are working for, may have different bosses doesn't play a role at the level of culture. Culture measures central tendencies.

Degree of identification with your organization:

This dimension shows to which degree respondents identify with the organization in its totality. People are able to simultaneously identify with different aspects of a company. Thus, it is possible that employees identify at the same time strongly with the internal goals of the company, with the client, with one's own group and/or with one's direct boss and with the whole organization. It is also possible that employees don't feel strongly connected with any of these aspects.

In such a work environment, organizational culture helps managers decide the way they should conduct their work bearing always in mind the different cultures coexisting in the work place. "What managers do worldwide is about the same, but how they do it is different from culture to culture" (*Peter Drucker*)

Leadership decisions: Twenty one points for excellence in leadership

In the words of Peter F. Drucker "Management is doing things right; leadership is doing the right things."

We selected from the literature the main points for excellence in leadership:

1. Your more important tasks are: a) Determine the way forward b) Inspire the people working for you. Reserve enough time for these.

2. Organize the administration so that you only have to interfere in irregularities.
3. Shape the organization so that each issue has a responsible person and working groups are not needed.
4. Put matrices into a drawer. Create a simple chain of command and clear responsibilities.
5. Observe your new post for a month before you start making changes. But don't wait for longer than half of year.
6. If forced to make personnel cuts, start at the top. That's usually where overstaffing gathers.
7. If you cannot fire (e.g. in international organizations), place those assigned to you in posts where their weakness do the least harm and where their strengths pay off.
8. Don't ask for advice on things within your jurisdiction. Solve problems and report this to your superiors. "Don't bring me problems, bring me solutions"
9. Encourage your subordinates be critical before a solution is found. Demand absolute solidarity once the decision has been made.
10. Don't sit on decisions. Even a bad solution is better than a lengthy uncertainty.
11. Be yourself, upright, honest and sincere.
12. Example is power. You will be seen as an example, don't let your norms slip.
13. Give feedback, especially praise but also rebuke. Punish without mercy, if necessary.
14. Hold on to formal authority until you achieve true authority.
15. Delegate as much as possible. This inspires your subordinates and gives you more time for your core functions.
16. Bring up your most capable subordinates by systematically assigning them to different kinds of duties.
17. Carefully supervise that promotions and rewards are given to those who truly deserve them.

18. Long term plans should be no more than outlines. Scenarios are better as long as you remember that they are not forecasts.

19. Goals should be set high. This motivates those who are ready to meet challenges. They will pull the rest along.

20. Get your subordinates competing. This gets them moving. Rules must be clear and winners beyond dispute.

21. Break resistance to change: re-organize, move personnel, reward initiative, transfer brakemen, put reform in plain words.

REFERENCES

Geert Hofstede, *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*, Beverly Hills CA: Sage Publications, 1980.

Gert Jan Hofstede, Paul Pedersen, Geert Hofstede, *Exploring Culture: Exercises, Stories and Synthetic Cultures*, Intercultural Press, 2002.

Geert Hofstede, Gert Jan Hofstede, *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind*, 2nd Edition, McGraw-Hill USA, 2005.

Geert Hofstede, Gert Jan Hofstede, Michael Minkov, *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind*, 3rd Edition, McGraw-Hill USA, 2010.

Maureen Guirdham , *Communicating across Cultures at Work*, 2nd Edition, Palgrave Mcmillan

Richard D. Lewis (1997), *When Cultures Collide: Leading Across Cultures*, Nicholas Brealey International.

Richard D. Lewis (2012), *When Teams Collide*, Nicholas Brealey International.

David J. Pauleen, *Cross-cultural perspectives on knowledge management*, Libraries Unlimited, 2007

Charlene Solomon, Michael S. Schell, *Managing Across Cultures: The Seven Keys to Doing Business with a Global Mindset*, McGraw-Hill, 2009

Susan C. Schneider, Jean-Louis Barsoux, *Managing Across Cultures*, Pearson Education, 2003

Internet sources

<http://geert-hofstede.com/>

<http://www.geerthofstede.nl/>

<http://www.crossculture.com/>

<http://www.universalconsensus.com/bmia-framework/>

http://www.valuescentre.com/culture/?sec=barrett_model

<http://www.druckerinstitute.com/>

Footnotes

Geert Hofstede, *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*. Beverly Hills CA: Sage Publications, 1980.

<http://www.slideshare.net/UniversalConsensus/a-critical-analysis-of-mainstream-assessment-models-in-a-crosscultural-context>

<http://geert-hofstede.com/publications.html>

<http://www.crossculture.com/rlcintro.html>

<http://www.universalconsensus.com/bmia-framework/>

<http://www.studymode.com/essays/The-Globe-Framework-For-Assessing-Cultures-1583133.html>

<http://www.ccl.org/leadership/pdf/assessments/GlobeStudy.pdf>

<http://ridingthewavesofculture.com/>

<http://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/seven-dimensions.htm>

D. Denison, *Corporate culture and organizational effectiveness*. New York, Wiley, 1990.

http://www.valuescentre.com/culture/?sec=barrett_model

<http://www.facet5global.com/whatisfacet5.html>

<https://elemental-v.com/elemental/8/facet5.aspx>

<http://www.myersbriggs.org/>

Charlene Solomon, Michael S. Schell, *Managing Across Cultures: The Seven Keys to Doing Business with a Global Mindset*, McGraw-Hill, 2009

<http://geert-hofstede.com/organisational-culture-dimensions.html>
<http://www.druckerinstitute.com/peter-druckers-life-and-legacy/> ,
<http://www.druckerinstitute.com/>
<https://connect.savonia.fi/p7wa9s3re8o/?launcher=false&fcsContent=true&pbMode=normal>
http://dmkk.savonia.fi/Hannu/Savonia_videoita.html

THE EDUCATION OF SELECTED GROUPS OF PERSONS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS IN THE CONTEXT OF EU

Dr. Michal Ruzicka

Palacy University-Olomouc, Czech - m.ruzicka@email.cz

Dr. Jiri Kantor

Palacy University-Olomouc, Czech

Abstract

The objective of the article is to make the reader acquainted with the educational system in persons with behavioural impairment, with physical disability or illness in professional institutes in the Czech Republic. The first part of the text aims at describing individual institutes for persons with behavioural problems, and the second part presents the educational system for persons with physical disability and illness. The system of facilities for the monitored target group is rather extensive. Such facilities are regarded from various perspectives and points of view. The monitored institutes are divided in terms of the age of their clients, the scale of the problems, the services provided, etc. Also, the knowledge of valid legislation in the Czech Republic plays an important role.

Key words: education, behavioural problems, professional institutes, disabled students, illness.

INTRODUCTION

In this paper the network of institutional care for persons with behavioural problems and students with physical disability and illness in the Czech Republic is outlined. These specific populations are important target groups of special educational care. Two major branches of special education are focused on students of these groups – etopedics and somatopedics.

1 Facilities for persons with behavioural problems

Behavioural problems are recently recognised as a common and worldwide obstacle for successful participation in the school environment and for socialisation in most situations of daily life. The system and organization of the facilities for persons with behavioural problems in the Czech Republic shall be examined at various levels. Most of these persons are integrated and educated in ordinary schools. There are as well some specific institutions for persons with behavioural problems that are more challenging. We will start with classification of these institutions.

The first one is classification *according to age*:

- Facilities for children and youth
- Facilities for adults

Classification according to the needs of *children and youth* results in the following list:

- Facilities for children at psycho-social risks,
- Facilities for children with behavioural problems who were not ordered institutional education or protective education,
- Facilities for children under institutional and protective education,
- Facilities of subsequent care.

Within professional facilities for *adult persons*, we recognize the following:

- Facilities for people before, during or after execution of punishment,
- Facilities for people at risk of poverty,

- Facilities for people with addiction,
- Facilities for victims of criminal acts.

Monitoring of individual facilities from the point of view of their major activities is also important and we distinguish, among others:

- consulting facilities,
- educational facilities,
- re-socializing facilities,
- therapeutic facilities,
- low-threshold facilities,
- free-time facilities.

Further, the facilities can be divided by their primary governing body, relevant legislation and method of administration and financing. This classification is, however, not of key importance for the needs of this paper.

Further specification of facilities for children and youth

Children and youth with behavioural problems with institutional and protective education are educated in the following institutes:

- Diagnostic Institute,
- Children's Home,
- Children's Home with a School,
- Educational Institute.

1.1 Diagnostic Institute

According to the law, this facility accepts children based on the decision of the court on mandatory institutional education, children with interlocutory judgement ordered by the court, in exceptional instances also children based on parents' request and children on the run. A Diagnostic Institute has its defined jurisdiction – territory of operation - assigned by the Ministry. On the grounds of complex special-needs, psychological and social examination, children are further allocated to appropriate Children's Homes or Educational Institutes. In case of sending a child to alternative educational care, the Diagnostic Institute puts forward a proposal of an

individual education plan, the so-called “**personality development programme**”. The Diagnostic Institute also maintains records of all children allocated to, and under the responsibility of, other facilities and keeps track of vacancies in individual institutes. The institute itself is internally divided into workplaces of diagnostics, education, social work and detention. The fundamental organizational unit of a Diagnostic Institute is the educational group.

The key tasks of a Diagnostic Institute in compliance with the law are:

- child’s diagnostics – consists of examining a child by means of pedagogical, psychological and psychiatric tools;
- education – ascertaining the level of achieved knowledge and skills of a child, with respect to his/her age, and the individual prerequisites and capabilities, and defining the specific education needs;
- therapeutic activities – oriented towards remedying disorders in social relationships and in the behaviour of a child;
- organizational activities – allocating children, cooperating with the body of socio-legal protection of children;
- educational and social activities – relating to the child’s personality, his/her family situation and socio-legal protection;
- coordinating activities – unifying the processes of other facilities within the territory of the Diagnostic Institute, synergy with state administration bodies and other persons involved in children’s care.

(paragraph two, article 5 Act No. 109/2002 of Coll.)

Practical Example

Boy (14 years). His family is under the supervision of a body of socio-legal protection of children. In the past, the parents have not been able to ensure proper upbringing for their children. For this reason, both older siblings of the boy were ordered institutional education and placed in a Children’s Home. The boy often runs away from home, has a high number of not-accounted-for absences from school. Several times, he was investigated for minor thefts. The boy ended up in a Diagnostic Institute (DI), initially as a preliminary measure. During his stay in DI, the boy is

ordered to undergo institutional education. The primary task of the DI is to decide whether he will be placed in a Children's Home with his siblings or to a Children's Home with School. In favour of placing him in a Children's Home is the presence of his siblings, but his aggressive behaviour plays against it. The following decision of the DI depends on a complex set of diagnostics consisting of: reports of a psychologist, special-needs teacher – ethopedics, and reports of the educational group and of the teachers. Consequent to a team discussion, it is decided that the episodes of the boy's behaviour are severe to such a degree that they do not allow for his stay in a Children's Home.

1.2 Children's Home

A Children's Home is a co-ed facility, which accepts physically and mentally healthy children without major behavioural disorders and children who were ordered institutional education by the court. The Home fulfils, above all, the tasks of upbringing, education and social relations. In Children's Homes, it is allowed to establish minimum 2 and maximum 6 family groups. The basic organizational unit is a co-ed family group of children of usually various ages and sexes. One family group houses between 6 and 8 children. A suitable Home for a child is selected in consideration of the distance to a pre-school, standard or special school, training or secondary school (depending on the age of the child). The stay of a child terminates with reaching maturity or at the age of 19 in case of official prolongation of the institutional education. Based on agreement between the adult client and Home, the departure may be postponed up to the age of 26 years under the condition of continual preparation for future profession.

Practical Example

Two siblings (boy -7 years, girl - 12 years). Parents neglect their upbringing. Both parents are strongly addicted to alcohol. Based on children's testimonies, parents come home late at night, sometimes they bring their friends. As they live in a one-room flat, children cannot sleep. That is why they often fail to attend school. Thanks to intervention by an

employee of a body of socio-legal protection of children, the siblings were sent to a Diagnostic Institute. During their stay there, the court was considering institutional education. The court decided, among others, on the grounds of testimonies by the children, their parents, OSPOD (body of socio-legal protection of children) employees, psychological examination, the report of the DI and the report of an authorized expert in psychology. Based on the assembled materials, the court imposed institutional education on both children. Consequently, they were both placed in a Children's Home.

1.3 Children's Home with a School

This labelling replaced the former Children's Educational Institute. According to § 13 of Act No. 109/2002 of Coll., the purpose of a Children's Home with a School is to provide care to children on whom institutional education was imposed in case they have severe behavioural disorders or in case they require educational-therapeutic care due to their temporary or lasting mental disorders. Also, such Homes care for children with ordered protective education or for mothers who have severe behavioural disorders or who, due to their temporary or lasting mental disorder, require educational-therapeutic care for their children. These children are educated in a school, which is part of the Children's Home. Children placed in these facilities are usually between 6 years of age and the end of obligatory school attendance. In case that during the obligatory school attendance the reasons for placing the child in a school at a Children's Home with a School lapse, the child can be, based on a referral of the Home's headmaster, relocated to a standard school outside the Children's Home. The basic organizational unit of such a Home is a family group of minimum 5 and maximum 8 children. In case that a child cannot, after termination of school attendance, be educated at a secondary school outside the facility due to continuing severe behavioural disorders and does not conclude an employment contract, the child is then allocated to an Educational Institute.

1.4 Educational Institute

Institutional education of children between 15 and 18 years with severe behavioural disorders or with imposed protective education is provided by Educational Institutes, which are established separately for children with imposed institutional care or protective care, or also for under-age mothers with imposed institutional care or protective care and their children or for children requiring educational-therapeutic care. Based on Act No. 109/2002 of Coll., a child above 12 years of age can also be placed in an Educational Institute in case of imposed protective care where his/her behaviour shows such significant problems that the child cannot be placed in a Children's Home with School. The core activity of the Educational Institute is preparation for future profession. Such facility is provided with primary or special school, in certain cases a secondary school can be established as well.

Practical Example

Boy (16 years). The boy has been located to a Children's Home since the age of 6 years. Approximately since the age of 12, he has been showing certain occasional aggression towards other children. After terminating primary school, he entered a training school where his behavioural problems began to escalate and the school sent several complaints. Within the Children's Home, the boy became an aggressor and initiator of bullying. For these reasons and with the purpose of diagnosing his problems, the boy was sent to a Diagnostic Institute (such a stay was supposed to have preventive-exemplary character). After examination, the boy was sent back to the Children's Home; his behaviour, however, did not improve. After repeated diagnostics, he was allocated to an Educational Institute.

1.5 Further specification of facilities for adults

This paper does not have the capacity to introduce all facilities for adults, which are enumerated in the first part of the text. That is why we only decided for Halfway Houses and After-treatment Programmes. The reason for our selection is that the below-stated research was conducted in

these facilities and also the fact that their clients are, in most cases, former clients of facilities for children and youth.

Facility of subsequent care – after-treatment programmes

Subsequent care or after-treatment programmes follow treatment of various addictions in mental hospital, therapeutic community or a specialised department in a prison. The clients of these programmes are often persons with disturbed psycho-social development. They are frequently people who underwent institutional education, people with criminal history, problems with aggression or with personality disorders where withdrawal from one's addictive substance discloses therapeutic potential and the true cause of the addictive behaviour. The purpose of such subsequent care is to maintain the changes that were facilitated in a client during the treatment or, in some instances, spontaneously or after previous interventions. (Kalina, 2003)

In the recent 10 to 15 years, subsequent care has been provided by after-treatment centres that offer a wide portfolio of services. Based on the concept of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, subsequent care is, from the point of view of the overall effectiveness of addiction treatment, one of the most significant factors. In European countries, the transition of a client from treatment to subsequent care is regarded as the crucial moment of the entire therapy. This experience is identical with the practical providers of services for non-alcohol drugs operating in the Czech Republic. Ensuring sufficient capacity in the programmes of subsequent care in order to comply with the specific needs of clients and to logically enclose the chain of existing services is thus absolutely essential.

When handing over clients to programmes of subsequent care, continuity of the therapeutic effect should not be interrupted or disrupted and that is why it is highly desirable that the subsequent treatment centres communicate well and efficiently with the programmes and institutes from which they accept their clients. In an ideal case, a client should have the chance to contact the selected programme of subsequent care even before terminating the primary treatment. Likewise, the subsequent care team

should be informed on the basic principles of the treatment programme which their future client underwent. A momentous aspect of the entire treatment process is then the recessing intensity of the client's support within subsequent care. In this way, a client has the chance to fully assume responsibility for his/her own life. What often happens in real life is that individual communities and mental hospitals inform their clients on the principles of after-treatment already in the course of the treatment and further on, they cooperate, on long-term basis, with the after-treatment centres.

Practical Example

Woman (24 years), addicted to Methamphetamine (Pervitin). She began to use Pervitin when she was 16 years old. At the age of 18, after a series of ineffective interventions on the part of her parents, she was deprived of a permanent address and started sharing a flat with other drug-addicts. At that time, she was in touch with street-workers from the K-centre and used them for changing the needles. At 20, the addiction culminated in health problems resulting in an attack of toxic psychosis. The woman was given a contact to a detoxification unit where she stayed for approximately two months. She was also given a contact to an ambulatory consultancy centre, which she occasionally visited. After some three months, she went back to Pervitin with renewed addiction leading to another hospitalization in a detoxification unit. Following the intervention of a psychologist, the woman understood the severity of her addiction and placed her application for enrolment in a therapeutic community where she stayed for almost a year. After this period of time, she was released. Because she had nowhere to go, she stayed overnight with her "good old friends", which lead to triggering her desire for drugs and resulted in yet another relapse and repetition of the treatment in the community. Only then the woman understood the impossibility of returning to her former place of living and applied for a place in an after-treatment centre in a different town where she intends to start a new life.

2 Education system for pupils with physical disability and illness

The education takes place in a certain context and is affected by many variable factors. The most important ones can be called factors affecting the education process. It concerns the following factors:

- the surrounding environment (e.g. weather conditions),
- the institution, its architectural conditions and material equipment,
- the organizational conditions of the education,
- the teacher, the pupil and the social environment (compare Kollárová, 2006, Kábele et al., 1992).

The following text does not provide sufficient space for analysing the specifics of the education of individuals with limited motor skills according to the factors stated above. For this reason, we will focus at least on the description of the most important aspects of the education in institutions falling under the department of education.

2.1 Special schools for pupils with physical disability

Schools for pupils with physical disability are operated under ordinary climatic conditions. In terms of the inner and outer environment, it is important that they are **barrierfree**. The positive feature is as good accessibility for cars as possible, small height difference in the nearest surrounding of the school, availability of the traffic infrastructure, etc. In terms of the architectural layout of the school, it is essential that it has lifts or at least platforms, accessibility of individual constructional elements (washbasins, benches, and toilets), (light) switches, higher requirements for the sizes of classrooms, halls, dressing rooms, etc.

The sufficient **equipping with compensation aids** should also belong to standard requirements for special schools. It concerns, for example, aids for transfers (turning disc, electric hoist, easybelt – the so-called “prolonged arms”, board for transfers, chairs with a detachable armrest, etc.), aids for the positioning (positioning bed, various pillows, wedges, cylinders), computer aids (e.g. adapted keyboards, switchers, trackballs, but also various software programs for controlling a computer), selfserving aids (e.g. special shapeable cutlery, plates with raised edges), or

graphomotor activities (e.g. various types of ergonomic lugs for writing utensils, antislip mats or magnetic rulers). Aids for the locomotion and healthcare aids are usually personal, for example, an orthopedic wheelchair, French crooks, walkers, a verticalization stand, etc. (Jonášková, in Müller, 2005). For little children (in kindergartens), we are more likely to see rehabilitation prams, creepers, etc. In a classroom, universal ARIS seats or sack trucks may be useful.

Interdisciplinary care is another specific feature of the educational system for pupils with physical disability. In a special schools for pupils with physical disability, there are usually *rehabilitation departments* where physiotherapists work (in some cases, ergotherapy or physical therapy, for example, water therapy or electrotherapy, is also available). Many pupils attend the rehabilitation during classes, and the opening hours of the rehabilitation department are adapted to avoid pupils' absence from the most important subjects. Physiotherapy can replace physical education lessons.

Speech and language pathology is another professional service. Many schools also offer specialized therapies, for example, music therapy, canistherapy, artetherapy, etc. These therapies are implemented in the form of groups as separate subjects (for example, within available hourly subsidies), or additional services outside the education programme. We can also see the offer of hipotherapy or rehabilitation swimming which, however, is usually included in the education for organisational reasons. Framework educational programmes (FEP) enable the creation of new subjects tailored to pupils' needs and their inclusion in the education or the connection of subjects into logical complexes. In pupils with physical disability, the subject communication skills used to be taught at elementary schools, the content of which was to support pupils in various subjects (in particular, the Czech language), but also in the area of communication and writing (Vítková, 2006).

Individual educational plans also determine the **content and goals of the education**. For pupils with physical disability movement regime must respect the shorter time until tired and the need for positioning pupils

during lessons. In pupils with a severe physical degree of central paralyses, it is necessary to equip an orthopaedic wheelchair or the positioning equipment with various fixation belts, rests, braces for sitting, etc.

Classes for pupils with physical disability have a reduced number of pupils. In the classes where pupils' schoolwork is the same, the ordinary frontal method of teaching can be applied. In other cases, it is necessary to individualize the teaching because in the classrooms, there can be pupils of various grades and education programmes at the same time. In some subjects, the teacher must work with a pupil individually, use his assistant, have independent work or an activity prepared for the other pupils he cannot pay attention to at the given moment, etc., (Bigge, Best, Heller, 2010).

In particular, disabilities in the area of communication, mobility and disorders of mental functions are essential obstacles in the education of pupils. A teacher must find a suitable mode of **communication with a pupil** who cannot communicate verbally. In particular, examining these pupils is difficult because the teacher must discover the level of pupil's knowledge by means of limited communication means. Oral examination (by means of questions with closed answers, an offer of several possible answers) or examining through a computer can serve as possible alternatives.

In many pupils with physical disability, **written expression** is hardly implementable. In particular, severe physical impairment (quadriplegia or leg amputation) can disable the written expression and implementation of various activities through the arms completely. In such case, the practicing of compensational mechanisms follows, such as the writing and the pursuance of selfserving activities using the mouth or legs in pupils with the amputated arms, the use of computer technology with various adaptations of switchers, keyboards, mice, trackballs, etc. in pupils with quadriplegia, etc. In case of severe spasticity, the possibilities of re-education and compensation of functions of the arms are considerably limited. The pupil is dependent on the educator's assistant's or his personal assistant's help. To record teacher's comments, it is possible to use a

recorder (e.g. Dictaphone, MP3 player) or worksheets with important information prepared in advance.

The disorders of mental functions include not only mental retardation having substantial influence on the pupil's educational possibilities and potential (pupils with combined physical and mental impairment are educated according to framework educational programmes (FEPs) for practical elementary schools, FEPs for special elementary schools, and FEPs for the respective types of secondary schools). The neurological disorders include attention disorders, memory disorders, and specific learning disorders.

Individual education plans (prepared by teachers, social workers, and parents) are drawn up for many pupils with physical disability. IEPs are usually created only for pupils who cannot fulfil the education outputs required in any of the subjects taught due to their impairment. They can include modification/reduction of schoolwork, an organizational framework of the education, the use of various didactic and compensation aids, the methods of teaching, the methods of examining, and the methods of checking knowledge and communication, the use of other supporting education measures, for example, an educator's assistant, etc. It is an ordinary feature at these schools that even pupils without individual education plans have their own education and development plans in some form (can be called, for example, stimulation plans, education plans, pupils' development plans, etc.) These plans may include similar data indicating the specifications of the education in specific pupils. Any other documentation is not compulsory and serves for teacher's personal needs.

2.2 Schools in Hospitals

Schools in hospitals are established in hospitals. Special educators commonly work with patients in the children wards. In a hospital, we distinguish between acute care (within 30 days) and followup care (more than 30 days), according to the number of beds, we distinguish among small hospitals, the so-called district hospitals (up to 700 beds), and large hospitals, the so-called teaching hospitals (more than 700 beds), or

according to the type of ownership, we distinguish between state and nonstate hospitals (public and private). Hospitals are divided into individual clinics and wards, and a school in a healthcare facility commonly serves to patients in children wards.

In terms of the education, the Charter of Rights of Children in Hospitals, which was approved at the 1st European conference on hospitalized children in May 1988 (Czech Committee for UNICEF), is a significant legislative document. The significance of special educator's work at schools in hospitals does not consist just in the education itself. During hospitalization, some of the child's psychosocial needs are abandoned and there is risk of deprivation and disruption of the child's development. A child meets pain, anxiety and fear in an increased extent. The special educator's goal is to distract the attention from pain and facilitate the adaptation and course of the child's stay in a healthcare facility. In many cases, own education goals stand aside the goals directly connected with the patient's physical and psychological state. At present, a large percentage of preschool children are admitted for hospitalization with their statutory representatives (mother, father, and grandparents), which has a positive impact on their psychological state.

Education in hospitals takes place either in rooms by the bed or in the play room or in any other designated room. A special educator must fully respect the regime of the hospital facility, movement and other limitations arising from the patient's health condition and medical programme, including the presence of other individuals and including various medical technologies. Pupils in hospitals are educated according to the respective framework education programmes (that is, FEPs for preschool and elementary education). At elementary schools in hospitals, one main subject (Czech language, math, foreign language) and up to two additional subjects are taught every day according to the schedule. On the first level, it is the primary science education, biology, and geography; on the second level, it is history, physics, chemistry, biology, geography, civil education, and health education. The length of lessons is adjusted to the

child's current health and psychological state and is consulted with the child's physician.

Educational process in hospitals has common **organisation specifics**. If a pupil has been educated for more than 10 teaching days, a record of the teaching results is sent to the original school where the pupil is evaluated verbally or through grades or, possibly, the reason why the pupil cannot be evaluated is stated. If a pupil has been hospitalized for more than 3 months or is hospitalized repeatedly, the original school is sent a proposal for the evaluation. Since the evaluation is always completely individual, both the grades and verbal evaluation are used on the first and second levels.

Elements of **play therapy** are usually included in the entire education process and their goal is as follows:

- Preparation on arrival at a hospital.
- Preparation before interventions and examinations.
- Work with a child after an intervention.
- Preventive programme (Valenta et al., 2001).

Good communication in the ward, the feeling of safety, and contact with the family and people around are also important. They can be supported by using information and communication technologies. Educators also make use of the elements of artetherapy, music therapy, bibliotherapy, and drama therapy in their work. Some schools also include some forms of animotherapy – for example, hipotherapy, felinotherapy, canistherapy. These activities make the children's stay in hospital more pleasant.

Parts of an elementary school in a hospital are usually **school groups and clubs**. They are connected with schoolwork and develop the children patients' interests. Alongside the preparation for education, relaxation, recreational, interest, or any other activities are also implemented.

2.3 Schools in Sanatoriums and Convalescent Homes

Schools in sanatoriums and convalescent houses are usually placed in a specific natural environment (based on the specific type of a

sanatorium or a convalescent house). **Sanatoriums** are divided, based on the age, into children's sanatoria and sanatoria for adults, or, based on the indication, into sanatoria for respiratory illnesses, cardiovascular illnesses, etc. Under Decree No. 242 of the Ministry of Health, professional sanatoria include spa houses (spas) and rehabilitation institutes intended primarily for handicapped patients (commonly after an injury).

Convalescent houses are divided, according to the climatic conditions, into lowland, submountain, and mountainous (also called highmountain). Lowland and submountain convalescence houses are intended for repeated inflammations of the respiratory ways, general convalescence (after an acute illness or surgery), or for children at risk of obesity. Mountain convalescent houses are intended for recurrent illnesses which can be positively influenced by the mountain weather, general convalescence (after severe or longterm injury), and for children with anaemia.

The education process in kindergartens and elementary schools in children's sanatoria and convalescent houses originate from the same legal standards applicable to elementary education and the education of pupils with special education needs in kindergartens and elementary schools in hospitals. The goal of a school is to maintain continuity of the education process.

Elementary schools in children's sanatoria are subordinated to the education programmes of a wide range of standard schools and the teaching in such institutions is significantly individualized. Pupils are taught in the reduced extent of 1017 hours per week depending on the grade and the medical regime. All subjects except for music, work and physical education, are taught (Vítková, 2006). At the end of their stay, pupils sit for exams in individual subjects, and the availed grades along with a brief evaluation and a report on the schoolwork are sent to the respective school. A part of the schools is also a school group offering children interesting relaxation, and drawing and cultural activities.

Kindergartens and elementary schools in the sanatoria and convalescent houses cooperate with the parents (interviews when

registering the children and when they leave for convalescent trips, during a convalescent trip by phone and email) and the original schools (entry questionnaires, feedbacks from the original school, pupil's personal records, by phone, by email).

2.4 Integration of pupils with physical disability and with Chronic Illness into the Standard School

In some respects, the education of a pupil integrated into a standard school is similar to the work in a school for pupils with physical disability. For this reason, we will focus on some differences.

Before the integration is implemented, it is necessary to prepare the prospective classmates, the class teacher, and also the teachers and pupils in other classes for the arrival of the pupil with physical disability or with chronic illness. **Pupil's and teachers' attitudes** significantly affect success of the integration. Acceptance in the class team is important for every pupil's psychological wellbeing. Thus, it is worth spending time on preparing the classmates, their parents, and the teachers who will teach in the respective class. The cooperation amongst the pupil's parents, the class teacher, the head teacher, and the consultant from a special education centre is crucial in this respect.

A standard class group may react negatively, in particular, to the pupil's problems with communication and the aspect of an aesthetic disability. Any disability, whether pursuant to a physical disability or an illness, is still looked upon with varying prejudice on the part of the public (e.g. that a individual with physical disability is mentally retarded at the same time). Invisible disability may instil the forming of psychological barriers between the pupil and his/her surroundings. Pupils with physical disability or pupils with a chronic disease are more likely to become the victims of bullying and inappropriate reactions on the part of the people around them. In any case, social integration of a pupil is a very difficult task and it can be expected that problems will deepen as the pupil grows older, especially when puberty sets in.

Similar to the schools for pupils with physical disability, the integration process also demands creating a **barrierfree environment**. However, the practical application may prove to be an ordeal in many cases since not all schools are equipped with lifts. Thus, to overcome architectural barriers, ramps, stair platforms, or stair climbers are used.

Ramps are stable and of the folding type (the so-called access skids), and serve to overcome the height difference. A ramp is equipped with a handle on both sides (safe overlap of at least 40 cm) and has the antislip feature. The installation of a **platform** (vertical or skew) is cheaper and more space-effective than the installation of a lift. Where none of these solutions is possible, the stair climber (also called scalamobile) can be used.

We have already introduced the individual education measures stated in Decree No. 147/2011 Coll. of the Ministry of Education, Youths and Sports. All these supporting measures can play an important role in the education of an integrated pupil with a physical disability or an illness. It is important to note that individual measures are used only to the extent to which they help develop a pupil and do not handicap him/her. The current experience shows that, for example, an **educator's assistant** or a **personal assistant** tends to do work for pupils with physical disability even in cases when it is not necessary. By doing so, they support their weakness and reduce these pupils' possibilities to learn. It applies both in the area of the socialization and care for oneself, and in the area of school performance.

Standard schools do not usually have enough **compensation and rehabilitation aids** that the pupils with physical disability need. In this respect, they are usually dependent on the help of special education centres (SECs) and other consulting workplaces. The same applies to **special didactic materials** a pupil can use as supplements to his/her lessons.

The role of SECs is, in particular, to provide help in the area of **diagnostic and consultancy services**. An SEC's worker should professionally lead the teachers in their work with an integrated pupil with a physical disability or an illness.

At the same time, he/she significantly participates in creating an **individual education plan** that belongs among the compulsory pedagogical documentation in integrated pupils. An IEP should include information on the use of special aids, methods and the forms of teaching, including any changes to the organizing of the teaching (e.g. reduced schoolwork). **Special education care subjects** usually relate to areas that are important to a pupil and in which a pupil needs more support than that which can be provided during the teaching. It can be the development of motor skills, graphomotor activity, the practicing of using compensation aids, communication, etc.

2.5 Education within social services institutions and healthcare system

It concerns, in particular, the institutions falling under the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, for example, homes for the healthimpaired, day care centres, education within the early care services, various requalification courses, etc. The spectrum of institutions is so wide and heterogeneous that it is not possible to describe the nature of the education process in just a few paragraphs. Education, in any form, should always be governed by the specifics of the respective environment and by the needs of the individuals subject to the education process.

REFERENCES

Bigge, J. Best, J., S. Heller, K., W. (2010) Teaching Individuals with Physical or Multiple Disabilities. New York: Macmillan Publishing Copany.

Hutyrová, M., Růžička, M..(2013) Follow-up care for adolescents and young adults with risk behaviours. Seville: ICERI2013 Proceedings.

Jonášková, V. (2001) Dítě s poruchou mobility. In Müller, O. et al. Dítě se speciálními vzdělávacími potřebami v běžné škole. Olomouc: UP.

Kábele, F. et al. (1992) Somatopedie. Praha: Karolinum.

Kalina, K.. A kol. (2003) Drogy a drogové závislosti 2 : Mezioborový přístup. Praha: Úřad vlády ČR.

Kollárová, E. (1993) Základy somatopédie. Bratislava: Pedagogická fakulta Univerzity Komenského.

Kozorovitskiy Y, (2006) Hughes M, Lee K, Gould E. Fatherhood affects dendritic spines and vasopressin V1a receptors in the primate prefrontal cortex. Nat Neurosci. Harvard, FAS Society of Fellows. USA.

Opavova, K. (2013) Možnosti a formy podpory pro dlouhodobě abstinující alkoholiky Olomouc: Univerzita Palackého. Ústav speciálně pedagogických studií Pedagogická fakulta.

Polinek, M. (2012) Inclusive basic art education and its expressive/formative potential for the pupil's development with special educational needs. In Journal of exceptional people. Olomouc, UPOL. Czech Republic.

Vágnerová, M. – Hajd Moussová, Z. (1992) Psychologie handicapu. Liberec: Technická Univerzita.

Vítková, M. (2006) Somatopedické aspekty. Brno: Paido.

UNDERSTANDING, RESPECT AND APPRECIATION OF DIVERSITY IN THE CONTEXT OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

Dr. Jiri Kantor

Palacy University- Olomouc, Czech -
jirik.kantor@centrum.cz

Dr. Michal Ruzicka

Palacy University- Olomouc, Czech

This chapter was supported by the project „The Research of the Quality of Life of Selected Groups of Persons with Special Needs (IGA_PdF_2014008)“.

Abstract

The objective of the chapter is to investigate the topic of social and cultural diversity of people with severe multiple disability and their education. In the first part of the paper the educational system for these students and the specifics of this system in the Czech Republic are described. Three practical examples are presented from researches carried out at the Institute of Special Education Studies (Palacky University in

Olomouc, Czech Republic). In the second part of the paper the theoretical background based on the scriptures of Bahá'u'lláh and the documents of the Bahá'í International Community is introduced. The process of understanding and appreciating the diversity is investigated on the basis of a principle known as the learning mode. This principle is applied also in the area of inclusive education. The possibilities of developing partnerships and appreciating the role of people with severe multiple disabilities in the society are discussed in the context of social and cultural diversity. Some possibilities of overcoming practical problems are offered and applications to other groups of people with cultural diversity are suggested.

Key words: inclusive education, multiple disability, social and cultural diversity, virtues, Bahá'í writings.

Abstrakt

Tato kapitola se zabývá tématem sociální a kulturní odlišnosti osob s těžkým kombinovaným postižením a jejich vzděláváním. V první části příspěvku je představen vzdělávací systém pro tyto žáky a jeho specifika v České republice. Jsou prezentovány tři praktické příklady z výzkumů provedených na Ústavu speciálněpedagogických studií na Univerzitě Palackého v Olomouci. V druhé části kapitoly jsou nastíněna teoretická východiska na základě myšlenek ze spisů Bahá'u'lláha a dokumentů Mezinárodního bahá'í společenství. Proces porozumění a ocenění odlišnosti je prozkoumán na základě principu, který je v těchto dokumentech znám jako stav učení se. Tento princip je zde aplikován také do oblasti inkluzivního vzdělávání. Možnosti rozvoje partnerského vztahu a ocenění role osob s těžkým kombinovaným postižením ve společnosti je diskutován na základě sociální a kulturní jinakosti. Jsou zde nabídnuty možnosti překlenutí některých praktických problémů a aplikace na další skupiny osob s kulturní odlišností.

Introduction

Multicultural education focuses on various social and cultural minorities. In every society we can find people with special educational needs. Also this minority is considered to have its own social and cultural specifics that are connected to communication, interaction, activities, humour, aesthetic perception, education and other areas (Kolářová et al., 2013). This chapter deals with people with severe multiple disabilities and their educational issues from the perspective of inclusive and multicultural education.

Education of students with severe multiple disabilities is an important part of special education. There is a dual system of education of students with special needs in the Czech Republic – special education system is used mainly for students with severe physical and multiple disabilities, disorders of autistic spectrum and severe intellectual disabilities. Integration into the standard schools is typical for most students with illness, physically disabled students, students with hearing or visual impairment, etc. (Jeřábková et al., 2014) In many foreign countries in the European Union the trend of total inclusion of all students with special needs is considered as a natural way of education and the right for education in the standard school system is embodied in the legislation. However, the inclusion of people with severe multiple disabilities into the major society is a challenging ethical question and is addressed further in this article. We will reflect on the problems concerning the cultural and social differences using the example of people with severe multiple disability. Then we will show implications of several principles in the area of multicultural education. At first, some basic facts about the education of students with severe multiple disabilities in the Czech Republic must be introduced.

1 Education of students with severe multiple disabilities in the Czech Republic

The education of persons with multiple disabilities takes place in a certain context and is affected by many different factors. The social factors

are the most important ones affecting the education process. The following text does not provide sufficient space for analysing the specifics of the education of individuals with multiple disabilities. For this reason, we will focus at least on the description of basic conditions about their education in special schools.

These students can be educated in the Czech schools from the age of 3 years. After attending the kindergarten the student with severe multiple disability may choose to continue in a special school for another 10 years. Students without severe intellectual disability have better educational opportunities in the Czech Republic. Compared to many European countries the Czech educational system for students with multiple disabilities is not as well organised and developed due to lack of sufficient educational opportunities (especially for young people and adults with multiple disability).

1.1 Common characteristics of the special schools

Here are examples of some formal differences in education of students with severe multiple disabilities:

- In terms of the inner and outer environment, it is important that the schools are barrier-free with good access for cars, availability of the traffic infrastructure, etc. The sufficient equipping with compensation aids and various didactic materials should also be a part of standard requirements for special schools. It concerns, specifically, aids for transfers, locomotion, aids for the positioning, computer aids, self-care aids or equipment for graphomotor activities (Langer et al., 2014).

- Interdisciplinary care is another specific feature of the educational system for students with multiple disabilities (Kantor, 2014). There are usually rehabilitation departments where physiotherapists work (in some cases, occupational or physical therapy, for example, water therapy or electrotherapy, is also available). Speech and language therapy is another professional service. Many schools also offer specialized services, for example, music therapy, canistherapy, art therapy, etc.

- The content of education is individualised according to the framework educational programme for special elementary schools. The basic goals of education are set. Individual educational plans also determine the content and goals of the education. The educational needs of the students with severe multiple disabilities are discussed in the first example.

- Classes for students with multiple disabilities have specific organisational structure including a reduced number of students (6 students is the maximum number). Combinations of different forms – individual, individualised teaching and group work are used. The lessons are divided according to the needs of the students. In these classrooms it is important to individualise the teaching and to use various educational forms and methods (Bigge, Best, Heller, 2010).

- Suitable means of communication is another important requirement. In particular, evaluating these students is a difficult process because the teacher must discover the level of student's knowledge while overcoming limited communication means (Regec, Stejskalová et al., 2012). Alternative communication strategies and other methods are developed and utilised.

Besides these formal differences from standard education there are also some unique features worthy of mention. We will present three examples to show that social issues are of the highest importance in the educational process of students with severe multiple disabilities.

1.2 The educational needs of students

The goals of education of students with multiple disabilities are mostly connected to the quality of life, to the emotional and social needs of students. In our research (Kantor, Ludíková, 2014) we identified basic areas of educational needs of these students:

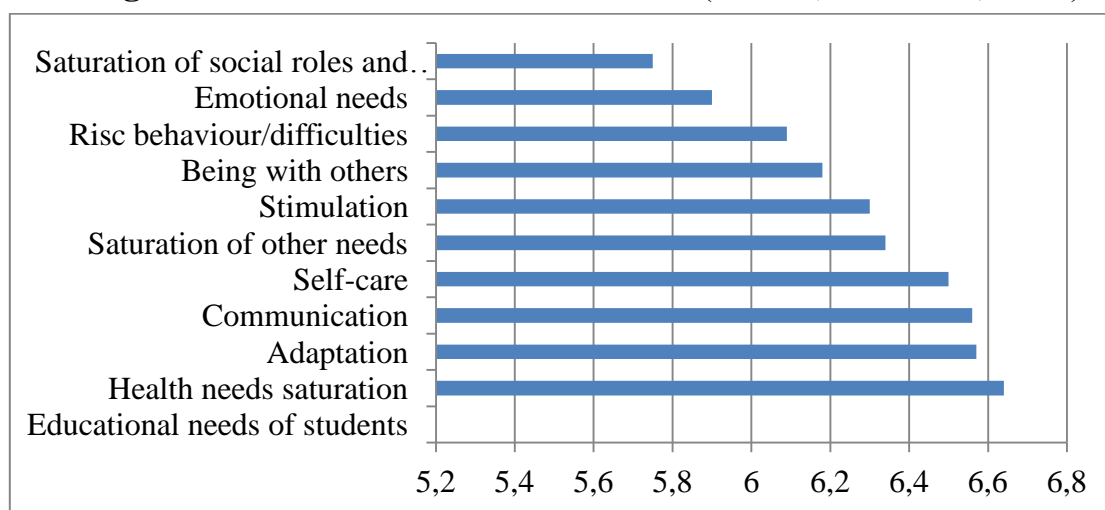
- Adaptation – concerns the adaptation of a student to the classroom environment, classmates, teacher and teaching structure at the beginning of school attendance and after major personnel changes in a class during the school year.

- Interaction – concerns various interaction situations, facilitators of these situations and long-term development of the teacher-student relationship.
- Saturation of basic physical and psychosocial needs – especially the need for stable and secure environment, safe and loving interaction with other people, respect and appreciation.
- Emotional needs – feeling joy and life satisfaction is understood as an important determinant of life quality by teachers. They think that is an important area of education.
- Diagnostics and evaluation – discovering the educational and personality potential of the student and understanding of the personality of the student are the outcomes of special education intervention, as well as long-term relationship with the teacher.
- Self-care – this relates to learning various methods of care for oneself and the environment (in the context of occupational therapy these activities are identified as daily life activities).
- Cognitive development – different cognitive abilities and skills, ability to orientate and understand the surrounding environment.
- Aesthetic saturation – stimulation of the student through artistic activities, development of aesthetic perception by means of various stimuli and saturation of aesthetic perception needs at a level corresponding with the student's perception and cognitive particularities.
- Saturation of health needs – relates to the application of physiotherapeutic and specialized therapeutic methods, e.g. orofacial therapy, myofunctional therapy, synergy-reflex therapy and other methods in student education.
- Coping with student risk behaviours and other difficulties – commonly relate to various forms of self-harm, manipulating with the environment, depression, aggressiveness, restlessness, crying, pain, etc. Teachers frequently use various forms of desensitisation, especially if the students are unable to accept stimuli frequently occurring in their environment that cannot be avoided (e.g. noise, presence of other persons, etc.).

- Student personality development processes – development of a partnership relationship with the students; development of positive student qualities based on an authentic and supportive teacher-student relationship.

In Fig. 1 the results of a questionnaire survey focused on teachers of students with severe multiple disabilities in the Czech Republic (the survey was realised in the school year 2012-2013) may be seen. The significance of various educational needs from the view of the teachers is seen there.

Figure 1: Educational needs of students (Kantor, Ludíková, 2014).



The goals of education are not typical compared to the standard classrooms. The teachers reflect on the emotional and psychosocial needs of their students more often. The relationship between teachers and students is of high importance as well. The teachers think about their students in a very complex way. They reflect the physical, cognitive, emotional, social, aesthetic and other needs of their students. Complex perception of the personalities of students is an important factor of education (it doesn't concern only the students with severe multiple disabilities because this is rather a general requirement on teachers).

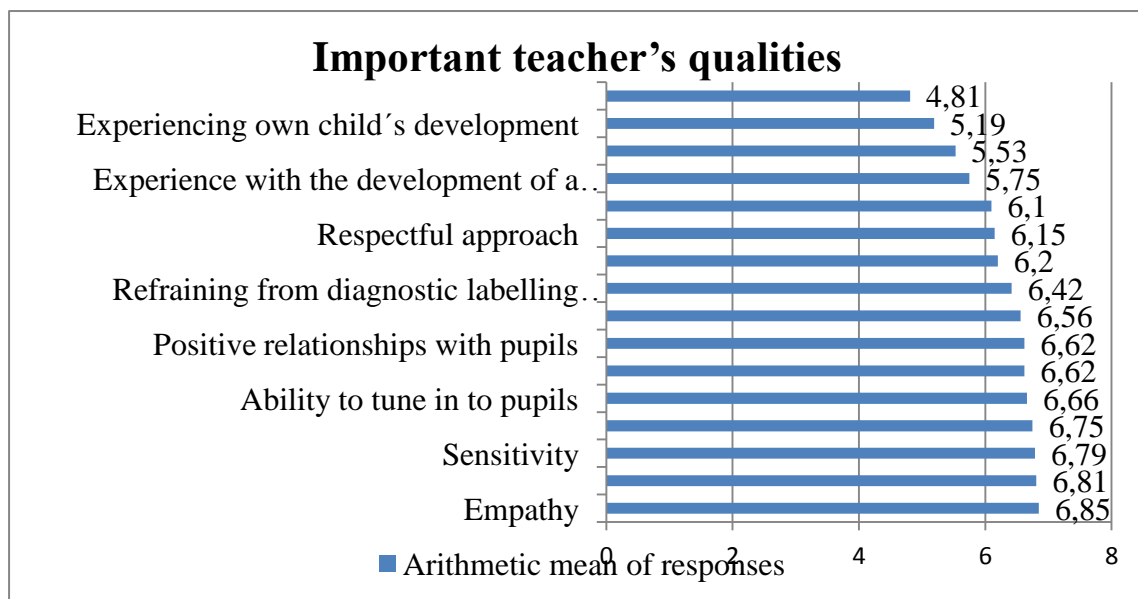
1.3 Process of understanding the inner world of students

Another example of differences that are typical for the social factors is the process of understanding the phenomenon known as the inner world of students with severe multiple disabilities (Kantor, 2014). The intellectual

disability combined with physical, perceptual and communication disabilities, is a very restrictive psychosocial barrier for education and interaction with these students. The main restriction is the limitation in understanding the cognitive world of students with severe multiple disability. It is difficult for teachers to understand what their students think, feel, want, desire, etc.

Fig. 2 offers the results of another questionnaire survey focused on mapping the tools that are important for understanding students with severe multiple disability. Overview of arithmetic averages of responses is shown in the graph. More detail results and categories gained from semi-structured interviews and open coding analysis were published in another paper (Kantor, 2014).

Fig. 2: Overview of the arithmetic averages of responses (Kantor, 2014).



This example also shows some important outcomes for multicultural education since it brings the analysis of important factors that help the teachers understand the students also in cases when extreme interpersonal diversities exist.

1.4 Virtues and other positive qualities of students with severe multiple disability

In spite of serious functional disorders students with severe multiple disabilities are able to manifest deep emotional life and virtues. In a qualitative research focused on the students with severe cerebral palsy

(Kantor, Ludíková, 2014) we asked teachers what positive statements they could make about their students. The teachers mentioned the following positive aspects of student's personality: gratitude, strength, sensitivity, spontaneity, sincerity and authenticity, openness, curiosity, sense of accomplishment, enthusiasm in group activities, assertiveness and friendship. Four teachers described the students as having strong personalities ("students are themselves"). The teachers also appreciated the students' joyousness, their sense of humour, emotional balance in spite of serious functional disability, their contentment with little, their ever-good intentions and their desire to learn and gain independence.

These outcomes were surprising for our team. It shows high degree of interest in the personalities of students in spite of the fact that the scientific literature in the field of special education is mostly focused on pathology, limitations and similar specifics of students (Valenta, Müller et al., 2009, Opatřilová, 2005). From the research we learnt that loving relationship and interest of teachers helps them to understand better the personality of students. High level of respect and appreciation is the result we would like to see in any educational context. Of course there are challenges and difficulties as well. But overall investigation of this phenomenon can provide important facts and understanding that are essential for multicultural and inclusive education nowadays.

These three examples may be helpful as a brief insight into the education of people with severe multiple disabilities. In the next chapters we will reflect on the multicultural and inclusive education on the basis of these examples.

2 Understanding, respecting and appreciating the diversity

In this chapter we will connect our findings from the previous chapter with philosophical background and models gained from community development. We will present ideas from the scriptures of Bahá'u'lláh and Abdu'l-Bahá as well as several important documents prepared by the Bahá'í International Community (especially *Turning point for all nations* – statement issued on the 50th anniversary of the United Nations). Since there is not enough space for introducing the activities of the Bahá'í

International Community, its importance for the United Nations and other international organisations, we suggest that readers find more information and the documents in full at www.info.bahai.org. We will proceed to our topic concerning inclusive education of students with severe multiple disabilities.

One postulate often mentioned in the context of multicultural education is “Unity in diversity”. This quotation is one of often quoted statements from the writings of Bahá’u’lláh concerning the characteristics of the future society. Many similar inspiring statements can be found in the writings of Bahá’u’lláh, e.g.: “It is not for him to pride himself who loveth his own country, but rather for him who loveth the whole world. The earth is but one country and mankind its citizens.” (Bahá’u’lláh, 1990, p. 250)

In these and many other quotations unity and diversity are mentioned. But our attitude to unity and diversity develops in the course of the time while we try to understand what the diversity is and investigate all possible ways how to treat it in the society. We can develop many different forms of understanding this phenomenon. Social actions developed on the basis of different understanding can differ significantly. So we must investigate various interpretations of these terms. From the point of multicultural education general interpretation of unity in diversity is often connected to the phenomenon of respect (Banks and Banks, 2009). Students on different levels of school systems are taught to adopt respect as a basic attitude to diversity. No doubt the intercultural communication starts with knowledge of others. Also respect to characteristics in which others differ from us is very important and recognized.

But the respect is not the final outcome because the process continues and shifts from respect to much more advanced phenomenon that constitute the real value of multicultural society. Nowadays we witness the creation of new cultures strongly influenced by meeting different cultures. Interaction of different social and cultural identities leads to knowledge, understanding, appreciation and internalization of the newly created values in the process of interaction. This is evident e.g. in music and arts. Further

development is not possible to imagine without multicultural environment and influences of our society.

The final outcome is not possible to define only from the perspective of the original cultural sources. Furthermore, the mere respect to cultural and social differences is not sufficient in the society nowadays. If the respect is not transformed into understanding and appreciation integration of the cultural and social differences on the basis of equal relationships will not be possible.

We will come back to the examples from the previous chapter. Multiple disabilities of students can be considered as a very extreme form of diversity in the educational context. All the educational and social systems segregated these students for a very long time (Winzer, in Florian, 2007). From all the groups of student with special educational needs the students with multiple disabilities were among the last groups included into the standard education. However their inclusion contains a serious ethical issue.

The attitude to the students with special educational needs was for decades based on tolerance. The society generally considers it as a duty to take care of these students. But they are not perceived as partners and the relationship with them is not equal. Their role in the social system is inferior because of their capacity and this is especially true of students with severe multiple disability. There is an essential question: Is it ethical to try to integrate these students into the standard school system without any other possibility if we perceive them as inferior beings and our action is motivated mainly because of the duty we feel to them?

Particular alternative can be found in another model. In this model the relationship between the students with severe multiple disabilities and the society is developed on the aspect of reciprocity in learning. This model is known in the documents of the head of the Bahá'í Community as the **learning mode** (e.g. in the letter of Universal House of Justice from 26th November 2012 explains the learning mode as constant action, reflection, consultation and study leading to development of visions and strategies for collective actions and re-examination of these continuously). The capacity

of individuals is not an issue because the system as a social unit works in a different way and is not a mere result of a sum of its individual capacities (supposing the members of this social system are in the learning mode).

No doubt people of different cultures, racial or social background will have an important role in the society if only they are given space to use and develop their capacities. But is this true about people with severe multiple disabilities?

Examples from the previous chapter show that the learning mode is also present in the relationships between teachers and students with multiple disabilities. Teachers are able to appreciate the personalities of their students. If they speak about authenticity, sensitivity, spontaneity, etc., these virtues are experienced in their relationship during authentic interaction. Teachers as well as students can develop valuable personal qualities and this belongs to the important benefits of teaching students with severe multiple disabilities.

An example can be useful to describe the situation. One teacher told this story: *“In my class there is an adolescent girl named Ester with low function autism. Autistic people are generally considered to have problems expressing emotions. Ester was sometimes aggressive towards me. I searched for the reasons why the aggression of Ester begins. After several times, when this aggressive incidents occurred I realized that it happens in the following type of situation. I once came to the classroom in the morning and felt unhappy. I tried to laugh with the students and mask my emotions despite the way I really felt. Ester was aggressive that morning again. I realized Ester was very sensitive to my real emotions and me hiding and masking them was confusing to her. I tried to be authentic in my communication and the next time I was sad I told Ester I was unhappy and why. Ester reacted in an unexpected way. She embraced me and tried to console me.”* (Kantor, 2013)

From this story we can see one model of communication breakdowns that sometimes happen among people, especially in the multicultural community. It is most often the matter of understanding that creates interrelationship problems. People with severe disability have a

disadvantage that understanding their personality is possible only in the course of a long time. But anyway the understanding is possible and it is worthy to try for the teacher. Teachers that are able to set a good relationship with these students are also able to appreciate their inner qualities and characteristics as is evident from the research outcomes.

3 Applications and discussion

In this paper it is suggested that inclusion of students with severe multiple disabilities into standard schools (mainly total inclusion where there exist no other possibility of education for these students) as well as inclusion into the society is possible and ethical only in the case of equal and partner relationships. These relationships can be developed on the basis of reciprocal learning, understanding and appreciation. The examples of the teachers show that it is possible and relationships with students with multiple disabilities offer many outstanding opportunities for learning. We could also see that utilising this potential that interaction with these students provides is possible to realise only in the course of long term relationship. Yet we don't know how to transfer this experience into the peer relationships in the inclusive education and how to create the environment of learning mode in the schools.

The model based on appreciation presented in the previous chapter is more developed and more suitable for multicultural education than the model based only on the respect because we know that appreciation is the further and more developed stage of the attitude to diversity. Appreciation leads to reciprocal learning and that enables the positive gains on all the sides of interacting partners. In this situation there is some kind of exchange that creates equal conditions for the members of the social system.

In the case of students with severe multiple disabilities it is difficult to find aspects to appreciate on the material and physical level. Their deficits are very obvious there. But in the domain of human virtues interaction with them can be experienced as transcendental, spiritual or moral because these interactions demands openness, authenticity and other values from communication partners.

In the multicultural education it would be progressive if we focused on understanding other people in a complex way (including also the area of virtues that are general human wealth in spite of differences in the racial, social, cultural, economic, religious and other areas).

REFERENCES

- Bahá'U'Lláh (1990). *Gleanings from the Writings of Bahá'u'lláh*. Pocket-size edition. U.S. Bahá'í Publishing Trust. 346 p.
- Banks, G. – Banks, J., A. (2009). *Multicultural education*. 8th ed. New York: Wiley&Sons. 384 p.
- Bigge, J. – Best, J., S. – Heller, K. (2010). *W. Teaching Individuals with Physical or Multiple Disabilities*. 3rd ed. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company. 541 p.
- Jeřábková, K. et al. (2014). *Školská integrace žáků se speciálními vzdělávacími potřebami*. 1st ed. Olomouc: VUP. 129 p.
- Finková, D. et al. (2013). *Iniciační analýza podmínek inkluze u osob se specifickými potřebami*. 1st ed. Olomouc: VUP. 184 p.
- Gindis, B. (1999). Vygotsky's Vision: Reshaping the Practice of Special Education for the 21st Century. *Remedial and Special Education*. 1999;20:6/333-339.
- Kantor, J. (2013). *Výstupy edukačního procesu v oblasti sociálních kompetencí u žáků s dětskou mozkovou obrnou*. (Ph.D.) Olomouc: Univerzita Palackého v Olomouci. 333 p.
- Kantor, J. (in press) Podoby interdisciplinární podpory osob s omezením hybnosti v oblasti zdravotnictví, školství a sociálních služeb. HUTYROVÁ, M. et al. (ed.) *Interdisciplinární pohledy na jinakost*. 1st ed. Olomouc: VUP.
- Kantor, J. – LUDÍKOVÁ, L. (2014). Processes of special education intervention in students with multiple disabilities. *INTED 2014 Publications*. (Proceedings from the 8th International Technology, Education and Development Conference). Valencia: IATED Academy. 7329-7338 p.

Kantor, J – LUDÍKOVÁ, L. (2014). Opportunities for self-realization of pupils with severe cerebral palsy in an educational context. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*. Elsevier. 128/2014. 234-239 p.

Kantor, J. (2014). The factors supporting understanding the students with multiple disability. *INTED 2014 Publications*. Valencia: IATED Academy. 7430-7439 p.

Kolářová, K. (2013). *Jinakost – postižení – kritika*. 1st ed. Praha: Slon. 581 p.

Květoňová, L. – Strnadová, I. – Hájková, V. (2012). *Cesty k inkluzi*. 1st ed. Praha: Karolinum. 212 p.

Langer, J. et al. (2014). *Technické pomůcky pro osoby se zdravotním postižením*. 1st ed. Olomouc: VUP. 186 p.

Nietupski, J et al. (1997). A Review of Curricular Research In Sever Disabilities from 1976 to 1995 in Six Selected Journals. *The Journal of Special Education*. Texas: Hammil Institute of Disabilities and Sage. 1997;31:1/59-70. ISSN 0022-4669.

Opatřilová, D. (2005). *Metody práce u jedinců s těžkým postižením a více vadami*. 1st ed. Brno: MU. 148 p.

Regec, V. – Stejskalová. K. et al. (2012). *Komunikace a lidé se specifickými potřebami*. 1st ed. Olomouc: VUP. 204 p.

Růžička, M. et al. (2013). *Krizová intervence pro speciální pedagogy*. 1st ed. Olomouc: VUP. 168 p.

Valenta, M. – Müller, O. et al. (2009). *Psychopedie*. 4th ed. Praha: Parta. 386 s.

Winzer, M. (2007). Confronting difference: an excursion through the history of special education. In FLORIAN, L. *The Sage Handbook of Special Education*. London: Sage Publications. 21-33 p.