

RĒZEKNES TEHNOLOĢIJU AKADEMIJA  
Izglītības, valodu un dizaina fakultāte

REZEKNE ACADEMY OF TECHNOLOGIES  
Faculty of Education, Language and Design

ISSN 1691-5887

# **SABIEDRĪBA. INTEGRĀCIJA. IZGLĪTĪBA**

Starptautiskās zinātniskās konferences materiāli  
2017.gada 26.-27.maijs

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# **SOCIETY. INTEGRATION. EDUCATION**

Proceedings of the Scientific Conference  
May 26<sup>th</sup> – 27<sup>th</sup>, 2017

## **Volume I**

Rēzekne  
2017

SABIEDRĪBA. INTEGRĀCIJA. IZGLĪTĪBA. Starptautiskās zinātniskās konferences materiāli. I daļa, 2017.gada 26.-27.maijs. Rēzekne: Rēzeknes Tehnoloģiju akadēmija, 2017., 660 lpp.

*SOCIETY. INTEGRATION. Education. Proceedings of the International Scientific Conference. Volume I, May 26<sup>th</sup>–27<sup>th</sup>, 2017. Rezekne, Rezekne Academy of Technologies, 2017, p 660.*

Rekomendējusi publicēšanai Rēzeknes Tehnoloģiju akadēmijas Zinātnes padome 2017.gada 26.aprīlī.

*Recommended for publication by Scientific Council of Rezekne Academy of Technologies on April 26, 2017.*

**Redaktori/Edited by Velta Lubkina, Anda Zvaigzne**

**Sastādītājs/Compiler by Svetlana Ušča**

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### **Konferenci atbalsta/ *Sources of Support***



National science programme „Innovative solutions for social telerehabilitation in the schools of Latvia in the context of inclusive education (INSOCTEREHI)”



Project Internationalisation and Modernisation of Education and Processes in the Higher Education of Uzbekistan 561624-EPP-1-2015-1-UK-EPPKA2-CBHE-SP - ERASMUS+ CBHE



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**AUGSTĀKĀ IZGLĪTĪBA**  
*HIGHER EDUCATION*



## AN APPROACH TO MANAGEMENT EDUCATION: INTERDISCIPLINARY MODEL

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**Abstract.** *In business practice the paradigm has changed from global business to hybrid business. This shift requires a new quality of management education in order to bring out next-generation managers and leaders. The aim of the research is to shape an approach to management education through interdisciplinary research underpinning elaboration of a hypothesis on an innovative approach to preparing next-generation managers and leaders within management education. The meaning of the key concepts of “approach” and “principles” is studied. Moreover, the study demonstrates how the key concepts are related to the idea of “management education”. The study shows how the steps of the process are related following a logical chain: analysis of the terms “approach”, “principles” and “conditions” → approach to management education → conclusions. The novel contribution of this paper is the hypothesis on an innovative approach to preparing next-generation managers and leaders within management education.*

**Keywords:** *Approach, conditions, interdisciplinary research, management education, principles.*

### Introduction

Business activity has shaped and been shaped by various social and political forces within the couple of past decades. Table 1 provides a historical perspective on business development during the past decades (Zaščerinska et al., 2016). The present paper shortly characterizes global business and hybrid business in order to form an approach to preparing next-generation managers and leaders in management education. It should be noted that the terms *leaders* and *managers* are used synonymously in the present contribution. Global business is described by a churning global marketplace (Haertle, 2007). This kind of global market

reveals that understanding the fundamental connections between business, the environment, and society is significant (Haertle, 2007). The roles and responsibilities of business as a global force become more urgent and complex, and concepts related to societal responsibility and sustainability gain recognition as essential elements in business management (Haertle, 2007). By hybrid business, a combination of traditional business methods such as warehouses and order fulfillment services as well as use of modern technologies is initially meant (Zaščerinska et al., 2016). By use of modern technologies, application of Information and Communication Technology, web technologies, mobile technologies, etc for business purposes is defined (Zaščerinska et al., 2016).

Table 1 **Business in different historical periods of the past decades**

Phase	Historical period	Business approach
1.	1980s	De-Industrialization (a process of social and economic change caused by the removal or reduction of industrial capacity or activity in a country or region, especially heavy industry or manufacturing industry)
2.	1980s	Deregulation (the process of removing or reducing state regulations)
3.	1990s	Global Business (international trade or a company doing business across the world)
4.	2000s	Hybrid business (enterprise which does not only make use of traditional methods of distribution, but also makes use of Internet)

It should be noted that the term *hybrid business* has been developing that influences a combination of elements overviewed in Table 2 (Zaščerinska et al., 2016).

Table 2 **Different elements of the different terms of hybrid business**

Number	Different elements of the different terms of hybrid business
1.	- traditional business methods such as warehouses and order fulfillment services - modern technologies
2.	- operation of the company as well as - related companies that serve different sectors of the marketplace
3.	a company that chose to operate concurrent operations geared toward meeting the needs of two or more consumer markets
4.	- business capacities and - social goals
5.	- for-profit business and - non-profit business (Hoffman et al., 2012)

Analysis of the different terms of hybrid business presented in Table 2 leads to such a new definition of *hybrid business* as a business strategy that blends traditional business methods, alternative business methods as well as use of modern technologies (Zaščerinska et al., 2016). By alternative business methods, delivery a significantly higher value for end customers in a way that de-links revenue growth from full time equivalent (FTE) growth is determined. Social entrepreneurship can serve as an example. Hence, this new definition of the term *hybrid business* has complemented a number of combinations of elements delivered in Table 2. This newly defined term *hybrid business* allows proposing that business in general and hybrid business in particular are becoming more complex. Thus, new quality of administration, management and deep leadership is needed (Haregreaves, 2006). Increasing complexity and interdependence require new approaches (Haertle, 2007). Companies need integrative management tools that help embed different participants' concerns into their strategic thinking and daily operations (Haertle, 2007). They need support as they internalize and integrate the issues into the core of hybrid businesses, engage in dialogue with stakeholders, and report their conduct (Haertle, 2007). They require talented and ethical leaders who cannot only advance organizational goals and fulfill legal and fiduciary obligations to shareholders, but who are also prepared to deal with the broader impact and potential of hybrid business as a positive force in society (Haertle, 2007). Any meaningful and lasting change in the conduct of corporations must involve the institutions that most directly act as drivers of business behavior, especially academia (Haertle, 2007). Academic institutions help shape the attitudes and behavior of leaders through business education, management education, research, management development programs, training, and other pervasive, but less tangible, activities, such as the spread and advocacy of new values and ideas (Haertle, 2007). Through these means, academic institutions have the potential to generate a wave of positive change, thereby helping to ensure a world where both enterprises and societies can flourish. For higher education institutions, finding appropriate answers and making decisions on tertiary curricula aimed at shaping the attitudes and behavior of leaders needs to come to a common understanding and implementation of the following (Žogla, 2014):

- The nature, definition and process of the New Generation learning and its characteristic features, achievements at each level of tertiary education. Learning should not be considered the target in itself – the learners' optimal developmental success should be achieved in learning.
- Didactic models appropriate for the New Generation learning to strike the targets of the learners' generic knowledge and practical skills, as well as achieve intellectual, emotional, social qualities of an autonomous learner ready for non-stop, life-long self-fulfillment.

- Educators' professional education should be focused on the development of reflective practitioners able to conduct inquiry-based didactic process with a special attention to dialogues, manage the transition of tertiary teaching curriculum to a learning curriculum.
- The New Generation learning supported and personalized at higher education institutions leads to the learners' individual meaningful achievements and development of their abilities of doing, communicating, cooperating, reflecting and responsible decision-making.

It should be noted that leaders could be formed and educated from the perspective of the next generation, too. Within the present contribution, a perspective from the next generation means engagement and inclusion of the next generation in development of academic institutions. Thus, next-generation leaders play such a two-fold role in management education: on the one hand, next-generation leaders are prepared within management education for enabling today's and tomorrow's business participants to play a more active role in the innovation process, to make informed choices and to engage in a democratic, knowledge-based society in order to boost creativity and competitiveness (Horizon, 2020, 2013) in the context of the contemporary situation in the world described by a number of crises such as social, economic, financial, political, etc., on the other hand, next-generation leaders are the co-contributors to the advancement of management education. As managers are involved in everyday human interaction, management education puts the emphasis on managers' social cognition. For managers, social cognition plays the key role as social cognition implies understanding the behavioural motives and stable dispositions of themselves and other persons and groups (Van Overwalle, 2009). Social cognition is supported by mirror neurons that may be important for understanding the actions of other people, and for learning new skills by imitation. Hence, a shift to an innovative and effective approach based on the use of mirror neurons for preparing next-generation leaders is necessary in management education. The aim of the research is to shape an approach to management education for bringing out next-generation leaders underpinning elaboration of a hypothesis on an innovative approach to preparing next-generation leaders within management education. The meaning of the key concepts of *approach* and *principles* is studied. Moreover, the study demonstrates how the key concepts are related to the idea of *management education*. Interdisciplinary research is carried out within the present investigation as interdisciplinary research assists in synthesizing, connecting and blending ideas, data and information, methods, tools, concepts, and/or theories from two or more disciplines in order "to make whole" (Repko, 2012). The present interdisciplinary research is based on a number of scientific disciplines such as management, management education, pedagogy, psychology, neuroscience, etc.



The process of interdisciplinary research proceeds from an issue separately explored by two or more scientific disciplines in Phase 1 through the same issue examined by the synergetic point of view of more scientific disciplines in Phase 2 to results of the analysis interpreted in Phase 3.

### Theoretical Framework

The term *model* is a pattern of individual's or individuals' interpretation of a phenomenon (Ahrens, Purvinis, Zaščerinska, & Andreeva, 2015). It should be noted that, in the present contribution, the term *phenomenon* is defined as regularities that are unexpected and unexplainable against the background of existing knowledge, including extant theory and that are relevant for the scientific discourse (Von Krogh, Rossi-Lamastra, & Haefliger, 2012). Models can be presented in a variety of forms such as verbal, graphic, computer, etc. (Ahrens, Purvinis, Zaščerinska, & Andreeva, 2015).

Approach is a set of theoretical principles (Karapetjana, 2008). For the purposes of further theoretical analysis, it should be noted that, in the present contribution, education is part of pedagogy. Application of interdisciplinary research to the term *principle* allows defining it from two perspectives: from the external perspective, principle is a shared combination of beliefs and assumptions that determine researchers' attitude to the world, their behaviours' norms and activities, from the internal perspective, principle is an individual combination of beliefs and assumptions that determine researcher's attitude to the world, his/her behaviour's norms and actions (Ahrens & Zaščerinska, 2015). New principles of education have been identified (Špona, 2014): 1. Collaboration between peers and generations. 2. Basing education on the achievements of youths including next-generation leaders in the development of a personality. 3. The principle of free choice in union with responsibility and autonomy. However, these principles refer to all kind of education. For responsible management education, six principles have been specified (Haertle, 2007): Principle 1 *Purpose* means to develop the capabilities of students to be future generators of sustainable value for business and society at large and to work for an inclusive and sustainable global economy. Principle 2 *Values* intends to incorporate into academic activities and curricula the values of global social responsibility as portrayed in international initiatives. Principle 3 *Method* proposes to create educational frameworks, materials, processes and environments that enable effective learning experiences for responsible leadership. Principle 4 *Research* emphasizes to engage in conceptual and empirical research that advances understanding about the role, dynamics, and impact of corporations in the creation of sustainable social, environmental and economic value. Principle 5 *Partnership* highlights to interact with managers of business corporations to extend knowledge of their challenges in meeting social

and environmental responsibilities and to explore jointly effective approaches to meeting these challenges. Principle 6 *Dialogue* points out to facilitate and support dialogue and debate among educators, business, government, consumers, media, civil society organizations and other interested groups and stakeholders on critical issues related to global social responsibility and sustainability. Analysis of the six principles for responsible management education reveals that these principles refer to the model of global business. Along with the paradigm shift from global business to hybrid business, elaboration of new principles or, in other words, approach, for management education is required.

## **Research Results**

In order to determine new principles for management education, use of principles has to be outlined. Thereby, principle is a condition of activity (Beļickis et al., 2000) or management education in the present paper. A condition means a circumstance from which the implementation of a process, process or activity depends (Beļickis et al., 2000). Management education as part of pedagogy traditionally depends on research within psychological science as psychological research provides the basis for pedagogical and, consequently, educational developments in terms of organization of educational environment, curriculum, institution activities, and etc. (Ahrens & Zašcerinska, 2014). Against this background, in the last decades educational neuroscience plays an important role in solving practical as well as theoretical problems of pedagogy (Praulīte et al., 2014). Educational neuroscience is a branch of cognitive neuroscience connected with problems of education which on the basis of neurological mechanisms gives ability to solve different topical pedagogical problems (Praulīte et al., 2014). Using instrumental research methods educational neuroscience gives ability to explain neural processes of such phenomena as perception, comprehension, memory and thinking (Praulīte et al., 2014). There are different opinions about use of neuroscience in pedagogy. Some pedagogues point out that there is no necessity for the knowledge about brain structures in order to criticize outdated teaching methods (Bruer, 1997; Qansari & Coch, 2006). In turn, other pedagogues highly evaluate the role of neuroscience in pedagogy (Praulīte et al., 2014). The usage of educational neuroscience in solving pedagogical problems is promoted if such issues are clarified (Geake, 2009; Ott, 2012) as What is the role of neuroscience in pedagogy? How and when will educators be connected with pedagogical neuroscience? What are the positive sides of pedagogical neuroscience? What are the weaknesses of pedagogical neuroscience? Thus, management education as part of pedagogy is also formed by neuroscience. It should be noted that, in its turn, pedagogy facilitates the promotion of neuroscientists' professional knowledge, competences and behavior aimed at

ensuring new discoveries, innovations, etc. Neuroscience has emerged as a new paradigm. Neuroscience identifies the various functional parts of various psychological features of the human mind (Hariharan et al., 2014). In other words, neuroscientists analyse which structures in the brain support the mental processes involved in social cognition (Hariharan et al., 2015). This complements the inter-relationships between pedagogy and neuroscience with psychology. Therein, in the present research, conditions are regarded as the inter-relationships between pedagogy, neuroscience and psychology (Ahrens & Zaščerinska, 2014). The inter-relationship between pedagogy and psychology reveals that psychology serves as the basis of pedagogical developments. The inter-relationship between pedagogy and neuroscience assists to explain neural processes of such phenomena as perception, comprehension, memory and thinking (Praulīte et al., 2014) or, in other words, cognition. As managers are involved in everyday human interaction, more emphasis is put on managers' social cognition. This capacity is known as theory of mind (ToM) or mentalizing. Social cognition includes the cognitive processes used to understand and store information about other persons including the self, interpersonal norms and scripts (or procedures) to navigate efficiently in the social world. The social cognition has been studied from various theoretical and methodological perspectives, most notably social psychology and social neuroscience. Social psychologists investigate how we perceive and interpret our social environment including other persons, groups, and the self, how we build social knowledge structures that reflect the norms and values of society, and how this is influenced through conscious and unconscious processing mechanisms, which sometimes lead to biased judgments (Gilbert & Malone, 1995; Trope & Gaunt, 2000; Van Rooy et al., 2003). In turn, among neuroscientists it is commonly assumed that the capacity to mentalize depends on cognitive brain mechanisms that are potentially dedicated specifically to social reasoning. Neurological evidence from studies of brain lesions (Apperly et al., 2004; Wood et al., 2005) supports this hypothesis. However, there exist diverse social inferences. This diversity in social inferences is consistent with neuroscientists' modular view on the brain where social cognition is seen as a neural circuit with a set of related and highly intertwined, but separate processes that are each specialized in some aspect of the social mentalizing system. Social cognition is supported by mirror neurons that may be important for understanding the actions of other people, and for learning new skills by imitation. Many researchers in cognitive neuroscience and cognitive psychology consider that mirror neurons provide the physiological mechanism for the perception/action coupling. The relationship between psychology and neuroscience facilitates identification of various functional parts of various psychological features of the human mind (Hariharan et al., 2015) or, in other words, functions of individual cultural development. The findings of the present research on the inter-relationships

between pedagogy, neuroscience and psychology serve as a source of principles of management education. As mirror neurons play the central role for managers in understanding the actions of other people within human interaction, the list of circumstances from which management education depends contains the scientists' finding on the physiological mechanism provided by mirror neurons for the perception/action coupling as pointed in Table 3 (Zašcerinska et al., 2016).

Table 3 **Principles of management education**

<b>Circumstances</b>	<b>Principle of management education</b>
The inter-relationship between pedagogy and psychology reveals that psychology serves as the basis of pedagogical developments.	<i>Principle of feasibility</i>
The inter-relationship between pedagogy and neuroscience assists to explain neural processes of such phenomena as perception, comprehension, memory and thinking (Praulite et al., 2014) or, in other words, cognition.	<i>Principle of reasonableness</i>
The relationship between psychology and neuroscience facilitates identification of various functional parts of various psychological features of the human mind (Hariharan et al., 2014) or, in other words, functions of individual cultural development.	<i>Principle of functionality</i>
Many researchers in cognitive neuroscience and cognitive psychology consider that mirror neurons provide the physiological mechanism for the perception/action coupling.	<i>Principle of mirroriness</i>

As principle is a condition of activity (Beļickis et al., 2000), the principle of feasibility is a condition of shaping an opportunity for managers in management education as opportunity means gaining individual experience in a certain social-cultural environment (Tiļļa, 2006). The principle of reasonableness serves as a condition of use of appropriate management education for managers. The principle of functionality is a condition of delivering qualitative management education to serve the purpose for which management education is designed. The principle of mirroriness is a condition of understanding of managers' learning outcomes and achievements.

### **Conclusions and Recommendations**

The findings of the interdisciplinary analysis allow formulating such a hypothesis as management education is effective if the principle of feasibility is applied to shaping an opportunity for managers in management education, the principle of reasonableness serves as a condition of use of appropriate management education for managers, the principle of functionality is used to

deliver qualitative management education in order to serve the purpose for which management education is designed, the principle of mirrorness is implemented for analysis of managers' learning outcomes and achievements in management education. The present research has *limitations*. The inter-connections between hybrid business, pedagogy, management education, organisational management, psychology, neuroscience, social cognition, mirror neurons have been set. Further research tends to focus on empirical studies in management education. And a comparative research of different countries could be carried out, too.

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# TĀLMĀCĪBA ĀRSTNIECĪBAS PERSONU PROFESIONĀLĀ PILNVEIDĒ – IZAICINĀJUMS, IESPĒJAS UN RISINĀJUMS

## *Distance Learning for Health Care Professionals – Challenges, Opportunities and Solutions*

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**Abstract.** *The research was done in the framework of internal scientific project grant of Riga Medical College of the University of Latvia. The study took place between 01.04.2016.- 01.11.2016.*

*Aim of the research. To evaluate feasibility and necessity for further education courses for medical personnel in form of distance learning and to assess the newly developed distance learning course methodological material for continuing education.*

*Methodology: quantitative – 2 surveys, where the results apply to the focus group only.*

*Results. There is a low supply of vocational further education in medicine in form of distance learning and the majority - 61% of nurses and physician assistants have never used such materials, while 77% of respondents acknowledge that distance learning is necessary. The main barriers, interfering with successful learning according to 33% of respondents are lack of time and 28% lack of self-motivation. Distance learning materials, are very interesting and of high quality, as the respondents evaluated with 5 and 6 points (in 6-point scale).*

*Conclusion. Distance learning is needed not only for broadening the supply, but the necessity is also determined by the demand, which is attributed to the time and financial savings.*

**Keywords:** *distance learning, e-learning, e-studies, education.*

### **Ievads**

#### ***Introduction***

Šobrīd lielākais vairums augstskolās studējošie ir informācijas tehnoloģiju paaudze, kura ir uzaugusi ar nepārtrauktu pieeju informācijas tehnoloģijām un internetam. Mācībspēkiem ir nepieciešams pielāgot mācīšanas un mācīšanās metodes atbilstoši studējošo prasmēm, prasībām un vajadzībam. Pēdējo gadu laikā lielu popularitāti gūst tālmācība, jo tā tiek uzskatīta kā ērts, ekonomiski un laika ziņā efektīvs veids kā apgūt zināšanas. Latvijā tālmācība attīstās lēni kaut arī citur pasaulē tā ir ļoti populāra dažādās disciplīnās - ekonomikā, valodniecībā, biznesa vadībā. Pētījuma dati parāda, ka tālmācībai nākotnē būs svarīga loma izglītības sistēmā. (Worm, 2013; Mehrdad et al., 2011; Smith et al., 2009).

Ņemot vērā ekonomisko situāciju medicīnā un uzlabojot ārstniecības personu izglītības kvalitāti, padarot to pieejamāku, 2016. gada janvārī tika uzsākts darbs pie Latvijas Universitātes Rīgas Medicīnas koledžas (LU RMK), iekšējā granta - zinātniski pētnieciskā projekta: “*Tālmācība ārstniecības personu profesionālā pilnveidē – izaicinājums, iespējas un risinājums*”. Projekts sastāvēja no divām daļām: 1) zinātniski pētnieciskā daļa, kuru rezultāti ir aprakstīti šajā publikācijā; 2) interaktīvu tālmācības kursu izstrāde un realizācija e-studiju vidē, ārstniecības personu tālākizglītībai. Projekta ilgums: 20.01.2016- 20.01.2017.

**Pētījuma mērķis:** izvērtēt tālākizglītības kursu īstenošanas iespējas un nepieciešamību tālmācībā, ārstniecības personu profesionālajā pilnveidē.

**Pētījuma metode:** kvantitatīva – 2 aptaujas.

### **Tālmācības raksturojums un izpēte** *Distance learning: characteristics and research*

Tālmācība ir studiju forma, kuru ārstniecības personas - māsas, māsu palīgi, ārsta palīgi - var izmantot savā darba vietā, tiešsaistes režīmā, nododot informāciju citām personām, savukārt, jaunās zināšanas var uzreiz pielietot praksē, tādejādi, uzlabojot veselības aprūpes kvalitāti visā Latvijas teritorijā.

Izglītības likuma 1. pantā 26. punktā tālmācība tiek definēta: “*Tālmācība – izglītības ieguves neklātienes formas paveids, kuru raksturo īpaši strukturēti mācību materiāli, individuāls mācīšanās temps, īpaši organizēts izglītības sasniegumu novērtējums, kā arī dažādu tehnisko un elektronisko saziņas līdzekļu izmantošana*” (Izglītības likums, 1999). Pozitīvais aspekts tālmācībai ir tas, ka tālmācība ir izglītības studiju forma, kurā katrs var mācīties sev izdevīgā laikā, vietā un tempā, savukārt studējošiem jābūt motivētiem, kuri paši spēj sevi organizēt aktīvam mācību darbam (Ivanova, Kristovska & Slaidiņš, 1999).

Tālmācība ir sena ideja ar jaunu nosaukumu, jo tālmācība kā izglītības forma tiek izmantota jau kopš 1700. gada, kad mācību materiāli tika piegādāti ar zirgu pajūgiem, vēlāk ap 1900. g., izmantojot pasta sistēmu. Laika posmā no 1920.g. līdz 1960.g. tālmācība tika realizēta, izmantojot elektronisko datu pārraidi - radio, televizorus (TV), kopš 1970.g. līdz 1980.g. izmantoja iepriekš ierakstītas kasetes. Laika posmā no 1980.g. līdz 1990.g. tālmācībā sāka izmantot telekonferences, video konferences un TV programmas (Harper, Chen & Yen, 2004). Mūsdienās izglītībā tiek izmantota datora balstīta apmācība, kuru iespējams realizēt vairākos veidos. Datora balstīta apmācība var notikt *asinhroni*, kad informācijas tehnoloģijas (IT) ir pašas par sevi, komunikācija notiek caur e-pastu un ziņojumu dēļiem. *Sinhroni*, kas tiek veikta reāla laika režīmā ar instruktoru, mācībspēku, kas pieslēdzies sistēmai. *Neatkarīgā mācīšanās* – studējošais viens pats soli pa solim apgūst noteiktus mācību materiālus un pilda noteiktus uzdevumus, liela nozīme ir paškontrolei (Naidu, 2006).



Analizējot literatūru, tālmācība tiek uzskatīta par tikpat efektīvu mācīšanās veidu kā tradicionālā apmācība – klātienēs lekcijas. Mūsdienās profesionālajā literatūrā tālmācība tiek pētīta un analizēta no vairākiem aspektiem. Pētījumi rāda, ka tālmācība kā izglītības forma piesaista plašu studējošo loku: tā ir pieejama cilvēkiem ar speciālām vajadzībām, tā ir iespējama cilvēkiem, kas atrodas ārpus savas valsts robežas (Welton et al. 2000; Jefferies et al., 2001; Slaidiņš, 2005; Bjarne, 2013; Mehrdad et al., 2011).

Tālmācība daudzās pasaules valstīs iekarojusi stabilu vietu izglītības sistēmā tai skaitā arī medicīnas jomā. Medicīna ir tā joma, kurā papildus teorētiskām zināšanām nepieciešama kritiskā domāšana, pieredze līdz ar to mācību metodiskos materiālus nepieciešams sagatavot tā, lai šīs zināšanas un kompetences tiktu apgūtas arī tālmācības studiju formā. Tāpēc bieži vien studiju procesā tālmācības studijas apvieno ar klātienēs studijām (Smith et al., 2009). Tāpat māsas, ārsta palīga profesija ir praktiska profesija, kurā ir jāapgūst praksē izmantojamās prasmes, kompetences, kad nepietiek tikai ar teoriju apgūšanu: injekciju veikšanu, pacientu barošanu, zondes ievadīšanu u.c. procedūrām. Mācīšanās internetā nav domāta visiem. Tālmācības studiju forma nosaka, ka cilvēkam ir jābūt motivētam mācīties pašam un disciplinētam (Lowery et al., 2014). Mācīšanās motivāciju nosaka arī katra cilvēka individuālās vajadzības un mācīšanās stili (Slaidiņš, 2005; Ehlers, 2004).

Analizējot literatūru ir aprakstīti vēl citi motivējoši faktori, kas liek izvēlēties un ieviest izglītības iestādē papildus tradicionālai metodei tālmācību un e-studijas formu: tas ir moderni, inovatīvi un mūsdienīgi; apmācība nav sarežģīta; lietotāja datorā nekas nav jāinstalē, lai studētu pietiek ar pārlūkprogrammu un internetu ar kuru palīdzību piekļūst e-studiju videi; mainās metode no diktēšanas pierakstīšanai klādē uz sarunu par galveno, izpratni un sadarbību; mācībspēka darba laika ietaupījums, piemēram, testu vērtēšana automātiski, izdarot iestatījumus; tūlītēja atgriezeniskā saikne; var apvienot ar klātienēs lekcijām (Yining et al., 2012; Kapenieks, 2013).

Pateicoties informāciju un komunikāciju tehnoloģiju (IKT) izplatībai un attīstībai ir vairāki pozitīvie aspekti: mācību laika un vietas izvēle nav tik svarīgs arguments, līdz ar to ir iespējams izmantot plašai mērķauditorijai adresētus studiju materiālus. Izmantojot mūsdienās pieejamās multimediju tehnoloģijas, iespējams mācību materiālus veidot interaktīvus, līdz ar to palielinot motivāciju apgūt studiju kursu. Viena no jaunākām tālmācības metodēm, ko izmanto medicīnas studijās ir virtuālās klīniskās situācijas ar reāliem pacientiem, kas ir asinhrona (students darbojas sev vēlamā laikā, individuāli), daudzpusīga vide studentam, kurā viņš var strādāt ar virtuālu pacientu (Lowery et al., 2014). E-studiju vidē mācībspēkam rodas iespēja vieglāk un ātrāk veikt audzēkņu zināšanu pārbaudi, izmantojot dažādus, tajā skaitā automatizētus, zināšanu pārbaudes veidus, kas

ietaupa laiku, kā arī nodrošina tūlītēju atgriezenisko saikni (Burns, 2011; Ghasemi et al., 2016).

## **Pētījuma metodoloģija** *Methodology*

Pētījumā izvēlēta kvantitatīva metode – 2 aptaujas. Aptaujās piedalījās respondenti – ārstniecības personas. Aptauja izvēlēta ar mērķi iegūt kvantitatīvus rādītājus par ārstniecības personu profesionālās pilnveides kursu īstenošanu tālmācībā.

Pirmā aptauja notika laika periodā no 01.03.2016. līdz 01.05.2016., kuru mērķis bija, “*izvērtēt tālākizglītības kursu īstenošanas iespējas un nepieciešamību tālmācībā*”. Pētījums veikts dažādās Latvijas klīnikās, kā arī elektroniski, nosūtot aptauju uz ārstniecības personu e-pastiem. No klīnikām iegūti rakstiski ētikas komisijas atzinumi par aptaujas veikšanu. Pētījuma dalībnieki: māsas, ārstu palīgi, māsu palīgi. Kopumā izdalītas 200 anketas un 500 elektroniski izsūtītas aptaujas. Pētījumā piedalījās n=210 respondenti.

Otra aptauja notika laika periodā no 01.09.2016. līdz 30.11.2016., aptaujas mērķis bija “*izvērtēt tālmācības kursa izstrādātos, metodiskos, materiālus tālākizglītības īstenošanai tālmācībā*”. Pētījuma dalībnieki LU RMK studējošie, iepriekš kvalifikāciju ieguvuši respondenti - māsas un ārstu palīgi, kuri koledžā, šobrīd, apgūst kādu no tālākizglītības programmām. Pirms aptaujas aizpildīšanas respondenti tika reģistrēti tālmācības kursā, Moodle vidē. Respondentiem bija pieejami interaktīvi tālmācību materiāli par tēmu: “*Brūču aprūpes pamati*”, kas sevī ietver tēmas - ādas anatomija un funkcijas; ādas veseluma bojājumi, brūces klasifikācija un aprūpes pamati. Pēc kursa materiāla apguves respondenti veica studiju kursa novērtējumu. Kopā tālmācību kursā tika reģistrēti 138 respondenti. Aptaujā piedalījās n=55 respondenti.

## **Pētījuma rezultāti un analīze** *Results and discussion*

Pirmā aptaujā piedalījās 210 respondenti, kur 85 % (n=179) bija māsas, 7% (n=14) ārsta palīgi, 7% (n=14) māsu palīgi un citi aprūpes speciālisti 1% (n=3). Pētījumā iekļauti respondenti ar dažādām pamatspecialitātēm- ķirurģijas aprūpes māsas, internās aprūpes māsas, ambulatorās aprūpes ātsta palīgs u.c., tomēr aptaujas rezultāti parāda, ka 44% (n=90) respondenti nav sertificēti kādā no pamatspecialitātēm. Pētījumā piedalījās respondenti vecumā no 22- 75 gadiem, vecuma grupā no 22- 49 gadiem piedalījās 67% (n=141) respondenti, salīdzinoši liels respondentu skaits bija vecumā no 50- 75 gadiem 33% (n= 69). Vidējais respondentu vecums 44 gadi.

Apkopojot iegūtos rezultātus, liela daļa 61 % (n=126) respondentu iepriekš nav izmantojuši profesionālās pilnveides kursus tālmācībā, kas parāda, ka pētījuma respondentiem tālmācība varētu būt jauna, nezināma mācību forma.

Iespējamās barjeras, apgūstot zināšanas tālmācībā, 33% (n=69) respondentu min laika trūkumu, 28% (n=59) pašmotivāciju trūkumu, jo pašam jāplāno mācību grafiks. Iespējami arī citi faktori, kuri pētījumā netika noskaidroti, piemēram, nesaistošas kursu tēmas, informāciju pieejamības trūkums, piedāvāto materiālu kvalitāte, piedāvāto materiālu izmaksas. Pozitīvs rādītājs, ka 27% (n=57) respondentu iepriekš ir izmantojuši iespēju apgūt tēmas tālmācībā, ko piedāvā e-visit.lv un medkursi.lv vietnes. Šāds rezultāts norāda uz interesi un vēlmi, izmantot profesionālās pilnveides kursus tālmācībā. Šāda interese tika izteikta arī pētījumā, apkopojot iegūtos rezultātus, novērtējot tālmācību kursu nepieciešamību, kur kopumā 77% (n=160) respondentu atzina, ka profesionālā pilnveide tālmācībā ir nepieciešama, kur no 77% respondentiem 50% (n=104) aptaujā atzīmēja, ka profesionālā pilnveide tālmācībā ir nepieciešama un 27% (n=56) ļoti nepieciešama.

Neliela pretruna rodas analizējot jautājumus par kursu pietiekamību un nepieciešamību (*skat. 1. tabulu*).

Jautājumā par profesionālās pilnveides esošo situāciju un profesionālās pilnveides kursu pietiekamību tālmācībā 26% (n= 55) respondentu uzskata, ka kursi tālmācībā šobrīd Latvijā ir pietiekoši, savukārt no 26% (n=55) respondentiem 19% (n= 39) uzskata, ka kursi tālmācībā ir nepieciešami un 4% (n= 9) ļoti nepieciešami.

Iespējams, ka respondenti par tālmācību kursu reālo situāciju ir domājuši kopumā, ņemot vērā ne tikai tālmācību formu, bet arī klātienēs kursus, kur piedāvājumu klāsts ir ļoti liels un arī tēmu izvēle ir pieejama dažāda.

1.tab. Respondetu vērtējums par tālmācību kursu pietiekamību un nepieciešamību  
Table 1 The respondent evaluation of the necessity for distance learning courses

Vai šobrīd ir pietiekoši profesionālās pilnveides kursi – tālmācības formā?	Novērtējiet tālmācības kursu nepieciešamību:				Kopā
	Nav nepieciešami	Daļēji nepieciešami	Nepieciešami	Ļoti nepieciešami	
Jā, ir pietiekoši	1 (0,5%)	9 (4%)	36 (17%)	9 (4%)	55 (26%)
Jā ir, bet maza izvēle	1 (0,5%)	8 (4%)	24 (11%)	23 (11%)	56 (27%)
Nē, nav pietiekoši	0	4 (2%)	15 (7%)	15 (7%)	34 (16%)
Nezinu	2 (1%)	24 (11%)	29 (14%)	10 (5%)	65 (31%)
Kopā	4 (2%)	45 (21%)	104 (50%)	57 (27%)	210 (100%)

Projekta realizācijai ļoti svarīgi bija izzināt, kuras medicīnas tēmas respondentus interesē apgūt tālmācībā (*skat. 2. tabulu*). Apkopojot aptaujas rezultātus un sakārtojot piedāvātās tālmācības tēmas prioritāri, kā svarīgāko tālmācības tēmu 38% (n=80) respondentu atzina neatliekamo medicīnisko palīdzību. Rezultāts varētu būt saistīts ar obligātu prasību apgūt šo tēmu ārstniecības personu reģistra uzturēšanai un sertifikācijai. Otru svarīgāko tālmācības tēmu 33% (n= 68) respondentu atzina brūču aprūpi. Interese par brūču aprūpi varētu būt saistīta ar to, ka pēc Latvijas Republikas Centrālās Statistikas pārvaldes datiem (<http://www.csb.gov.lv>) Latvijas iedzīvotāju vidū ir vērojama populācijas novecošana un vecāku gada gājuma iedzīvotāju īpatsvars ir salīdzinoši augsts. Hroniskas brūces, piemēram, trofiskas arteriālas un venozas čūlas, ir vērojamas gados vecākiem cilvēkiem, tāpēc ar jautājumiem par brūču aprūpi arvien vairāk saskaras dažādu specialitāšu pārstāvji – ārsti, ārstu palīgi, māsas, māsu palīgi, arī farmaceiti. Teorētiskās un praktiskās zināšanas par pareizu un brūces stāvoklim atbilstošu brūču aprūpi, prasme tās pielietot ir faktori, kas ietekmē brūces dzīšanu, pacienta dzīves kvalitāti un ārstniecības iestāžu un pacientu izmaksas (Franks, Barker, Collier, et al., 2016). Balstoties uz šo aktualitāti tika izvēlēta tēma: “Brūču aprūpe”, kura tika iekļauta projekta tālākā realizācijā, izstrādājot interaktīvus kursa materiālus tālmācībai un tika veikta kursa aprobācija.

2.tab. **Prioritārās tālākizglītības kursu tēmas, tālmācību formā**  
*Table 2 The priority distance learning topics of further education courses*

Tēmas	n	%
Klīniskās, diagnostiskās procedūras	56	27%
Aprūpes procesa īstenošana praksē	53	25%
<b>Brūču aprūpe</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>33%</b>
Kardiovaskulāras slimības un pacientu aprūpe	34	16%
Gastroenteroloģiskās slimības un pacientu aprūpe	28	13%
Abdomināla ķirurģija un pacientu aprūpe	22	11%
Traumu guvušu pacientu aprūpe	39	19%
<b>Neatliekamā medicīniskā palīdzība</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>38%</b>
Pacientu aprūpe perioperatīvā periodā	12	6%
Plaušu un elpošanas ceļu slimības un pacientu aprūpe	23	11%
<b>Garīgā aprūpe</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>28%</b>
Cukura diabēts un pacientu aprūpe	46	22%
Enterālā un parenterāla barošana	35	17%
Cits	30	14%

52% (n= 109) respondentu labāk apgūtu tēmas tālmācībā, izmantojot lasāmus materiālus un 40% (n=83) izmantojot video lekcijas. Rezultāts parāda respondentu vēlamās, atbilstošākās mācīšanās metodes, kā arī rezultāts varētu būt

saistāms ar to, ka šobrīd Latvijā māsām, ārstu palīgiem nav pieejamas un iespējams maz zināmas un izmantotas citas mācību metodes tālmācībā, piemēram, interaktīvi materiāli, kurā var gan klausīties, gan lasīt, gan pārbaudīt savas zināšanas un līdzdarboties, kā arī maz pieejamas tiešsaistes lekcijas, kurā var ne tikai klausīties, bet veidot tūlītēju atgriezenisku saikni.

Otrā aptaujā, piedalījās  $n=55$  respondentu, no kuriem 82 % ( $n=45$ ) respondentu bija ar māsas kvalifikāciju un 18 % ( $n=10$ ) respondentu ar ārstu palīga kvalifikāciju.

Novērtējot tālmācību kursa izstrādāto materiālu kvalitāti, 46 % ( $n=25$ ) respondentu tos vērtē kā teicamus un 53% ( $n=29$ ) vērtē kā izcilus, 1 respondents vērtē kā labus, kas ir pozitīvs rādītājs, lai turpinātu iesākto darbu pie interaktīviem materiāliem. Pozitīvs vērtējums bija arī par materiāla saturisko atbilstību, kur 89% ( $n=49$ ) respondentu uzskata, ka saturs pilnībā atbilst gaidītajam. Tāpat 31% ( $n=17$ ) respondentu atzina, ka interaktīvie materiāli bija interesanti un saistoši ar to, ka tika izmantota interaktivitāte, kas nozīmē aktīva dalība mācīšanās laikā, savukārt 67% ( $n=37$ ) respondentu atzina, ka materiāli bija interesanti un saistoši ar to, ka varēja pārbaudīt savas zināšanas. Zināšanu pāšpārbaude ir viens no būtiskiem priekšnosacījumiem, izstrādājot materiālus tālmācībā, svarīgi, lai students aktīvi līdzdarbotos, varētu pārbaudīt, nostiprināt iegūtās zināšanas, kas savukārt paaugstina mācīšanās motivāciju.

Izstrādājot un piedāvājot tālmācību kursu, svarīgi bija noskaidrot, vai respondenti sastapās ar kādām tehniskām grūtībām materiālu apguvē. Rezultāti parāda, ka 67% ( $n=37$ ) respondentu nebija grūtības, savukārt 46% ( $n=25$ ) respondentu bija daļējas grūtības, jo apgūstot interaktīvos materiālus dažreiz nezināja, ko atvērt, kur spiest, kas liek vēlreiz pārskatīt un piestrādāt pie sagatavoto materiālu informāciju un saprotamību.

Kursa materiāls, kuru aprobēja respondenti, atbilst 4 akadēmiskām stundām, 66% ( $n=36$ ) respondentu atzina, ka izstrādātais kursa materiāls atbilst noteiktām akadēmiskām stundām, savukārt 35% ( $n=19$ ) respondentu atzina, ka ir nepieciešams ilgāks laiks, lai apgūtu šādus materiālus. Rezultāts ir skaidrojams ar to, ka katram ir atšķirīgs mācīšanās stils un ātrums, tāpēc ne visiem tālmācība būs pieņemama mācību forma, tāpat šāda materiāla apguvei ir nepieciešama liela pašmotivācija, kam nepieciešams ilgāks mācīšanās laiks.

Pozitīvs rādītājs ir tas, ka 66% ( $n=36$ ) respondentu ir gatavi maksāt par izstrādāto kursu tālmācībā, kas atbilst 4 akadēmiskām stundām, robežās no 7 līdz 10 eiro un 25% ( $n=14$ ) daļēji gatavi. Šāds rezultāts varētu būt saistīts ar ekonomisko ieguvumu īpaši reģionos dzīvojošām un strādājošām māsām, jo mācoties tālmācībā, nav nepieciešams izmantot finanšu līdzekļus transporta pakalpojumiem, lai nokļūtu kursu norises vietā, ēdināšanas pakalpojumiem un nakšņošanai.

## **Secinājumi** **Conclusion**

Ārstniecības personu profesionālās pilnveides kursi tālmācībā ir atzīstams mācīšanās veids, kas Latvijā pamatā tiek realizēts video lekciju formātā.

Tālmācības galvenais ietekmējošais faktors, ārstniecības personām, ir pašmotivāciju trūkums un laika trūkums.

Ārstniecības personām šobrīd tiek piedāvāti profesionālās pilnveides kursi tālmācībā, bet lielāka daļa 61% respondentu tālmācību iepriekš nav izmantojuši.

Profesionālās pilnveides kursi tālmācībā ir nepieciešami ne tikai, lai būtu plašāks piedāvājums, bet nepieciešamību nosaka pieprasījums, kas saistāms ne tikai ar laika ietaupījumu bet arī ar finanšu ietaupījumu.

Jaunu profesionālās pilnveides kursu tēmas aktualitāti nosaka aktuālie jautājumiem veselības aprūpē un obligāta prasība sertifikācijai.

Projekta laikā izstrādātie kursa materiāli tālmācībai ir kvalitatīvi, lai apgūtu mācību tēmas saturu un atbilst iepriekš noteiktām akadēmiskām stundām.

## **Summary**

The article comprises information on the development of distance learning and its significance in study process, and focuses on the advancement of new professional development courses in form of distance learning. The article reflects only a part of the entire project, concerning the research focus group.

The paper reflects 2 surveys, first of which was accomplished with an aim “to evaluate feasibility and necessity for further education courses for medical personnel in form of distance learning”, while the other survey aimed to assess the newly developed distance learning course methodological material for continuing education.

Distance learning is a relevant form of further education for medical personnel, as participants can learn in a favorable time, place and pace. The main hindering factor affecting successful distance learning is the lack of time and self-motivation.

Distance learning for professional development is available for medical personnel, but the majority of respondents (61%) haven't previously used this form of education.

Professional development courses are essential, which is acknowledged by 76% of respondents; this is attributed not only to a wider supply, but also determined by time and financial savings. New professional development course topics are determined by current problems in patient care and mandatory requirements for medical personnel certification.

During the project our team developed high quality distance learning course materials for continuing education, which allow acquiring study subject contents and corresponds to pre-defined academic content.

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## PRAGMATIC APPROACH UPON THE INSTITUTIONAL EDUCATIONAL VERBALINTERACTION

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**Abstract.** *The present paper intends to analyze the institutional educational verbal interaction from the pragmatics point of view, as pragmatics is that linguistic discipline focused on the dialogized communication performed by real speakers: the teacher (instructor, trainer) and his students. I was interested in emphasizing the type of verbal; interaction established during this special form of communication, the way the principles of communication are kept or broken during the dialogue between teacher and student, different types of discourse performed by the teacher while discussing with his students. I was also interested in underlining the role of the deictic elements (especially the subjective ones) in the communication performed within the didactic process of teaching-learning.*

*The present paper intends to outline the importance of pragmatics in achieving an efficient teaching-learning process for the both sides implied: both for the teachers who will succeed in teaching easier their subject matters, and for the students who will understand faster the theoretic concepts and thus will be able to turn them into efficient and useful knowledge for their future career. Owing to my university teaching experience, I have faced lots of situations when pragmatics helped me out. In this paper I will focus my attention upon my didactic activities performed when teaching the Romanian language for foreign students (as I also teach Pragmatics, Advertising and Politic Discourse to the Romanian students of my Faculty). The present paper contains four parts as it follows: introduction, literature review, case study and conclusions (accompanied by limitations of the paper and recommendations).*

**Keywords:** *verbal interaction, pragmatic act, verbal acts, teaching-learning process, student.*

### Introduction

The evolution of the nowadays society way of thinking determined by the development of the social and economic life around, implied major changes in configuring classroom teaching and learning processes. The traditional concept of *teacher* includes instructional designers, trainers and other educators whose main activity is to educate students, namely to prepare them for facing real professional life. They perform a new type of discourse which is able to make the students understand faster and easier the theoretic concepts: a discourse built on pragmatics basis. During the last few decades, they have all been determined to adopt new

philosophies which embrace and support the construction of student-centered learning environments (Seifert & Simmons, 2016, p. 1-18). A particular feature of this new trend stands for shifting the focus of teaching and learning process from the teacher and referent of the educational discourse to the learner. More and more attention is now paid to the student (who turns into an obvious object of the educational verbal interaction) in a greater extend than to the quality or quantity of the information transmitted from teacher to student. As long as the student became a totally new character submitted to the process of education, he has been also given a new part to play: namely, he has been invited to take a more active role in his own learning. This thing was made possible owing to the new type of educational discourse performed by teachers who were interested in informal and friendly, yet polite and scientific talk able to create the necessary empathy between them and their students.

### **Literature review**

Cognitive psychology and the related fields have increasingly advanced. Thus they provided significant pieces of information regarding the desirable categories of student actions and, also verbal interactions. Specialists have shown (Tanner, Keedy, & Galis, p. 154-157) that knowledge acquisition can be maximized within a proper learning context. They have adopted *the theory of situated condition*, according to which the amount of knowledge transmitted to students cannot be separated from the culture to which it belongs. Thus learning became a process of enculturation whose experts not only to be good trainers (namely, teachers), but also to assimilate the cultural universe they stand for and to be able to transmit language culture and civilization at the same time, within the specific verbal interaction they perform on pragmatics basis. As a teacher, I have noticed the importance of the so-called maxims concerning the teaching-learning process, upon which the specialists agreed (Tanner, Keedy, & Galis, 2013, p. 154–157). These maxims reflect a kind of a constructivist type of instruction, being grounded in cognitive theories. Here are the most representative features of instruction according to the above-mentioned maxims:

- Its whole-to-part approach (in this view, the students should perceive the image of the whole task before they are submitted to accomplish sub-skills or component parts of the respective task;
- Its authentic character (in this view, instruction should be based on real world situations, so that the students will be able to recognize them and to offer other similar examples. Otherwise, the teaching-learning process may lead to oversimplifications which can easily make knowledge rigid and useless because of its being less functional; for

instance, I have discussed with them aspects of Romanian traditions, after which I have asked them to make a similar presentation referring to their own national traditions. The result was marvelous as they had a comparative image of traditions specific to more countries (China, Turkey, Israel and Romania), fact which really improved their knowledge;

- Its flexibility towards creating a multiple perspective approach to complex problems (the students should be offered different strategies which could be flexibly applied in finding solutions to complex problems of general interest;
- Its action orientation (in this view, it is recommended that students should learn and work at the same time. There will be no barriers between the theoretic instruction and the practical one, in the sense that the more implied within their own learning the students will be, the better their final result will be. They should be given authentic environments (though they are novices) to work in as experts in order to help them in making the necessary connection between the conceptual knowledge and the procedural knowledge.

One of the most efficient approaches that is based on the principles of constructivism is *problem-based learning (PBL)*. This model is the most innovative type of verbal interaction performed on educational purpose. It is characterized by the following main features: it uses authentic problems; it creates a student-centered learning environment; it provides an active environment for the student to learn better; its aim is to make learning to be the obvious result of associating theoretic concepts with practice (Jones, Rasmunssen, & Moffitt, 2011, p. 89-94). All these features make PBL be different from the traditional educational and instructional approaches for which content is the most important point of interest. Thus content came to be presented the first, and then a related problem came as to exemplify the theoretic concepts. Bridges and Hallinger (2010) presented five major characteristics of problem-based education, as it follows: the starting point for the teaching-learning process is a real problem. (The teacher will submit a real slice of life to his students and start discussing about it in the view of the theoretic concepts supposed to be taught, fact which means that the teacher should firstly choose an example from the life around able to exemplify the theoretic issue. Thus reality will be no longer viewed as an example or assigned as a simple exercise); students are considered to be future professionals (in the sense that they will be asked to motivate their solutions on scientific grounds); students will be trained according to acquiring professional knowledge related to real problems rather than to specific disciplines (it means that inter-disciplinary approach is encouraged at its most. They will be trained to find solutions surpassing the borders of a strict discipline and find it easy and

necessary to embark upon entering another discipline if the solution of the pursued issue will ask him to); students will be more responsible for their instruction, education and learning (in the sense that once they are motivated to solve a real problem, they will do their best to find the solution in spite of their intellectual effort; learning will be more efficient for the students whether it occurs within a small group rather than individually or within large groups.

There are various ways a problem may be presented on the background of problem-based learning, fact which depends on the type of verbal interaction established between the instructor (teacher) and the student: by means of written cases (when it is a verbal interaction of transaction between the interlocutors); by means of vignettes containing limited information (necessary to satisfy the requests of the students for specific data); filmed episodes (which will be discussed later on, meaning that a personal verbal interaction may be established between the teacher and his students); interviews with focus groups (Bridges & Hallinger, p. 14). The real problems may be considered to be anchors for the learning process (Jones, Rasmunssen, & Moffitt, 2011, p. 118). These ‘‘anchors’’ have been much appreciated by specialists as they ‘‘capture the imagination, be perceived as important by learners, legitimize the disciplinary content they integrate, and accommodate a variety of learning approaches’’ (Barab, 2016, p. 53). Such anchors of the problem based learning should be general enough in order to be pursued from various perspectives (so that both the teacher and his students, according to their individual prior experience and knowledge to be able to state his own point of view. Thus the dialogue may develop freely and friendly, and the results will be remarkable as all the participants will accomplish his main aim as Koschmann (2013, p. 201) or Feltovich (2004, p. 59) showed. Such problem-based projects can be achieved by students in the classroom in close connection with the purposes aimed at by the teacher, namely: to develop the power of selection of the students (thus the teacher will ask the students to choose from the problems listed by him according to the rank of social, economic or cultural importance); to increase the students responsibility by asking them to choose from among the problems listed by them. There can be identified more forms that the problem may take. Here are the most significant ones: an event ( a real situation); a set of questions; a descriptive statement. No matter the nature of the problem submitted to students, such project-works should follow several phases as they were outlined by Seifert and Simmons (2012, p. 72): problem formulation; data collection; brainstorming solutions; evaluating and selecting solutions; implementing the solutions; assessment.

## Discussions

I will briefly present several delicate aspects of teaching Romanian language to foreign students, aspects which I have focused upon during my didactic activity in The University of Bucharest. Thus, I have noticed that the same theoretic concepts may be differently taught according to the features of the audience (namely: age, level of culture, habits, customs, nationality, cultural universe they belong to), but making use of the same type of personal verbal interaction. We are all acquainted with the methods of learning as we are all teachers. Yet it depends on our own communicative competence and didactic diplomacy to be successful in teaching the Romanian language to the foreign students in front of us. **Explanation** is a method of oral communication (Cerghit, 2015) which can be much improved whether we perform it by means of our pragmatics knowledge. It turns out to be profitable for us to present a grammatical concept/category by making references to the corresponding one in the linguistic system of the students in front of us. But what if the two linguistic systems are absolutely incompatible? Actually, this is a very frequent situation in Romania, as many Arabian, Chinese or Jewish students study in Romania. Practices showed me how important it is to know pragmatics, and thus to be able to build *pragmatic acts* behind your proper discourse. It is well-known that the pragmatic act stands for that unspoken message which is hidden behind the words (Taylor & Talbot, 2008, p. 19). The speaker simply suggests his interlocutor an idea, and lets him draw the conclusion by himself as ‘a person convinced against his will is of his opinion still’ (Sutherland & Sylvester, 2009, p. 118). Here is an example: before teaching the plural inflexions to a group of Arabian students, I will encourage them saying that this very issue is easier in Romanian language than it is in their own language where, besides singular and plural inflexions there are also dual inflexions. In other words, in Romanian language, the nouns may have only two forms (of singular and plural), while in Arabian, they meet dual besides singular and plural. The pragmatic act is that the Romanian language is easier than the Arabian one, so that the students should be happy to face a more accessible linguistic system. Once they are induced this idea, they will successfully assimilate this piece of knowledge because they will be eager to experiment something easy. **Story-telling** is another oral method of learning which helped me out of many other difficult problems of our Romanian grammar. This method plays two functions at the same time: both a communicative function as it is the main tool for transmitting new knowledge, and a cognitive one as it helps the student to improve his knowledge. My teaching experience showed me that there is no difficulty in teaching the adjective with four forms (masculine/neuter singular; feminine singular; masculine plural; feminine/neuter plural). Moreover, the foreign students will feel comfortable to hear that most of the Romanian adjectives have

four distinctive inflexions. The problem starts when we, the teachers, have to explain them that there are also adjectives which develop three distinct inflexions (masculine/neuter singular; feminine singular; masculine/neuter/feminine plural), two inflexions (one for singular no matter the genre, one for the plural), as well as invariable adjectives. The problem is that the foreign students are not willing to learn by heart anything, as these three categories are constituted of several items which should be memorized as such. The scientific explanation referring to the origin of the words (whether they belong to the usual vocabulary, or to neologisms) does not work for the foreign students (the way it proves to work for the Romanian ones) for the simple reason that they are not Romanian native speakers, so that they do not realize the difference between *atroce* (which is a neologism, meaning *fierce*) and *subțire* (which is an ordinary word, meaning *thin*). They hear the both words for the first time in their lives, so they treat them just the same. The scientific explanation which have worked for the Romanian students who should easily understand that neologisms (like *atroce*) are invariable, while those usual adjectives ending in *-e* (like *subțire*, *mare*) develop two inflexions only. I was saved by story-telling. I created a little story which proved to be successful in teaching more and different nationalities of foreign students, no matter their age. So that, when teaching the adjective with 2 inflexions, the teacher should make the following steps: write the subject of the lesson on the whiteboard (The Adjective with 2 inflexions); tell the story to the students; select (out of the story) the adjectives meant to be kept in mind by students (namely, the proper subject of the lesson); write these adjectives on the whiteboard; at the end ask them: is it simple?

They have been all satisfied with the story. Here is the story: (attention! You should use for telling the story only the words they know up to that moment): you pay a visit to a friend. The host brings in two trays: there is a *thin (subțire)* slice of *sweet (dulce)*, *green (verde)* and *cold (rece)* melon on one of the trays; on the other one, there is an *old (veche)* cup of *hot (fierbinte)* coffee. What do you choose? Which one do you prefer? The various types of *verbal acts* were of much help in building the story. *The representative verbal acts* proved to be necessary for outlining those specific adjectives with 2 inflexions. So the story had to be created so as to focus the attention of the students upon certain adjectives (standing for some qualities of real items). As the persons in front of me are foreign students whose life is mostly performed inside their communities (so, paying a visit is, no doubt, more frequently often performed then when being in their own countries, I have decided upon a script able to emphasize this activity.) I have also used **brain-storming** in various moments of the teaching-learning process like the moment of writing a composition.

As I was interested in attracting them to my city (Bucharest), as well as in informing them about it, I asked my foreign students to prepare a composition

entitled 'Life in Bucharest'. Here are a few methodological pieces of advice: the students will associate themselves in small work teams (on friendly criteria); the teacher writes the topic on the whiteboard; the teacher will write the plan of the composition on the whiteboard; each work team will try to work individually in order to answer the requests of the plan; the students will be given a specific and clearly specified span of time for every single task (5-6 minutes for each); the teacher will watch the way they work in teams and will encourage their efforts; every team will name a colleague to present the result of their work together, and another one to write on the whiteboard; all the other groups (work teams) will write all the presentations in their copy-books; the teacher will appreciate the efforts of every single work team and will utter the final request: to write (at home) a composition able to include all the presented ideas. Pragmatics enters the stage from the very first step when I ask them to make work teams, with a view to help the students to obtain better results. This is a promise: they will associate themselves on friendly criteria, and they will pleasantly work together, they will strengthen their relationships, and get to know each other better. So that, they will be willing to perform such brainstorming activities which will be perceived to be closer to their personalities than plain, traditional learning. Thus *the promising verbal acts* play an important part. On the other side, working together in an informal context will make the students be open-minded to finding good solutions in order to bring a good score to their own work team. In pragmatics, the context represents the proper physical environment in which the conversation takes place, together with the specific mood of the interlocutors (Searle, 1977; Taylor & Talbot, p. 198). It is exactly what it should be done in order to teach by focusing the attention upon the students: you, as a teacher, create them an informal context based on friendly terms, and the students will feel no constrains and will develop a real scientific dialogue, keeping a good mood and a positive and optimistic state of mind, at the same time. As they have previously informed themselves about Bucharest, they will be able to make an interesting exchange of information and opinions. So that, every single presentation will bear the fingerprint of their own personality. Thus, they will use affective verbal acts, bringing out into strong relief those aspects which are of interest for him/her. I have noticed that the girls are mostly interested in parks, gardens, fashion, contest or parades, as well as in the cultural side of life: theatres, exhibitions, concerts and traditions; boys are more preoccupied by restaurants, clubs, football teams, sports in general, motor cars and history. Once one Chinese girl spoke about the Romanian Christmas traditions, as it was something very new and interesting to her and even learned by heart some carols. Many Arabian students were interested in the history of Bucharest (including the origin of its name), as well as in the oldest buildings in Bucharest.

### **Limitations of These Studies**

The present article has its limitations. The strict number of pages forced me to focus my attention only upon a few aspects, while more others still wait for being tackled about. Many other curricular as well as extracurricular activities should have been taken into consideration in order to offer a complete view of the learning process.

### **Conclusions and Further Study**

The teaching learning process has seriously developed nowadays with a view to improve the following aspects: the relationship between teacher and student (who are the performers of the teaching learning process); the self-image of every single performer; the final result. The so called problem-based learning has focused its attention upon changing the traditional specific of every performer: it is not the teacher the most important person nowadays, within the teaching-learning process, but the student, who is given an active, dynamic and personalized part to play, fact which will make the student take a direct part within the teaching-learning process. Consequently, the modern student will be more willing to accept information because he is given real problems to solve by means of his knowledge. Pragmatics proves to be more and more important nowadays as real and informal talk is more and more encouraged. By means of pragmatic acts and deictic elements of space and time, as well as by building a specific context or situational context, more efficient results can be obtained. These better results can belong both to the teachers (who succeeds in handling their students better), and to students (who become more devoted to their own scientific research). What I do recommend to further investigators is to give a special attention to pragmatics and to its communicative principles.

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# **FB, THEY AND ME – THE ATTEMPTS OF USING SOCIAL MEDIA AS TOOLS FOR REFLECTIVE LEARNING AND COMMUNICATING AT THE UNIVERSITY**

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***Abstract.** The concept of reflective learning focuses on the idea of analysing the practitioners' experiences and the way they can learn from them. Considering the higher education, the author decided to describe students' and academic teacher's experiences related to learning and communicating through closed groups on Facebook. The three words: FB, they, me are deliberately put together in the title of this article. The experiences were collected to analyse the authors' own teaching methods and to determine the best learning outcomes by academic teachers and students. The methods of collecting data were mainly based on individual, Internet interviews. As a theoretical concept, the author referred to reflective learning models introduced by (among others) D. A. Schön, T. Borton, D. A. Kolb and G. Gibbs as well as to the theory of transformative learning and Connectivism.*

***Keywords:** Connectivism, Facebook, higher education, reflective learning, social media, students' and teachers' experiences, transformative learning.*

## **Introduction**

### **Academic didactics meanders – in which direction?**

One of my inspirations to write this text was the Professor Czachorowski's article published recently on *edunews.pl* portal, in which the author brings up a new spirit to very well-known methods of noting at the University. In his proposal, the notes can be prepared graphically, but without using computers or Internet. He emphasises the significance of preparing notes pictorially and what is more important – manually, like we used to do sometime time ago. Contemporarily, the advanced technology allows people to use electronics on a broad scale in education. In this part of the text, the considerations will be mainly focused on academic education perspective which perhaps, as Czachorowski argues, stopped dead in the stage of traditional notebooks, where students write down their thoughts in words or in the stage of Power Point presentations which

are constantly read by the academic teachers during the lectures (Czachorowski, 2016).

As a younger-generation representative of academic teachers and a researcher interested in the area of digital phenomena in higher education, I reluctantly enforce traditional methods of working with students during practical classes. It does not happen to me to dictate or read during classes. It is important for me for several reasons. First of all, throughout the process of becoming an academic teacher I have observed that students value being authentic and that they are more involved in the process of learning if they also may 'be themselves'. Creating any encasements around you when being inaccessible, distant and talking in an obscure jargon may generate unnecessary barriers between students and lecturers. Secondly, when I was observing my masters, I had a chance to verify my foregoing beliefs to the length of the learning process that a young academic teacher must unarguably take before she or he will be ready to deliver lectures or conceptualisations that would be interesting to the extent in which someone would like to make a note. There is one more relevant reason why I do not, putting it more colloquially, 'force' students to make written notes and myself to read Power Points presentations during the classes. I am deeply intrigued how contemporary students, who often are the representatives of the digital natives generation (Prensky, 2001), do learn and also where and when the process of learning happen in the digital era? Thus, I decided to test something different in academic didactics, oppositional to both: the Czachorowski's proposal as well as the traditional way of teaching.

I established a closed group on Facebook for students of Pedagogy at the Department which I cooperate with<sup>1</sup>. At the beginning, the contact through the group was mainly based on informing them about the timetable changes, accepting students' excuses for their absence and posting them mandatory articles that had to be read for the classes. With time, however, I have realised that they started posting links with the articles found on the Internet, they scanned some texts, so others did not have to go to the library and they tried to negotiate between themselves the way the classes, which were mainly prepared by them, should look like. They also discussed which texts ought to be read before entering the class, some of them even tried to force others to participate in the Oxford-Style debate, which finally fell through. Moreover, they were determining the ethical issues

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<sup>1</sup>I recently had a chance to visit a colleague who was in Spain at the internship in the framework of Erasmus+ Programme for PhD students. During this visit, I talked with several dozen students from all over the world who were participants of the student exchange programs. They were, generally, describing the way classes look like at the Spanish University and told me about some professors who create closed educational groups on Facebook with students. These open-ended discussions result in the idea of establishing a closed group on Facebook for the Polish students of Pedagogy at the Department which I cooperate with. The visit took place in summer holidays of 2016 and it had a private character, however, the experiences collected during the trip influenced my further didactic practice at the University.

concerned with other unauthorised people's access to the group. Eventually, they even criticised desk arrangement at our Department class, which in their opinion reminded a traditional school furniture setting, and they decided that we should reconfigure desks, as they would be set in a one big square in the centre of the class, which one of them commented later: 'so now people may look in other people's eyes when they talk to each other'. After each class I published some pictures taken during each team presentation. Although, all of them agreed for their images to be published within the group, the issue of their safety was raised many times, as one of the most important, in the process of reflection on our classes. We were trying to take a reflection on most actions that took place during the semester. The attempt of peering the Facebook as a potential tool for learning and communicating at the University evoked my personal need of collecting the experiences and impressions that students had during the process of establishing the group and the process of being in virtual, closed educational-goaled group. I will definitely return to that thread of the story in the further part of the manuscript.

The second inspiration to write this work were my professional interests, which concentrate on learning theories, especially adults' education concepts. I have been continuously investigating the area of learning models and theories that would explain this unarguably relevant and contemporary topical phenomenon of digitalism. I found out some significant concepts of several academics. It seems that the concepts presented below may be related or may refer to the phenomena of digitalism, which have become an area of my explorations. I have, therefore, decided to characterise them briefly in this article.

The essentials of working on experiences were introduced by John Dewey, who was raised in the second half of the XIXth century within equality and fraternity spirit in the United States of America (Gutek, 2003). His early childhood and adolescence experiences based on democratic rules influenced his subsequent philosophical considerations and everyday educational practice. The Dewey's *learning by doing* concept and his beliefs that we need to contrast traditional, formal education to the so-called new experimental school have become a starting point for examining the term reflection (Gutek, 2003). The main goal of his experimental school, founded in Chicago, was to reconstruct individual's own experience so that he or she may develop his or her most valuably. In Dewey's understanding, the reflection is an attribute of an activity. It literally means, it is not only thinking, as we generally consider the word, but it is more like a specific, valuable way of acting. Dewey contrasts the reflective action to the routine action. In his analysis, the word 'reflection' contains two components – the first one is a reflective action based on three abilities: open-mindedness, whole-heartedness, and responsibility. The other component represents the reflective thinking (Gore, 1987). The reflection concept introduced

by Dewey provides for something more than only reflective thinking and acting. It refers to the socio-political and ethical aspects.

Later research works focused on the area of reflection led to the conclusion introduced by Schön (1983, 1987). In his point of view, we should consider the reflection process from two perspectives – *reflection in action* and *reflection on action*. The first one literally means critical thinking and experimenting during the concrete individual's action. In this process, a subject is constantly conscious of the undertaken actions but is not obliged to verbalise his or her thoughts. *Reflection on action* is verbalising, analysing and clarifying things or experiences retrospectively. It generally takes place in cooperation with other people (Perkowska-Klejman, 2013). The Schön's model may be considered within the academic context and allows a university teacher to observe his or her own work from the perspective of the self-evaluation process (Mizerek, 2010). The area of reflection was also mentioned in works of many other researchers. In Terry Borton's Developmental Framework, the reader discovers three symbolic steps of reflection summarised in the following questions: What? So what? Now what? (Perkowska-Klejman, 2013). We may also refer to David Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle that is mainly based on reflection (Illeris, 2006) or Graham Gibbs' Reflective Learning Cycle (Gibbs, 1998) that consists in six stages of reflective learning. Considering the higher education, I feel obliged to mention Jack Mezirow's Transformation Theory (Mezirow, 1998). He states that the essence of adult education process is critical reflection that allows the subject to reach his or her thoughts schemes and tacit presuppositions that may limit his or her own development (Mezirow, 1998). Finally, the Connectivism concept recently discovered in Canadians' papers (Siemens, 2005) should be taken into consideration as well. The concept consists in informal learning process of individuals. If we agree with the representatives of Connectivism that the learning process of a contemporary digital society is based on different views, experiences and transferable skills, the latest knowledge that is also reliable and, what is more, if we admit that learning is not only a process of assimilating some information but primarily a process of creating the knowledge that integrates cognition as well as emotions in the process of coming to understanding, this would let us, at least to some extent, to the return to the Dewey's essential postulates. It may also be possible to establish something similar to his laboratory school in Chicago.

The semester, during which I made an attempt of working with students' groups through the Facebook, is coming along the end. I am really fond of feelings, thoughts and experiences that the students had within participation in the educational group. I asked them to answer a list of questions which seem relevant from the perspective of self-evaluation process of an academic teacher at the University. It also seems to be important for me because of the question that Professor Czachorowski raised in his article about old-fashioned, traditional

academic didactic methods, which in his point of view stopped dead in the stage of reading Power Point presentations and preparing students' word notes. Although his idea concerning the visual thinking (polish 'ryslenie or 'myslografia') (Czachorowski, 2016) seems to be an alternative to the old-fashioned methods, I am not trying to undermine his proposal despite the fact I am not testing it. I have to admit, however, that I perceive his point of view as a perfect inspiration for reviewing academic didactics in general; in this text I focus on the reflection on self-taken action, according to the established educational group on Facebook, which unarguably means leaving behind the traditional model of learning at the University.

### **Entering the Internet sphere – research**

To order my reflections related to my initiative of creating closed groups on Facebook, I performed a self-evaluation of this action. It is a research that focuses on collecting data on the course and results of the author's own work. Information collected in this way is the basis for judging the value of actions taken and improving one's skills (Słownik Pojęć Systemu Ewaluacji Oświaty - Dictionary of Notions of Education Evaluation System). In this case, I used conclusive evaluation (Mizerek, 2010), which, in accordance with its assumptions, allows for collecting a lot of data during the action and after its completion. In the presented case, the most important objective of the test was to analyse bilateral experience related to the functioning of a discussion group on Facebook. Knowledge collected in this way was used to determine the possible ways of using Facebook for educational purposes at the University. My intention was also to draw conclusions that would provide foundations for further work with students so that it brings the best effects. To achieve this, I adopted a range of criteria needed to analyse the actions taken. I focused on several problem areas. I was mostly interested in finding answers to the following questions: 1/ What kind of experience related to the creation of a group on FB is regarded as valuable? 2/ What does communication mediated by the computer bring into the learning process? and 3/ What are students' opinions on the form of work using a closed group on FB?

To collect empirical material, I used data triangulation, which allows for better understanding of emerging categories and their properties (Konecki, 2000) and made it possible to find answers to the previously-asked questions. As the initiator and a member of the group at the same time, I started my research from participatory observation (Kozinets, 2012) during the semester. My actions mostly involved observing what activities were undertaken by students in the created closed group and analysing their reactions to posts, PDF files, links, and photos that were published there. Proposing to students the creation of a Facebook

group together with their lecturer seems like a novelty that required special focus on the actions taken by students in various areas. Amongst other things, as regards reactions to learning materials, educational trivia and videos published in the group and also observing their behaviour in relation to the relatively informal and fast form of communication between them and myself. A broad range of behaviours – from no reaction through liking posts to the students' own activity in the discussion group – was a starting point for further research. Being in touch with my students through the discussion group, I decided to use this online tool to collect their statements on the impressions and feelings about the group. For this purpose, I posted a Word file with a semi-structured interview guide (Konarzewski, 2000) in the group and asked the students to complete it. Completed guides were delivered in two ways: electronically (by e-mail) or personally (as a sheet completed by hand). My action was aimed at ensuring maximum anonymity for the participants and preventing their opinions and feelings from being spread in the group. In this way, I collected 28 individual responses. The guide included questions concerning, amongst other things, their attitude towards the participation in such a group, the changes that occurred in it during the semester, the experience related to communication through the group, the availability and usefulness of learning materials and the nature of relations with the lecturer through the group, and finally a sense of security and innovativeness of this method. I used axial coding for data analysis, which allowed me to generate the most important categories from the point of view of the previously-asked research questions and to identify the relationships between them (Konarzewski, 2000).

## **Social media at the University – research results**

### **Getting used to the idea**

The gathered statements clearly show the issue of the students' emotional attitudes towards the idea of establishing the group. Their previous experiences (or their absence) related to being in a Facebook discussion group together with a lecturer generally evoked two types of reactions in students: surprise or a positive response to the idea. Some statements reflecting previous experiences of the participants and their initial feelings are presented below: *I had no contacts with such groups before (...). My first thought was: "but how, with a lecturer in a group? It's pure madness" (PilnyStudent). I had no previous experience with a group that also included the lecturer (...) I liked the initiative, it was something new (GALLANONIM). There are no such initiatives at the University (...) during my entire studies I have not met with such an idea. (...) I thought it was a very good idea to exchange information with the person conducting classes and with other students (...) (Andzia). Frankly speaking, I have met with such an idea for*

*the first time during my studies (...). I thought it was an innovative, very interesting idea (Nyx).* Those opinions are reflected in a further evaluation of being in the group as a positive experience. The participants confirmed their belief that establishing the group was a good idea, or indeed, emphasised the importance of the experience of being in the group for their further positive approach to the idea. The statements of the students revealed some unfavourable and even critical voices, proving the change of their attitude during the semester, for various reasons. In spite of their previous optimism, students declared later: *I believe that the group was established out of the needs of the lecturer – not the students (Pencil). It was influenced by articles in GW (Gazeta Wyborcza<sup>2</sup> – a note by author), which slightly weakened my interest in the content published. I believe that there were too many ideological issues published in the group (Amelia). My approach changed during the semester, I was slightly put off by the mass of information (Magda).* The definite majority of the students' statements prove their enthusiasm at the beginning, during and at the end of the activity undertaken. They emphasise the novelty, innovation of this method and the directness of contacts established through FB: *I thought from the very beginning that it was a cool and modern idea (...) I approached it as a chance to try new methods (studentkaopiek.), I thought it was a good idea to have contact with everybody and a good method of communication (JAMAj.), (...) an innovative, very interesting idea (Nyx).*

The collected material did not reveal any issues related to getting used to the Facebook portal as a tool for learning and communication. This can prove that FB discussion groups are commonly used for maintaining contacts among students. The only novelty is the fact of active participation of the lecturer in one group with the students.

### **Openness to novelty and independence?**

The subsequent stage consisted in an analysis of the content of the statements provided by group participants regarding the impact of other students on their approach towards the idea of creating a group together with the lecturer. They mentioned that their peers also liked the idea. With full conviction, they declared that the approach of other participants had no effect on their initial perception of the group. However, there were two statements proving that not everybody approved of such an idea: *I know that other students were not enthused about the idea, but over time, they became convinced (...) (Magda). My friend commented on this idea in a not very enthusiastic manner, but, generally, the opinions were*

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<sup>2</sup>Gazeta Wyborcza is a social and political journal published in Poland. The issue mentioned by the student is of importance due to changes in the political arena which took place in Poland last year. The reforms introduced in our country in the latest months by the Parliament many times have evoked antagonistic reactions of Poles. Polish media (both the television and the press) are not neutral as to commenting on the events, they also seem to categorically stand by either the ruling party or the opposition parties.



positive (*Blondi123*). It may seem that the students demonstrate an autonomous attitude; they are independent in taking decisions and open to novelties. Nevertheless, although most of them declared initial enthusiasm (in completed interview guides), they perhaps were initially not fully convinced about the advantages of the initiative undertaken.

### **A hindrance or an improvement?**

Most of the surveyed students did not perceive any difficulties related to the functioning of the group on FB. Some inconveniences experienced by them included: problems with public expression of one's own belief on the Internet: *Public expression of one's own opinion even in the Internet is often difficult (ANONIMEK)*, with expressing opposite opinions: *expressing one's own opinion/belief which may be different from the others (paplina12345)*, or retrieving specific information from many other posts published in the group: *It was difficult do differentiate between important and additional information (mk-1394)*. *Too many links, news, with the control of which I sometimes had problems (PilnyStudent)*. On the other hand, participants perceived the group as a great convenience not only as regards rapid communication and contact with the lecturer, but, first of all, as regards the flow of information and educational materials contained in posts: *The group is useful for the rapid flow of information and knowledge (paplina12345)*, (...) *the group proved useful in searching for materials (mk-1394)*. Despite a definitely longer list of advantages of being in the group, the collected material did not allow at this stage to clearly establish the degree to which the discussion group could be useful.

### **Visibility - integration continuum**

Unquestionably, Facebook facilitates the rapid flow of information and improves communication both between class participants themselves as well as between the participants and the lecturer. Frequency, efficiency, speed, simplicity and visibility are the words that best render the impressions described by students. Facebook enables checking the number of views of a given post on an ongoing basis, which provides immediate information on how many class participants have read the information. Posts reach everybody at once. They are not read through the intermediary of the group leader or an e-mail, which can be read, only by logging onto one's mail account. One of the students described it in these words: *Facebook is always on, which ensures that given information will be seen in the group (JAMAj)*. Using the group communication, distortion of the transferred information is avoided. The statement of one class participant confirms this: (...) *the group reduces emergence of contradictory information (gossip) (student1)*. Communication through the FB group has one more value – it can, to some extent, overcome barriers in communication by students. These reflections were confirmed by the following statements provided by the students: *in the discussion group, everybody can express their opinion where, for example,*

*in the class they were not able to make any attempt to discuss, since they are shy (studentka pedagogiki), (...) we could share opinions on a given subject (Andzia), (...) persons who do not speak in the class often participate in the group (student1).* Posts of participants placed in the discussion tab were often received as a willingness to help others. Sometimes students published scans of texts to be read for the class, on other occasions they followed a discussion about a team in which individual people work. The response to such activities meant for some of them support, which is reflected by the following statements *(...) everybody helps each other (Magda). What was good was that everybody actively participated in the group (wenig). Most people helped each other (studentkaopiek.). Classmates immediately wrote to me at the Facebook chat about any news in the group (TuPatka K.).* The gathered material revealed another issue concerning building relations and integration through the FB discussion group. Several students did not experience any improvement as regards communication or maintaining relations with others through participation in the group. However, many of them admitted that computer-mediated communication can favour building relations and maintaining them, and that it serves integration of the entire group: *My contacts with the group did not improve to any noticeable degree (...), but I am aware of the fact that through common writing and discussion, a certain thread of understanding can be created (PilnyStudent), I believe that Facebook generally is a site to keep relations; it favours establishing contacts in an easy way (Nyx), Facebook has a positive effect, maintains relations at a higher level than only meetings in the class (Amelia), (...) the group can integrate its members (student1), The group has not perhaps so much effect on maintaining the contacts, as on establishing the contact (...). This is how bonds emerge (Blondi123).* The statements quoted above are important also in view of the fact that they were made by students in the first year of master degree studies, who generally do not know each other. According to their statements, the suggestion of creating a FB course group could have a moderate effect on the establishing of initial relations, getting to know each other and integration of all participants.

### **Non-traditional teacher and the subjectivity of students**

The nature of relations entered into between students and lecturers (although this is an individual matter) is usually formal. So far, students used to contact me by e-mail, and in rare cases, I provided them with my mobile phone number (most often only to the leader of the group). The fact of participating in one FB discussion group with the students contributed, in my case, to transformation of contacts with them. In my belief, the relations gained new meaning. They asked questions concerning various issues, consulted me about their presentations, or asked me to provide texts for classes in a PDF format, or sometimes simply excused their absence or shared difficulties they encountered while conducting “mini-research” in the field before presentation. The collected research material

made it possible to examine their perception of these specific relations that were new for both sides. Some statements prove the fact that Facebook does not generally affect changes in the nature of relations, such statements as: *Neutral (stped9). The contact the same as in the class (TuPatka K.)* best reflect the feelings of some students related to the area under analysis. Most of them emphasised the partnership, directness and innovative nature of the relation built by us: *I believe that it is a good way of showing the students that you can have good relations with the teacher, that the teacher is not only the one who is standing at the blackboard and shaking a warning finger at someone or giving failing grades (PilnyStudent). The relations were based on conversation, the contact was direct (Nyx), Partner relations with the lecturer (mk-1394).* The very method of evaluating me as a “modern” person made us closer to the notion of subjectively treating each other: *I believe that communication through Facebook makes the student feel more subjective. Because of this, I could personally feel that the lecturer was trying to adjust to our expectations (...) although it was a Facebook group, the respect of the student towards the teacher was maintained (Kasia). Such communication demonstrated a casual, modern style of being of a lecturer and high involvement in conducting classes (Blondi123). I thought that finally she is a lecturer from the modern age (TuPatka K.). We can always count on her, receive an answer, support and providing materials (studentka pedagogiki).* In the opinion of some persons, the contact with the lecturers at the university can be difficult: *Sometimes the contact with the teacher is not the best, while in the group it was very good (...) efficient, fast and nice (wenig). Not every lecturer is so modern as to introduce such a novelty to his or her previous habits. I am even sure that such an idea among some lecturers with whom I had the pleasure to work would be ridiculed (PilnyStudent).* Still others emphasised the value of relations between us in view of the support often provided to them in preparing classes and my personal features. They indicated friendliness, enthusiasm, involvement and ambition. Although some of them did not experience any innovativeness in relations with me, the definite majority perceived the non-traditional model of communication and responded positively to it. One of the persons even declared that, to some extent, the attitude of the lecturer towards the students affected a change in her perception of the entire situation: *The change in my attitude towards this initiative was affected by the teacher conducting our tutorials. Through observation of her, her approach and involvement in our discussion group and into conducting tutorials, I understood that such a group is something fresh and interesting than only writing polite e-mails to the lecturer, in which I always had to preserve the polite form. In our group, if I contributed to any conversations, I obviously kept the polite form, such as “Dear Lidia” or “Dear Teacher” and I also felt respect on the part of the lecturer, who expressed that in a very nice and modern way. I liked very much the very phrase “Thanks”,*

which is rather reserved for closer relations, as it contributed something modern to our conversations. (PilnyStudent). While examining the collected material, a hypothesis can be made that social portals to some extent contribute to warming the relations between students and teachers, and change the previous perception of academic teachers from hardly accessible and alienated to open and close to the students.

### **Non-traditional teaching materials**

Communication through Facebook with students was, for me, important also in view of the possibility of distributing materials and interesting news to the group in the field of pedagogy in an electronic form. As results from my previous experience, students of pedagogy rarely use the resources of the university library. This results, first of all, from the large distance between the social sciences faculty and the university campus where the library is located. It used to be a common practice for me to bring my own books from home to be photocopied or to provide them with ready-made copies of texts. In the process of planning my tutorials this year, I took into account the fact that I was going to propose to the students establishment of a Facebook group and I found some materials in an electronic version, to be able to send them to students at any time. From my perspective, this significantly accelerated the process of preparing for classes. As results from the students' statements, they attached great importance to educational materials published in the discussion group in the form of PDF articles, links to press articles, lectures of the experts in the fields, interviews and scanned texts. At the beginning, I was not sure about the value of teaching aids provided to them. Over time, I observed that they partially used them to prepare their speeches. What can be clearly seen in students' statements is the visible merging of two significant categories related to materials published in the group. First of all, they emphasised the fact of **saving time**, which they could spend on other activities, among which they mentioned studying: *I did not have to search for those articles in the library (...). This shortened the time of preparing for tutorials. (Andzia). Publication of texts was of high importance. Because of that, I saved time and could read the texts more thoroughly (wenig).* Secondly, what seems important is **optimisation of the process related to searching for texts**: *It was huge time saver for me, as everything was available for everybody and, above all, legible (Magda). I think that this made it easier to reach the materials and, in consequence, we could spend more time reading the materials and we could always do something in our spare time, without the need to go to the library or the copy shop (studentka.po).* One person was guided, apparently, by ecological motives, directly related to saving natural resources of the environment: *Texts in the PDF form were of great importance to me, as I try to print as little as possible, I prefer to have the same things in an electronic version (PilnyStudent).* Although it did not play a significant role in the analysed material, I would also like to quote a statement of

a student who emphasised the fact of gathering all materials necessary for studying the subject in one place: *When providing the materials in one place, we can return to them and we have them in one location, without the need to look for them in other places (paplina12345)*. Publishing educational materials available for all participants is of great importance for students who very often have to fulfil the role of parents, employees and students at the same time, which was mentioned in statements: *I was able to have materials required for classes without leaving home and could read them easily, without running to the library, wasting time, which I don't have enough because of studies and work (paplina12345)*. *I saved time, which I don't have much due to work and family. (STUDENT001)*.

Moreover, the students' statements under analysis unquestionably indicate the utilitarian value of the published materials in the learning process. Most students indicated that they definitely made it easier to study or to share information and knowledge: *Texts that were obligatory were some of the most interesting I had an opportunity to read. Therefore I can easily say that they were very useful. They certainly helped me to study (PilnyStudent)*. *They helped me to understand the given material, some materials were more difficult and some easier to read, so it is important to have a choice (among those materials) (paplina12345)*. *Sometimes there were interesting links also after classes (wenig)*. *The materials were partially interesting. Always some of the articles or interviews proved necessary (ANONIMEK)*. *Some articles were useful for me when I was doing my presentation (GALLANONIM)*. *They were sometimes more and sometimes less helpful. It depended on the subject of the class (Mi24)*.

The knowledge of how, what and where students learn is one of the fundamental assumptions of the Connectivism idea proposed by G. Siemens (2005). The most recent and reliable sources and the ability to choose among different information provide the basis for development of human personal self-awareness. Construction of knowledge is based on various opinions and sources (Siemens, 2005). The assumptions of Connectivism in adult learning methods also include their active and creative participation in building knowledge and sharing information, supported by modern technologies. In the material under analysis, originating from interviews, I also observed a visible **coupling between the motivational function and the function supporting learning, fulfilled by the established FB group**. One of the students pointed out earlier links published in the group, leading to articles containing ideological contents which, as she further reported: *permitted me to refer to the beliefs and opinions of persons actively contributing to the group, and sometimes encouraged searching for other content (Amelia)*. Another student pointed out the presence of motivators which, in effect, translated into supporting the learning process: *The discussion group motivated me to work and reminded me that there is less and less time. It generally teaches cooperation, provides an opportunity to exchange opinions and to search for*

various information (*studentka pedagogiki*). Still another person wrote: *The group certainly motivated me by adding articles (...). I started to pay attention to information on the Internet concerning education (STUDENT001). (...) I learnt creativity, involvement in broadening knowledge (stped9). Because of the group, I had an opportunity to extend my knowledge beyond the obligatory materials (ANONIMEK).*

Generally, group participants had no qualms about publishing their own studies, presentations and scanned texts in the group. This was confirmed by the majority of statements, which indicate the need to cooperate and the ability to share with others: *When I had something useful (...) and when I thought that it could be certainly useful for somebody, I was happy to be able to share something (JAMAj.). I believe that when I prepared something for the class and it was verified, then why not share it with others? Perhaps it may turn out handy for someone (PATKA ☺). When I found an interesting text, which was worth sharing. This is a standard, you don't do it grudgingly, we are dependent on each other to some extent; persons who do not share, harm themselves. (student1).* However, the fact that seemed alarming to me was that one person who in previous statements negatively commented on the initiative of creating the group, expressed her anxiety about publishing any content: *I did not publish in this group (with the teacher) but only in the specialty group. I did not like to contribute to the forum of that group, since I felt that I would be evaluated by the teacher and I did not want that (Pencil).* As results from that, closeness and openness in contacts with students and supporting their learning process does not always have to be perceived in a positive way and does not in every case help to escape from the commonly established power structure: a dominating teacher versus subordinate student.

### **Traces left in the web – sense of security**

In the prepared interview guide, I included a whole range of questions related to the issue of feeling secure. They included four areas important from the point of view of this article. The first one concerned publication of the students' results of quizzes and tests in the closed group on Facebook. The second one included questions concerning opinions on the photos of participants that were published in our group after their presentations. Another area concerned the issue of tagging their first names and surnames in posts. The aim of the last one was to check to what extent the participants felt safer in the group after we verified the list of persons authorised to access it. Although a significant part of students had nothing against making the results of quizzes being made public in the discussion group, some of them considered it worthless or proposed specific solutions related to the feeling of security and anonymity in this regard. For instance, one of the participants put forward the following proposal: *I believe that we can manage it in that way that the grades are given on the basis of the student ID number, and*

not with the name and surname (*studetnkaopiek*). Likewise, the opinions of making their image public in the FB group were varied. Although we agreed on this issue during our first class and all participants consented to making photos of them during their presentation and to publication of their image only in the closed group, some of them emphasised later either the pointlessness of this activity or dangerous consequences they saw in relation to such an activity: *Good idea in a CLOSED GROUP. Dissemination outside the group should be strictly forbidden. Photos are good self-control, they help to control our own attitude during the presentation (student1). Photos – a good keepsake, but unnecessary (Amelia), I don't like it too much, as it does not contribute anything to my learning process. Besides, what you publish on the Internet, remains there forever; you can always remove the photo from the group, but you cannot remove it from the Internet (Magda)*. This last statement drew my attention to an important fact of infringing the boundaries of the sense of security of course participants. This issue seems to require particular care while planning further activities related to participation in online activities. However, the idea of tagging students' profiles in the group met with better approval and acceptance; the students did not see any problem with referring to them in the posts and using their first names and surnames. They also mentioned that it helped them to more quickly respond to information addressed directly to them. Initially, the discussion group also included persons from other tutorial groups, which generally were added by the students. I also added another lecturer who taught the same course as a member of the group. Over time, I thought I should ask the students about their willingness to verify the rights to access our group. I asked one of the students, our group admin, to perform it. Students accepted this idea and I had a feeling that they felt much safer from that moment. Their statements oscillated in a continuum: **I did not feel entirely secure to I felt secure after verification of members**. This is illustrated, for example, by such statements: *The idea of verification was great. Persons who have nothing to do with the group should never be made a part of it. I felt that my image and data are better protected (Magda). I think that I felt better after verification (GALLANONIM)*.

Planning any educational activities on the web requires from the teacher a particular sensitivity to issues related to the students' feeling of security. The fact of drawing my attention to the publication of images in the group or the results of their surveys as not entirely appropriate activities is significant to the extent that it could affect the willingness to participate in similar initiatives in the future.

### **Facebook and the need for its use in academia**

Despite a partially unfavourable evaluation of the idea of using the image of participants and carelessness as regards the publication of their test results in the group, students very positively responded to the idea of creating social media discussion groups with the lecturer in the future. In their statements, they declared

the need to undertake initiatives of this type, highlighting their value and listed the advantages of functioning in the group. Among the most important advantages, they reported the experience related to rapid and immediate communication and the efficient course of the learning process. Some of them even proposed specific situations and university courses for which the use of the Facebook site would be justified: *I would like such a group to be established for courses with which students have problems, e.g. methodology of social research (Andzia). (...) such a system of cooperation between the lecturer and the students makes sense (student1). This is a great solution for students and teachers, makes the work of the entire group easier (studentka94).* An interesting reflection on the activity undertaken was made by one of the students: *Such groups should be created in our times. The world and technologies are constantly improving, so we can also change this world and make learning easier (...) as such groups give more possibilities (studentkaopiek).* Her statement refers to the essence of the Connectivism idea, and, namely, one of its principles which treats the learning process as one that can occur outside the human organs – in devices, society, network etc. (Siemens, 2005).

### **FB, they and me (we)? – finding the link between student and academic worlds**

The conducted analysis made it possible to arrive at several important conclusions, on the basis of which I will be able to improve my teaching practice at the University. Below, I am trying to indicate those that are of the highest value from the perspective of self-evaluation of my own work.

First of all, proposing participation in the discussion group on Facebook to students does not involve any difficulty in getting used to this tool. The fact of the widespread use of this portal by students is unquestionable. The only novelty that emerged in the analysed material is co-participation in the group with the lecturer. However, this did not raise any objections from the students. Despite their initial surprise, most of them definitely supported the initiative undertaken and in effect began to perceive the teacher as someone from “their world”, “their generation”, close to them.

Secondly, participation in the group involves frequent online contacts, which, to a certain extent, can serve maintaining relations and even, as revealed in the texts analysed, help to develop bonds and integrate the group. Therefore, it seems particularly reasonable to propose creating such a group at the beginning of a given stage of studies, when the students are beginning to get to know each other.

A less formal nature of contacts maintained through the social portal between students and the lecturer favours breaking down the communication barriers and



contributes to warming up the relations. Closeness, openness and accessibility of the teacher create a specific climate that serves building the subjectivity of the student. Certainly, it can be claimed that such a form of contacts cannot have a negative effect, it can be, as reported by students: “neutral”. However, it must be admitted that even such an indirect form of communication does not always liberate us from the roles imposed on us: a dominating lecturer and a subordinated student. This is indicated in the statement provided by one of the participants, who did not dare to publish any posts in our discussion group out of fear of being graded by the teacher.

The most attention was paid to the issue of non-traditional learning materials, which, because of their useful nature, proved to be a highly important element in the process of studying. The fact of saving time and optimisation of the text search process was of a great value for students, first of all, in view of the fact of the various social roles fulfilled by them and the need to draw knowledge from various sources. The learning materials published on the group and additional links leading to interesting news in the field proved, from the perspective of some students, interesting and helpful when preparing for class activities, while from the perspective of others, they encouraged further search or their critical analysis. It seems important in relation to the analysed experiences of adults. The assumption of an academic education, particularly in humanities and social sciences, is to activate independent thinking in students, their ability to express doubts, skills in asking questions or questioning the rules established in the world. The education of adults is perceived in this manner by Jack Mezirow – the founder of the transformative learning theory (Mezirow, 1998). The group fulfilled, to a large extent, a motivational role in this regard and supported the studying process. Therefore, it is possible to collect interesting materials in an electronic form and to follow current events in the educational arena (domestically and abroad), which will then be published in the group. Before creating such a group, it is worth asking the question of what materials should be searched for to avoid ideological distortions and demagogy and to support the process of the harmonious development of an adult student.

The collected material also made it possible to draw certain conclusions related to the sense of online security. Reflecting on the means of notifying students of the test results, agreeing with them on the possibility of publishing their images in the group and a reflective approach to the issue of privacy management and membership in the group, provide starting points for building trust and a sense of security.

A positive approach of students towards undertaking such initiatives in the future reinforced my conviction about the sensibility of co-creating with them education and discussion groups on Facebook. It seems just like several years ago when electronic mail brought about a revolution in communication between

students and lecturers; although its role in the latest years has been decreasing in relation to a growing participation in social networking platforms.

As a result of the activity undertaken, it was managed to expose the significance attributed by students to this new form of communication and learning. It is a fact that reflective observation of the digital space and the ability to participate in it together with students provides an extraordinary challenge and also requires that the teacher maintains a high level of subject matter knowledge and ethical standards.

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## ADVANCED TEACHING METHODS FOR STUDENTS' COMPETENCIES DEVELOPMENT

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**Abstract.** *Competence-based approach to study process is frequently discussed topic among academicians, learners and government authorities due to its practical contribution to better graduates' employment abilities. The aim of the given study is to identify teaching methods with the biggest contribution to development of students' competencies. Bachelor level students of management-based study courses were surveyed in order to evaluate the progress in acquiring certain management competencies. Self-evaluation study was performed before and after the course. The acquired data was processed and the contribution of analysed teaching methods to competencies' development was assessed.*

**Keywords:** *competencies, management course, teaching methods.*

### Introduction

New skills for children and adults in the digital era, competence-based education (CBE) approach, core competencies for lifelong learning and related topics are frequently debated at the national and EU level (EC, 2016; EC, 2014), as well as a “need to improve the quality and relevance of the skills and competences” (EACEA & Eurydice, 2012) has been recognised.

In this regard, the most important issues are identification of skills and competencies needed for better citizens' employment, as well as relevant changes in educational systems and promoted activities in learning/teaching processes (Power & Cohen, 2005; Deißinger & Hellwig, 2011; Elsevier Education, 2014).

The goal of the research was to identify teaching methods with the biggest contribution to development of students' competencies.

To achieve the research objectives, four-stage study was conducted by the authors: (1) list of the competencies was created by the lecturers – research participants – based on their professional experience and competencies mentioned

in the Latvian Classification of Occupations; (2) contribution of the pre-determined teaching methods to each competence development was evaluated by the lecturers; (3) and (4) bachelor level students of management-based study courses were surveyed in order to evaluate the progress in acquiring certain management competencies. Self-evaluation study was performed before and after the course.

### **Competency-Based Approach to Study Process**

Competency-based business and management education aims to bring about the sequential acquisition of competencies required for entrepreneurship and management practices. Competitiveness of the enterprise based on its core competence, which emerges from the competencies of managers and other employees. In recent decades, society and professional associations have come to idea of increasing importance of sustained professional competence, giving rise to competency based education. CBE essential components are: measure of learning outcomes rather than seat time, students advance upon mastery, competencies that are explicit, measurable and transferable, rigorous assessment methods, and personalized learning approaches (Rasmussen et al., 2016). Competencies are the core of competency based curriculum in management and business study programs, they should be aligned with both industry and academic expectations. The process of defining competencies is one of the most important steps in the development of a CBE program, as the competencies required for a degree determine the focus of learning and assessment. Many of the newest models of competency-based education offer online formats, multiple modes of learning activities, and structures that permit students to learn and demonstrate required competencies at their own pace. (Klein-Collins, 2013). Competency based approach to study process implies explicit process of mapping competencies to courses, methods and learning outcomes (Johnstone & Soares, 2014). Competency based education accommodates the fact that students bring diverse levels of prior experience and knowledge within subject. It implies continual analysis of each process, method and element of the study program contribution to students' progress in acquiring certain competencies.

### **Advanced Teaching Methods in a Modern Education Process**

Competency based approach to study process shifts the emphasis towards outcomes, capabilities and learner-centeredness. Due to highly changing business environment, many authors emphasise the need to advance managerial education for all type of students using interactive and action-based teaching methods (Bock et al., 2013; Morris et al., 2013; Neck et al., 2014). Those methods are seminars,

tutorials, workshops, games, case analysis, problem based learning and practical exercises. Seminar is a form of academical instruction, bringing together small groups of students requested to actively participate and focusing on some particular subject. Tutorial is a small class for one or a few students, more interactive and specific than lecture or seminar, giving individual attention to each participant. Workshop implies training of practical skills, and presenting individual or joint project as an assessable outcome. Problem based learning is an dynamic classroom approach focusing on exploration of real world challenges, during which students are collaborating in order to investigate and respond to a complex question or problem. Case study or analysis is a practically focused research and analysis of definite case (for business and management students usually corresponding to entrepreneurship practices), identifying its causes, influencing factors and possible solutions. Together with a focus on sustained evidence of professional competence competency based approach to study process calls for advanced methods of teaching, customizing programs to the students by offering learning activities in a range of modes, including class exercises, written materials, video lectures, workshops, tutorials, demonstrations and games (Doll, 2015; Entwistle, 2015). Research is aimed to investigate a contribution of different teaching methods to students' progress in acquiring certain management competencies.

### **Methodology**

To achieve the research objectives, four-stage study was conducted by the authors:

1. The list of basic management competencies and course-specific competencies was developed by the lecturers of the management-related courses of the University College of Economics and Culture.
2. Contribution of the pre-determined teaching methods to each competence development was evaluated by the lecturers.
3. Students of the relevant courses were surveyed in order to evaluate the level of each specific competence *before* the course.
4. Students of the relevant courses were surveyed in order to evaluate the level of each specific competence *after* the course.

Study participants (lecturers and students) represented three management courses: (1) Strategic management, (2) Quality management, (3) Personnel management. The list of basic management competences was created though in-deep discussion within the authors' group, based on the information provided in the Latvian Classification of Occupations. Specific competences were identified by the lecturers, based on their professional experience and course specifics.

The list of basic competencies is presented in the Table 1. Competencies were identified not only for a company's, but also for business unit managers.

**Table 1 Basic competencies for managers**

<b>Basic competencies</b>	<b>Label</b>
Ability to determine and formulate mission and goals of a company; to develop a strategic plan	Strategic goal
Ability to analyze, systemize and integrate the internal and external information for a company's need	Information
Ability to plan, manage and coordinate the activity of a company as a whole	Management
Ability to determine performance measures aligned with strategic goals	Performance measures
Ability to evaluate business performance, identify problems and find solutions	Performance evaluation, problem solving
Ability to work in team, to delegate duties. Leadership competencies	Leadership
Ability to work individually, to take responsibility for results of own work	Individual work
Ability to report about company's performance	Presentation competence
Ability to apply information technologies	IT competence

The contribution of eight teaching methods to students' competencies development was analyzed within the current study: (1) seminar, (2) tutorial, (3) exercise classes, (4) workshop, (5) case study, (6) problem-based learning (PBL), (7) distance learning, (8) gamification.

The lecturers were offered to mark the certain method in relationship with the certain competence, if, on their opinion, this method contributes to the competence development.

Specific competencies for individual courses are presented in the *Results* section. The students of relevant courses were offered to perform self-evaluation regarding each competence, using 5-point scale (1 – competence is absolutely not developed; 5 – competence is highly developed). Iteration of the survey before and after the course was made in order to evaluate the progress in competencies development that, in turn, indirectly allowed making conclusions about teaching quality.

## **Results**

The lecturers participated in the survey evaluated each of the analyzed teaching methods in terms of their application possibility to development of

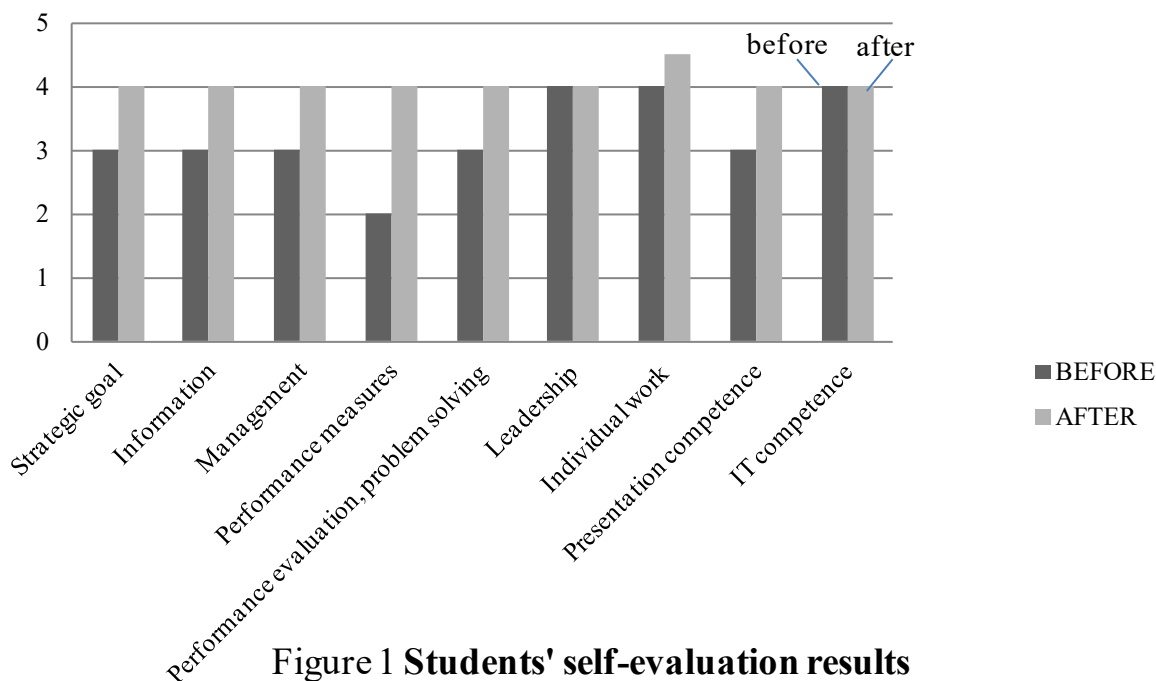
certain management competencies. The results of the second stage of the survey are summarised in the Table 2.

**Table 2 Lecturers’ viewpoint about teaching methods’ contribution to competencies development**

<b>Basic competencies</b>	<b>Methods marked by lecturers as contributors</b>	<b>Teaching method</b>	<b>Frequency of selection of the method</b>
Strategic goal	Seminar; Exercise classes; Workshop; Case study	Seminar	7
Information	Tutorial; Case study; PBL	Tutorial	5
Management	Seminar; Workshop; PBL	Exercise classes	4
Performance measures	Tutorial; Case study; PBL; Distance learning; Exercise classes	Workshop	8
Performance evaluation, problem solving	Case study; PBL	Case study	9
Leadership	Seminar; Workshop; Case study; Gamification	PBL	7
Individual work	Seminar; Tutorial; Exercise classes; Workshop; Distance learning; Gamification;	Distance learning	5
Presentation competence	Workshop	Gamification	4
IT competence	Seminar; Workshop; Distance learning		

All participating lecturers shared their opinion about workshop as the only method contributing to development of students’ presentation skills. Besides, on the viewpoint of study participants, the competence “performance evaluation, problem solving” can be developed, using the methods “case study” and “problem-based learning”. However, regarding other competencies lecturers ideas and opinions are divided. The frequency of leading selected methods may reflect the fact of merging of different methods within teaching practice. As a result kind of joint interactive group work method is emerging, including 1) recurrent students’ group meeting with a particular focus (element of seminar), 2) during which students are investigating and analysing definite real world problem (PBL element), 3) which is, typically, a particular case of problematic business or managerial practice (case analysis element) 4) and implying elaboration of kind of solution, project, scenario or strategy in order to respond to studied challenge (workshop element).

Figure 1 reflects the results of students' self-evaluation study before and after the study course.



**Figure 1 Students' self-evaluation results**

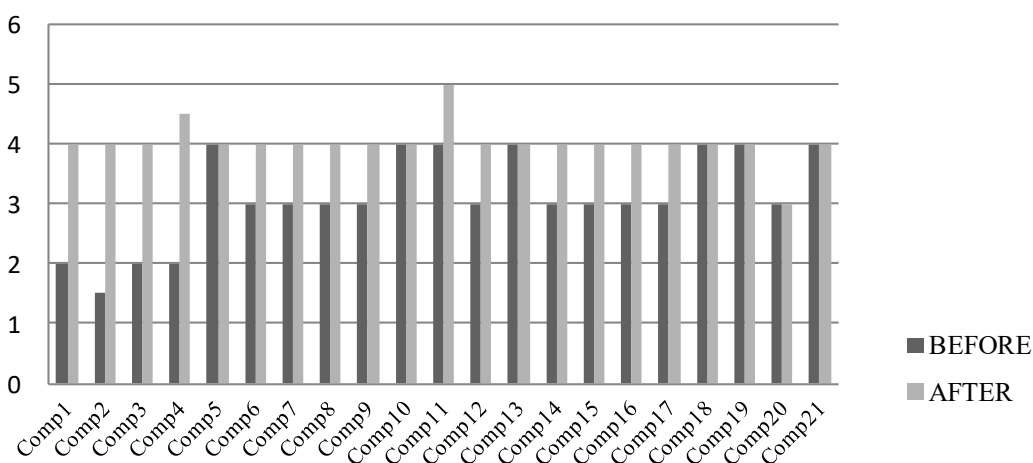
According to the results received before the course, the worse developed competence of the students was “Ability to determine performance measures aligned with strategic goals” (label “Performance measures”). In turn, the highest level of development was assigned to the competencies “Ability to work in team, to delegate duties. Leadership competencies” (label “Leadership”) and “Ability to work individually, to take responsibility for results of own work” (label “Individual work”). After the course the least changed ratings are “Leadership competency”, “Individual work competency” and “IT competency”, which get the highest self-evaluation results prior to the course. Taking into account teachers' emphasis on such teaching methods as seminar, workshop, cases and PBL, related to group work, collaboration and joint contribution to the outcome, it is clear why students are not associating such practices with leadership or individual work competencies. The progress, however, relates to acquiring such management competencies as “Ability to determine performance measures aligned with strategic goals” (label “Performance measures”), “Ability to analyze, systemize and integrate the internal and external information for a company's need” (label “Information”) and “Ability to determine and formulate mission and goals of a company; to develop a strategic plan” (label “Strategic goal”), “Ability to evaluate business performance, identify problems and find solutions” (label “Performance



evaluation”) and “Ability to report about company’s performance” (label “Presentation competence”). These data corresponds with nature of selected teaching methods, merging into joint teaching practice, emphasizing group work. This practice includes analyzing internal and external information for the needs of certain organizational cases, identifying causes of problems and modeling possible response to organizational challenge, as well as presenting the results and elaborated solution, based on definite measurable criteria. All mentioned elements are corresponding to competences, in which students reported progress after course.

Regarding specific management competencies, there were identified 21 competencies in total for three management courses. The list included such competencies, as “Ability to properly use professional terminology”, “Ability to organize team-working, develop communication, promote corporate identity”, “Ability to analyze market trends; Ability to develop staff training plan/ system”, “Ability to link personnel management efficiency and company’s strategy” and others. Seminar was selected an appropriate method to development of 9 competencies. The results for other teaching methods are, as follows: tutorial – 9; exercise classes – 6; workshop – 10; case study – 8; PBL – 7; Distance learning – 1; Gamification – 9. Low rate of distance learning shows that working within blended learning students’ groups teachers are focusing on classroom activities.

Figure 2 represents the results of students’ survey - self-evaluation of specific competencies. Since the competencies identified by lecturers were absolutely different, the authors focused on the evaluation of progress.



**Figure 2 Evaluation of specific competencies by students: before and after the course**

From the Figure 2 it is obvious that the students increased certain competencies significantly during the study course. This is especially relevant for those competencies which were evaluated as less developed before the course: ability to optimize planning and organizing processes within enterprise (comp 1), ability to analyze and to optimize motivating and control systems within a firm (comp 2), ability to understand and to promote appropriate organizational culture and corporate identity (comp 3), and ability to use correctly professional terminology of strategic management (comp 4). No progress marked in those competencies which were relatively highly evaluated prior the course: ability to define personnel competencies and duties in order to ensure production quality (comp 5), ability to indentify production quality impacting risks and factors (comp 10), ability to manage group work and information channels at the enterprise (comp 11), ability to identify HRM goals and direction (comp 13), ability to work in psychological tension circumstances and to solve problems (comp 18), ability to make HRM related decisions (comp 19), ability to think creatively (comp 21). Relative progress were notices by students in acquiring such competencies as: ability to manage quality control procedures (comp 6), ability to manage innovations (comp 7), ability to conduct costs analysis (comp 8), ability to analyze labour market trends (comp 12), ability to match certain HRM functions such as selection, assessment etc. With organizational strategy (comp 15), ability to create personnel learning system within enterprise (comp 17). Analysis of those data is relatively complicated due to the variety and specifics of mentioned competencies. Some of them are more narrow, instrumental and specified then another. The more critical is students self evaluation by certain competence before the course, the more likely progress will be reported after the course. This tendency may show, that teachers chosen teaching methods are helping students to experience progress in acquiring the underdeveloped competencies within competency based study approach.

## **Conclusions**

1. Due to the fact, that there are multiple potential linkages between learning activities, teaching methods, learning outcomes and competencies within CBE framework, it's hard to make credible causal claims under conditions of complexity. Still it is possible examining certain advanced teaching methods' contribution to progress into acquiring certain competencies through self-evaluation of teaching and learning process participants.
2. Based on study results (Table 2), teachers repeatedly selected methods forms kind of clusters, emphasizing joint interactive group work, including elements of seminar (recurrent students' group meeting with a particular focus), element of problem based learning (investigating and analysing

- definite real world problem), case analysis element (typically, a particular case of problematic business or managerial practice) and workshop element (elaboration of kind of solution, project, scenario or strategy in order to respond to studied challenge). Within such approach the least changed rating have such competences as leadership, individual work and IT competencies.
3. According to the students' survey results (Figure 1, Figure 2), the most progressing competences from the students' viewpoint are "Ability to determine performance measures aligned with strategic goals", "Ability to analyze, systemize and integrate the internal and external information for a company's need", "Ability to determine and formulate mission and goals of a company; to develop a strategic plan" and "Ability to evaluate business performance, identify problems and find solutions".
  4. Least progressing competencies were "Leadership" and "IT competence", however, these competencies are possible to be developed at the work place or within professional training programmes, not in the class.

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# INNOVATIVE ASPECTS OF IMPROVING THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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**Abstract:** *In modern conditions, the wide introduction of information and communication technologies (ICT) into the social sphere is of great importance, therefore the development of science is impossible without the use of new educational technologies.*

**The purpose of the research** *is to develop scientific and methodological provisions for the use of info communication technologies and internationalize professional training of medical students.*

**The object of the research** *is the process of improving the professional training of students in medical universities.*

**The subject of the research** *is the pedagogical and organizational-content conditions for improving the information training of students of medical schools on the basis of the use of ICT in teaching.*

**The hypothesis of the research** *is that increasing the information training of students of medical schools in professional activities based on the use of ICT will be effective if:*

*- the scientifically grounded way of preparation of students for professional activity with use of ICT within the framework of existing State educational standards of the higher vocational training is offered;*

*- a model for the formation of cognitive activity of students of medical schools based on the use of ICT is developed.*

**The methodological basis** *of the research are the ideas of the theory of a intergral educational process, the concept of personal developmental learning, the concept of education using computer technology, the concept of the formation of the information culture of the individual in general and the teacher, in particular [2,4,5,7,8].*

**Conclusions:** *The analysis of the state of the development of information technologies in education, the disclosure of the specifics of the use of ICT allow to develop organizational and semantic conditions for the formation of elements of the methodical system of using modern information technologies in vocational training of medical students.*

**Keywords:** *Higher education, information and communication technologies, innovation, improvement of educational process.*

## Introduction

The Tashkent Medical Academy (TMA) pays much attention to the improvement of the educational and methodical process, the development of

innovative didactic systems. At the same time, medical pedagogical science is based on a common platform for the methodology of the higher school educational process, which is built on a number of didactic principles, including accessibility, scientific, systematic, visual approach.

The educational process in TMA is constantly being improved due to new information technologies that allow searching new information resources. And at the same time the most important form of education in our medical college is a lecture. Its significance lies in the fact that it is not possible to replace the live communication of the lecturer with students even with the Internet that has become so popular among young people. Teaching staff (TS) of TMA uses modern lecture forms in the framework of innovative teaching: an integral lecture; problem lecture; lecture-visualization; lecture mobilizing motivational, gnostic and controlling functions in teaching.

The main component of the teaching activity of the teaching staff has always been the desire not only to master innovative educational technologies, but also the most active participation in the development of new didactic systems from the perspective of evidence-based medicine.

The undoubted achievement of recent years was strengthening of the methodology of visualization of teaching. Modern educational systems are designed to help to solve the problems facing the higher medical school: to train highly qualified specialists in various fields of knowledge, ready for responsible and effective activity in their specialty at the level of world standards.

All world experience shows that now in the global economy the information and communication technologies sector, including the production of computer and telecommunication technologies, software development and the provision of a wide range of interactive services, is becoming increasingly important. It should not be forgotten that the development of ICT directly affects the level of the country's competitiveness, allows the collection and aggregation of huge amounts of information, opens wide opportunities for governance at the strategic level.

Many aspects of innovative educational technologies, the results of scientific research and the development and implementation of authors' techniques related to lecture work, the organization of independent work of students, interdisciplinary integration, etc. are used in the activity of the TS of TMA.

At present, the trend towards the formation of a common information space has become evident, both within the framework of individual educational institutions, and in the perspective for the entire educational system. In addition to the organizational structure of this space and actively developing nowadays specialized software on the basis of which its functioning is realized, paper information carriers - methodical and educational literature, periodicals for medical educational institutions - can be considered an integral part of common

information space. In this connection, in particular, there arises the task of efficient integration of computer and traditional information support tools.

The main drawback of existing information resources used in medical universities is their practical isolation from the content and methods of teaching specific disciplines. It can be noted that the means of informatization used in higher educational institutions discord methodical training systems, which are understood as a set of goals, content, methods, forms and means of teaching. The development and application of the information environment of the university can become a real ground for solving this problem. Consideration of all components and environment resources, the features of components of the methodical system will maximize the resources of the environment to the established practice of training, make the informatization process as effective as possible and will serve as another factor that facilitates the integration and unification of information resources and technologies.

Many authors note the high efficiency and broad pedagogical possibilities of using modern multimedia computers in the learning process, but on the condition that the didactic and psychological principles of interaction of the computer with students, developed by modern pedagogical science, are taken into account in the process of creating a pedagogical software.

In the works of several authors, the following drawbacks of modern teaching systems are noted: the teaching action does not take into account the individual characteristics of the trainee to the full; most systems can not identify those gaps in mental activity that have caused difficulties in students (Боймурадов, 2016; Боймурадов, 2014; Бахарева, 2000; Васильков, 2004; Долинер, 2003; Мирзоева, 2004; Computers and Medical..., 1998).

**The purpose** of the research is to develop scientific and methodological provisions for the use of info communication technologies and internationalize professional training of medical students.

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- a model for the formation of cognitive activity of students of medical schools based on the use of ICT is developed.

**The methodological basis** of the research are the ideas of the theory of an integral educational process, the concept of personal developmental learning, the concept of education using computer technology, the concept of the formation of the information culture of the individual in general and the teacher, in particular [2,4,5,7,8].

**The theoretical basis** of the study is the pedagogical basis for the use of ICT, which is reflected in the work of some authors (Васильков, 2004; Гулякин, 2004; Мирзоева, 2004; Романов, 2002). The content of the term „personal information culture”, inextricably linked with the social nature of a person, is disclosed in several publications (Боймурадов, 2016; Боймурадов, 2014; Гулякин, 2004; Кочетков, 2002; Романов, 2002), the problems of higher education informatization are reflected in the works of authors (Бахарева, 2000; Васильков, 2000; Гулякин, 2004; Долинер, 2003; Кочетков, 2002). The use of telecommunication technologies in the teaching and management of the educational process is reflected in the works of authors (Lyon, 2001; Kridl et al, 2001; Гулякин, 2004; Долинер, 2003; Кочетков, 2002; Мирзоева, 2004). The work of a number of authors is devoted to the use of new ICT in medicine (Lyon, 2001; Kridl et al, 2001; Васильков, 2000; Долинер, 2003; Кочетков, 2002; Романов, 2002). Information culture as knowledge about the structure, functioning of the information environment as well as skills necessary for interaction with it both by traditional means and by means of information technologies, is considered in the following works (Lyon, 2001; Kridl et al, 2001; Шапошникова, 2000). Inclusion in the content of the information culture of the axiological, ideological and other components reflecting the motivational and semantic sphere of the individual is revealed in studies (Kridl et al, 2001; Романов, 2002; Шапошникова, 2000). The social aspect of an individual's information culture is defined as the degree of mastering social information, as a set of principles and real mechanisms that ensure positive interaction in the information process, both as an individual and humanity as a whole. The formation of the information culture of the teacher, his preparation for the application of information technology in professional and pedagogical activity; definition of goals, content, methodology and methods of teaching informatics for future teachers are investigated in the following works (Lyon, 2001; Kridl et al, 2001; Мирзоева, 2004; Романов, 2002).

The problem of internationalization of higher education is linked with the need for training of highly qualified competitive specialists of international level, able to operate in global labor market requirements.

On the other hand, currently, there is a pressing need of active change of higher education, in particular, closer cooperation in the field of mutual exchange of experience between the higher educational institutions of the leading European countries who are recognized leaders in the field of education. The modern system



of higher medical education is designed to improve the training of multiple personality, capable of active social adaptation in society. Today, the internationalization of higher education is a necessary condition for successful development of the university. When there is deep integration of education between foreign universities there develop the processes of implementing priority development programs of staff training.

Internationalization processes include the integration of higher education in the international educational community through the implementation of exchange programs between the actors of the global educational space: students, faculty, research staff (in the form of training, workshops, seminars, master classes, short-term and long-term fellowships). More than ten years ago, the studies noted that the increase in the quality of higher education, particularly the importance of international cooperation in terms of improving the quality of higher education will play a major role in the 21st century. Increasing the quality of higher education means the mobility of students and teachers, the transnational nature of the development of education; the development of new types of training programs.

It should be noted that the first step in the internationalization of the educational processes is the improvement of our educational programs and plans, and the development of new programs according to the priority “development of education and science” of our country which will create the impulse that stimulates the motivation of the teaching staff in the field of medical education. The most important thing is healthy competition between them, as well as an opportunity to assess the weak areas of their work, to develop concrete proposals to further improve the level and quality of training of qualified specialists.

Since the beginning of 2016 in Uzbekistan there was curriculum reform initiated: all medical schools have revised their programs, reviewed the curricula of the leading medical universities in Europe, America and Asia and on the basis of the research there was modern single program that meets the requirements of today to the training of physicians composed. At this time, the program is implemented in the educational process of first courses in Tashkent Medical Academy (TMA), and receives a lot of positive feedback from teachers and students.

To solve the set goal and verify the initial hypothesis a set of scientific research methods was used in the work, including analysis of scientific-methodical medical and pedagogical literature, related to the problem of this study, the regulatory and legislative documents of the Republic of Uzbekistan on higher education; the search, ascertaining, forming and control conditions of medical and pedagogical science, taking into account our many years of scientific and pedagogical activity in the TMA; methods of quantitative and qualitative

processing of material; analysis and synthesis of reports with elements of experimental work; polls, conversations, testing.

Special attention is given to the extension of grants opportunities for the development of medical science and educational processes in medicine. The project Internationalization and Modernization of Education and the Processes in Higher Education of Uzbekistan (IMEP) - a joint project of TMA and Rezekne Technological Academy (Latvia), London Metropolitan University (UK) and Peloponnes University (Greece) is an example of such cooperation which became a reality thanks to the Erasmus+ program. The aim of the project is the internationalization and modernization of processes in higher education, the continuous increase of pedagogical qualification, improving the quality of teaching, bringing students and employers to the learning process. The project involves not only Rezeknes Augstskola, London Metropolitan University, University of the Peloponnes, but also British Council, Ministry of Higher and Secondary Special Education of the Republic of Uzbekistan, chief scientific and methodological center, Tashkent Medical Academy, University of World Economy and Diplomacy, Uzbek State University of World Languages, Bukhara State University, Namangan State University, Samarkand State Institute of foreign languages and Tashkent State Pedagogical University.

The project is presented with 7 work packages, the aim of which is to analyze the existing needs by questioning of hundreds of teachers and students, tens of employers and focus group –heads of the universities - then on the basis of these results, a program of continuous professional development of teachers, guidance on sustainable and continuous improvement of teaching standards, guidelines to attract students and employers in the learning process will be developed, all steps are carried out under the constant supervision of the quality and completion of the project and by the end all will disseminate the results of the project and put them into practice TMA and other higher educational institutions of the republic.

Today, a lot of work was already accomplished: project website (<https://imep.bimm.uz>), which houses all of the available information on the project was created, regular working meetings of partners, such as full-time in Tashkent, Namangan, London, and teleconferencing are taking place on regular basis, there are designed questionnaires for institutions' staff, students and employers in three languages, conducted surveys of teachers, students and employers, and the work on preparing the next meeting of the partners in Bukhara and Rezekne is in full swing. There are plans to launch pilot projects to engage into the learning process students and employers, as well as accomplishing the mobility of students and teachers in the project.

As one of the most important international activities of the university is the academic mobility of students, masters, candidates and faculty members, TMA pays special attention to this issue. Gradually universities stepped up existing

contacts and develop cooperation, making it possible to visit foreign universities (London Metropolitan, Birmingham City universities). So, at the moment about 50 master students have been trained in foreign universities for a period from 1 to 6 months, the applicants were able to get acquainted with the modern methods of scientific research. The teaching staff is involved in the programs of exchange of experience with foreign colleagues, in particular the teaching of the specialty of general practitioners (GPs). The direction of mobility is closely linked to programs for international students and TMA is actively engaged in attracting of foreign students. So, today most foreign students at the Academy are from CIS countries. However, this area still needs to be developed and we also plan to attract English-speaking foreign students, that is why it is necessary to develop a program to work with foreign students. TMA has a great potential for this, as it was one of the flagships of the introduction of English in teaching process among universities of Uzbekistan. TMA has strict requirements for its staff on knowledge of foreign language and teaching partially or completely in it. More and more students of TMA are ready to take training in English that can not but rejoice in the light of the opening of this possibility to exit the prospects of our education on a global level.

### **The results of the study and their discussion**

Analysis of scientific and methodological literature allowed us to highlight the problems of introducing information and communication technologies in medical education. At the same time, great attention is paid to the psychological and pedagogical problems of using info communication technologies: education in the information and communication environment, interaction of the students with computer, transfer of teaching functions to the computer, pedagogical orientation in the development of electronic means of support and development of the educational process, computer didactics, study of the feedback mechanism.

The components of the information culture of future doctors are determined, the basis of which are the disciplines of the information cycle: medical informatics (2 semester), the fundamentals of algorithmization and programming of problems of differential diagnostics of diseases (12 semester).

The main possibilities of info communication technologies in teaching special disciplines are identified:

- obtaining and analysis of various information;
- systematization and logical ordering of the educational material;
- means for developing of thinking through solving problems, modeling various situations;
- preparation of study tasks, methodological and didactic materials.

Specificity of information training of future doctors lies in the fact that in addition to the fundamental training of future doctors in the field of informatics, they must possess theoretical knowledge and practical skills of effective application of computer training technologies in the educational process of the medical academy; be able to use info communication technologies in solving professional problems.

The possibilities of continuous informational preparation of students in the structure of higher medical education are also considered. Practical realization of the methodical system of teaching students of computer science in TMA is revealed. The main directions of using ICT in teaching and managing medical education are outlined. Priority at the moment are the following areas of informatics: telecommunications, multimedia technologies, object-oriented and visual programming technologies, distributed computing and databases.

Implementation of the recommended measures allows us to specify the goals and objectives of the training in the areas of mathematics and computer science and reasonably determine the depth of their study, and also purposefully select the software of computers in accordance with the profile of a specialist.

The State educational standards of professional higher medical education do not provide for the study of such, in our opinion, important topics as „Philosophical Foundations of Informatics”, „Man in the Information Society”, „Information and Knowledge”, etc.

It is necessary to develop a set of appropriate curricula and include these programs in the curriculum of the university when studying various social disciplines.

## **Conclusions**

The analysis of the state of the development of information technologies in education, the disclosure of the specifics of the use of ICT allow us to develop organizational and semantic conditions for the formation of elements of the methodical system for using modern information technologies in the professional training of students of medical universities.

Theoretical analysis of professional training of students based on the use of ICT serves as a basis for improving the quality of information training for students of medical schools, their readiness for the continuous use of modern ICT in professional activities.

The considered practical realization of ICT opportunities in teaching students of medical universities contributes to the enhancement of the humanistic and professional orientation of the introduction of modern information technologies in education.

The results of the studies make it possible to draw a conclusion on the effectiveness of the considered system of using ICT for improving the quality of training of students in medical schools.

Thus, today there are all conditions for the successful implementation in the world educational process and the internationalization of medical education is already actively developing. In general, evaluating the current state of processes of internationalization of higher education in the field of medicine, it should be noted that significant positive results, which the universities have reached in the last decade. It should be emphasized that the integration processes in the world educational space, including the medical field, initiate the development of existing and stimulate the emergence of new forms of international inter-university cooperation in the field of undergraduate, graduate, clinical residency and doctoral programs, which necessitates universities constantly improve the internationalization strategy.

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# MOTIVES OF PROSPECTIVE STUDENTS' RESOLVE TO STUDY AT THE HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTION

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**Abstract.** *In today's world, the choice of a profession and professional career planning are becoming very important processes in young persons' life, during which they make a decision, influencing their future. The first real encounter with the problem of the career choice takes place at school, when a student has to choose study subjects or an educational profile. Later, future students analyse what study programme or higher education institution to choose. There are numerous reasons and factors determining graduates' choice. The aim of the conducted study is to disclose prospective students' motives, choosing the study programme and the higher education institution (in this case, Šiauliai University in Lithuania). The applied research method is an online survey, using a semi-structured questionnaire. Research results also disclose the quality of providing information about studying possibilities.*

*According to the research results, prospective students clearly knew in which higher education institution they would study and what specific programme they would choose. The main source of information choosing studies was information provided on the website of the institution; friends' recommendations were also relevant. Choosing a particular higher education institution, the main motives were personal and the ones directly related to the higher education institution: the wish to study close to home, urban infrastructure, the learning environment and teachers. The choice of a concrete study programme was determined by early career dreams, attractiveness and interest of the study programme as well as employment opportunities.*

**Keywords:** *choosing the study programme and the higher education institution, motives to study, Šiauliai University.*

## Introduction

Current changes in the demographics of Lithuania are increasingly forcing the higher education institutions to search for new ways of attracting the students. Within the past decade this process has acquired some features of

marketing strategy: when the target market and its main segments are clearly identified, and the ways and tools of communication for marketing are chosen.

Higher education institutions have to analyse and evaluate the process annually by identifying the main motives for choosing to study, ways of communication and its tools. Recently the status of a student as a recipient of a service has settled down (Starkutė et al., 2013), therefore, the activity of higher education institutions is organized in accordance with the principles of “university of services”, “entrepreneur university”, which require new patterns of service provision, where the learners as recipients of a service „want to acquire certain education” (Mikalaukas, Švagždienė, 2008). As a university performs other multi-functions – preparing the citizens for professional, industrial and social activity, passing the knowledge to future generations, assuring intellectual, moral, spiritual, economic development of the society and a personality (Mikalaukas, Švagždienė, 2008) – it is equally important to assure the satisfaction of the needs of a student as a client. The opinion of the latter becomes very important to universities in various aspects: in terms of both the quality of the services provided, and the matters of choosing the higher education institution. Therefore, it is important to distinguish the motives which are related with the choice of profession. Every activity and its success depend on the motive. Researchers note that it is important to know the motives, so that they could be controlled, managed, because the purposefulness of an activity, communication, and its intensity can be changed by changing the motives (Abramauskienė, Kirliauskienė, 2014).

**Research subject:** the motives of the prospect students for choosing the study programme and the higher education institution.

**Research aim:** to reveal the motives of the prospect students for choosing a study programme and the higher education institution (Šiauliai University in Lithuania in this particular case) as well as their opinion on the means of information about the studies offered.

## **Research methodology**

### **Research method**

A questionnaire-based survey was used for the research. The questionnaire was comprised of 14 questions, 3 from which were socio-demographic: 5 – to reveal the motives for choosing the study programme and the higher education institution, and 6 – to evaluate the information about the study programmes and the higher education institution.



### ***The research procedure***

The research was conducted in October-November 2016. The participants of the survey were provided with an e-form with the aims of the research and the instructions for filling in the questionnaire.

After the survey, in order to ensure the quality of research, the primary evaluation of data was performed, which allowed to reject the forms filled in incorrectly or not completely and to provide a quality material for data analysis.

Data of quantitative research were analysed using SPSS 16.0 (*Statistical Package for the Social Sciences*), the methods of descriptive analysis were used: the tables of frequency were drawn. Non-parametrical criteria were applied (*Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z, Mann-Whitney*) to evaluate the differences for statistical significance (the difference is considered to be statistically significant when the meaning of significance level  $\alpha$  p is  $< 0,05$ ).

### ***Characteristics of the study sample***

The survey involved students of the first and the second cycle, who have chosen to study at Šiauliai University. Representativeness and reliability of the survey's sample is one of the main factors defining the quality of the results (Bitinas, 2013). In author's opinion, complicated calculations for defining the sample are relevant, when the "researcher undertakes to foresee the implementation of the investigated feature, based on the data on a one-off survey", however, the aim of the described survey is more of a declarative nature, therefore, for its results it is more significant, if the sample of the survey includes all groups of members from a population known in advance (in our case these are the first year students of all study programmes of all cycles (Bachelor and Master). The principle of a layered sample composition was chosen: the subjects of survey were divided into "layers", proportional to groups in the population. The respondents of each layer were further selected using the method of simple probability or systematic sampling (Vobolevičius V., 2015).

The survey involved 205 respondents (total number of enrolled students – 490). When organising the survey, the following principles of scientific survey ethics were observed: goodwill, free will, and anonymization of survey participants.

Demographic characteristics of the respondents: the distribution of age was as follows: from 18 to 20 years made 36.36 percent., from 21 to 24 years made 33.84 percent, from 25 to 30 years made 13.13 percent., from 31 to 35 years made 8.08 percent, more than 36 years made 8.59 percent. Among the respondents, Bachelor students made 53.03 percent, while Master students made 46.97 percent.

Distribution by the form of studies was as follows: full-time students made 80.90 percent of respondents, part-time students made 10.55 percent, distance

learning students made 7.04 percent. According to the source of funding, 47.98 percent of respondents were funded by the state, 42.42 percent of respondents were not funded and 7.58 percent received targeted funding.

### **Results and interpretation**

The process of choosing the studies is complicated, influenced by the complex of psychological, social, economic factors and reasons: some students cannot choose the study programme of their dreams because of scarce economic resources of the family, others are limited by social adaptation problems (failure to adapt, for instance, fear of changing the environment, strangers, etc.), etc. During the studies the self-evaluation of the entrants develops and starts to show, which can affect the motivation to study and to plan a career in a chosen field. Addison R. et al. (2016), in his research on the students' choice to study and motivation for studies and practical activity, points out that at the time of making a choice they are highly motivated, however, later some tendencies show the decrease in motivation for studies and practical activity. Marinas et al. (2014), on the basis of the results of a pilot survey, indicates that the professional decision is more influenced by pragmatic motives (socio-economic status of the family, environment of the higher education institution, etc.), rather than emotional motives (experience of relatives, friends, their recommendations, etc.). The results of this and similar surveys show that the motivation of students is changing, especially at the beginning of their studies, the initial motives and attitudes of the student change in regard to their choice. Therefore, the survey aimed at trying to determine, what were the main motives having encouraged the prospect students to choose the study programmes and the higher education institution. The results are shown in tables 1 and 2.

**Table 1 Motives for choosing the higher education institution**

<b>Motives</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Failed to enter a different school	15	7.58
Were directed / recommended by their parents*	43	21.72
Teachers recommended	45	22.73
A friend came to study here	59	29.8
University is positively described in the public sphere	69	34.85
This higher education institution is the only one to have the speciality of my dreams	72	36.36
My relatives studied in this city (parents, siblings, etc.)	84	42.42
I liked the lecturers (if you have met them)	101	51.01
I liked the environment of studies (if you have visited the university)	111	56.06
I liked the city	120	60.61
I wanted to study closer to my home	149	75.25

\* *Statistically significant difference has been found*

When evaluating the motives for choosing the higher education institution, it should be noted that one of the main motives for choosing the higher education institution is geographical location, which reflects the attractiveness of both the city and the region, as well as the significance of the distance from home (safety is important to young people – home is close, the parents can help). Another important group of motives is the attractiveness of the University (both its environment and the community) and the experience of other people significant to the student at this higher education institution. More than 36 percent of respondents indicated that they have chosen this higher education institution because of the uniqueness of studies. More than one fifth indicated that their choice had been influenced by the recommendations of other people. Similar results, the prevalence of pragmatic motives, are described by Martinas et al. (2014), Voitkāne et al. (2006) in research.

When analysing the motives for choosing the higher education institution in the aspect of a cycle, a statistically significant difference has been noticed when evaluating the group of motives influenced by other people’s experience and recommendations ( $p = 0.022$ ). To Bachelor students the opinion and recommendations of parents were especially significant when choosing a higher education institution.

Table 2 **Motives for choosing a study programme**

<b>Motives</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Failed to enter the desirable study programme* (0,006)	19	9.6
My relatives (parents, siblings, etc.) studied in this study programme* (0,003)	27	13.64
Affordable tuition fee	44	22.22
Teachers recommended	44	22.22
Prestigious study programme	52	26.26
Specialists of this field receive large wages* (0,016)	57	28.79
I liked the lecturers (if you have met them) * (0,021)	90	45.45
I liked the environment of studies (if you have visited the university)	102	51.51
Good employment possibilities* (0,024)	107	54.04
This is the speciality of my dreams	107	54.04
Interesting and promising study programme	147	74.24

\* Statistically significant difference has been found

When evaluating the motives for choosing the study programme, some of the most significant ones were the uniqueness of the study programme, its perspectives, meeting the interests of the entrant and the employment possibilities in this field. The motives related with University’s attractiveness were also considered to be significant. More than one fourth of the respondents

considered the prestige of the study programme, tuition fee and recommendations by the teachers to be significant.

When analysing the motives for choosing the higher education institution in the aspect of the cycle, a statistically significant difference has been found when evaluating the experience of people significant to the student in this study programme. ( $p = 0.003$ ). Bachelor students find the experience of their relatives and their recommendations more significant. Also, the latter, when choosing the studies, consider the employment possibilities ( $p = 0.02$ ) and the salary of chosen specialists ( $p = 0.016$ ) to be more significant motives. Master students indicated University lecturers, who could have influenced their decision to continue their studies, as a significant motive ( $p = 0.003$ ).

When applying to a university the entrants can submit 9 requests, which are rated in decreasing order by priority. According to this, the higher education institutions and study programmes listed as their number one priority are considered to be the most attractive ones among the entrants. The respondents who listed their chosen higher education institution as their number one priority make 90.9 percent, while the study programme was listed by 83.3 percent of respondents.

Table 3 **Sources of information about the study programmes and the higher education institution**

Sources of information	N	Percent
During the excursions to the university	8	4.04
In news forums, via e-mail, etc.	12	6.06
During events (competitions, public lectures, etc.)	14	7.07
At the studies fair (Litexpo, etc.)	18	9.09
During the career days at the university/ school	23	11.62
In press, specialized magazines ( <i>Atrask, Kur stoti?, Veidas</i> , etc.)	26	13.13
In social networks	49	24.75
Recommendations by the relatives (parents, siblings, etc.)	54	27.27
Recommendations by friends	55	27.78
On the website of the University <a href="http://www.su.lt">www.su.lt</a>	136	68.69

Such attribution of priority encouraged us to find out what factors influenced this decision. More than one half of the respondents indicated that their choice has been influenced by their decision of the higher education institution made in advance. It allows us to make an assumption that the marketing of the higher education institution related with the development of image in society is significant, because the entrants find it important in the process of choosing to find enough information about both the higher education institution and the study programme, and the demand of the profession in labour

market. It should be noted that more than 40 percent of respondents indicated that their decision to choose the studies in this higher education institution has not been planned in advance, but rather influenced by accidental factors, such as the exam results, failure to enter a different higher education institution.

The research aimed to find out the evaluation of the process of student information about the higher education institution and the study programmes. These questions have revealed their satisfaction by the quality of information contents, the accessibility of information sources and their usefulness.

When analysing the results of the survey, it has been noticed that, in the respondents' opinion, the official website of the higher education institution is a useful source of information in terms of both the study programme and the University. Almost a third of the respondents indicated that an important source of information to them was the experience of their relatives and their recommendations. Information events organized to the prospect students meet the expectations and the need for information about the studies of only a part of the respondents. In this context, a typical modern student was revealed to be the representative of the millennium generation (they make more than a third in the survey), who tend to read the information using a method of a "loop" (Targamadzè, 2014) – „reading not a sentence by sentence but on the basis of site opening principle”, therefore, it is likely that this was the reason why the information given on the website was considered to be the most significant source.

## **Conclusions**

1. The choice of a higher education institution and a particular speciality is determined by two main factors: external necessity, i.e. requirements raised by the environment and the internal motivation of the person itself, their self-determination, consciousness in purposefully choosing their profession and in planning it.
2. When choosing the higher education institution, the main motives were personal, directly related with the school: a wish to study not far from home, infrastructure of the city, studying environment and the lecturers. A choice of a particular programme was influenced by a preconceived desire to choose this particular field, attractiveness and the interest of a programme, and the employment possibilities.
3. The most significant motives of students choosing a study programme were its uniqueness, perspectives, the prestige of the study programme, tuition fee, recommendations of teachers, and employment possibilities. Prospect students were clearly determined in which higher education institution they are going to study and which study programme they are going to choose.

The main source of information, when choosing the studies, was the information provided on the website of the higher education institution, also among the most relevant ones was the recommendation by friends. Decision to choose studies in this particular higher education institution has not been planned in advance, but rather determined by accidental factors, such as exam results, failure to enter another school.

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## EXPLORING THE CONCEPT OF REFLECTIVE PRACTICE IN THE CONTEXT OF STUDENT-CENTERED TEACHER EDUCATION

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**Abstract.** *Being one of the most popular theories of professional knowledge in the last 30 years, reflective practice has been widely adopted not only by practicing teachers in their working environment, but in pre-service teacher education as well. Meeting the need to respond to the challenges posed by the society nowadays, higher education is undergoing radical changes calling for the proper implementation of student-centered studies. In the context of such a paradigm shift there is a strong urge for the concept of reflective practice to be examined more carefully so that it could be put into effect in the studies of higher education. The paper seeks to respond to this problem by offering an in-depth analysis of the attributes characteristic of the concept of reflective practice in the paradigm shift. Based on the thorough review of scientific works dealing with the concept of reflective practice in teacher education, the current study reports on the insights regarding the development of this concept for reflective practice to be successfully applied in the process of teacher education.*

**Keywords:** *reflective practice, student-centered studies, pre-service teachers, higher education.*

### Introduction

The term *reflective practice* has become common within the discourse of teacher education and is widely acknowledged as an essential component in the professional development of student teachers. The need for its embedment in study programmes of pre-service teacher education is dictated by the transformations higher education institutions are experiencing nowadays. Meeting the need to respond to the challenges posed by the society, higher education is undergoing radical changes calling for the proper implementation of student-centered studies that put reflective practice at their heart. This demand is supported by one of the most important goals of higher education to develop students' ability to learn continuously, reflecting on one's experience, in order to develop prospective specialists' holistic competence (Jakubė & Juozaitis, 2012). The capacity to reflect is recognised as one of the main generic competences and

is of high importance in the context of pre-service teacher education as well, since it encompasses the need for student teachers not only to be able to reflect on their learning process while acquiring their professional knowledge, but is also directly related to their future careers. Being one of the most popular theories of professional knowledge in the last 30 years, reflective practice has been widely adopted not only by practicing teachers in their working environment, but in pre-service teacher education as well. In the context of a paradigm shift there is a strong urge for the concept of reflective practice to be examined more carefully so that it could be put into effect in the studies of higher education. Therefore, the *purpose of this article* is to explore how reflective practice has been conceptualized in teacher education and is to be promoted within the professional landscape of pre-service teacher education in the student-centered studies. This paper aims: (1) to examine the concept of reflective practice in relation to teacher education by providing an overview of major meanings proposed by influential educationalists and (2) to investigate into the manifestation of reflective practice in the context of student-centered studies in pre-service teacher education.

## **Research Methodology**

### *Sample*

The selection of scientific literature resources for this research paper was criterion-based. The criteria were the following: (1) the resource had to be scientific (based on research or conceptual evidence and published as an article, monograph, PhD dissertation or a research report); (2) the keywords for selection were *reflective practice, student-centered studies, pre-service teacher education*; (3) the resource could have been written in the Lithuanian or English languages.

### **Method**

The current research paper employs the method of literature review which is an account of what has been published on a topic by accredited scholars and researchers (Taylor, 2010). In writing the literature review, the purpose is to convey to the reader what knowledge and ideas have been established on a topic. As a piece of writing, the literature review is defined by a guiding concept (e.g., research aim, the problem the author discusses). The performed steps of the literature review were as follows: (1) organizing the literature selection and review by relating it directly to the research question the authors develop; (2) synthesizing results into a summary of what is and is not known; (3) identifying areas of controversy in the literature.



## **The multi-faceted nature of reflective practice**

The term of *reflective practice*, deriving from the works of John Dewey and Donald Schön, has received considerable attention of theorists and practitioners in teacher education. Yet, despite its popularity and widespread adoption, a problem frequently raised in the literature concerns the lack of conceptual clarity surrounding the term of reflective practice (Finlay, 2009).

The concept of reflective practice can be described as “phenomenological, in that a given phenomenon is studied through direct experience, interpreted and the insights gained used, to further understanding and modify actions” (Zwozdiak-Myers, 2009, p. 9).

Driven by the goal to better understand key characteristics theorists, practitioners and researchers within pre-service teacher education associate with reflective practice, this paper examines and draws together the central understandings underpinning the concept of reflective practice that have emerged chronologically.

Although the roots of reflective practice can be traced back to ancient times, the theoretical foundations for it were laid at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. J. Dewey was among the first to write about reflective practice with his exploration of experience, interaction and reflection. He explained reflection in terms of reflective thought defining it as “the active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that support it” (Dewey, 1933, p. 7) and identified five phases or states of reflective thinking: problem, suggestions, reasoning, hypothesis, testing. The three attitudes, such as openmindedness, responsibility, wholeheartedness, according to him, are integral to reflective action and are necessary for teaching and learning (Dewey, 1933). His assertion that learning results from the act of making sense of experience (reflection) (Dewey, 1938), highlights the need for schooling to be based in experience so that learners are to be provided with experiences that would cause and give direction to their growth (Rodgers & LaBoskey, 2016, p. 75). As the ultimate purpose of education Dewey considered to be the ongoing creation of a vibrant and responsible democracy (*ibid*).

J. Habermas (1971) focused on the way in which humans process ideas and construct them into knowledge and recognized that reflection plays a role in this process. He talked about three kinds of knowledge: • instrumental (needed to understand, function within and control human environment); • interpretive (concerned with the interpretation of human action and behaviour); • emancipatory/transformational (developed through critical or evaluative modes of thinking and leading towards the emancipation or transformation of personal, social or other situations).

M. van Manen's (1977) contribution to a better understanding of various aims of reflection was in his development of a hierarchy of three levels of reflectivity: • technical rationality (implying the focus on methodology and theory development to achieve objectives); • practical application or contextual (related to pragmatic placement of theory into practice); • critical reflection or dialectical (to be understood as value commitment toward educational process).

D. Schön (1983) introduced the concept of the 'reflective practitioner' as one who uses reflection as a tool for revisiting experience. In his theory of reflective practice he identified two types of reflection: reflection-on-action (thinking after the event), during which professionals consciously review, describe and evaluate their past practice gaining at the same time the insight how future practice could be improved; and reflection-in-action (thinking while doing) that allows professionals to explore their experiences and responses as they occur.

D. Kolb (1984) is well known for his development of the cycle of experiential learning, which considers reflecting as an essential element of learning, and is currently widely spread and applied to the practice of higher education. Learning is perceived as a four-stage cycle: • concrete experience; • reflective observation; • abstract conceptualization; • active experimentation.

D. Boud, R. Keogh and D. Walker (1985) describe a model of reflection in the learning process, which encompasses the cycle of: • association; • integration; • validation; • appropriation. It begins with the "totality of experiences of learners" (p. 20), including their behaviour, ideas and feelings. This model provides more insight than Kolb's learning cycle, but is missing the context surrounding the learner, an important element of the process.

F. Korthagen (1985) devised a model known as ALACT to support systemic reflection process which is a suitable frame for enhancing the reflection of teachers and consists of five phases: • action; • looking back at the action; • becoming aware of the essential aspects; • creating alternative methods of action; • trial of the alternative methods of action, which itself is a new action and therefore the starting point of a new cycle.

The assertions made by the authors discussed above have laid the basis for further interpretations and development of the reflective practice concept. As careful literature review shows, since 1990 the interest in reflective practice has remained constant. The information embracing the contributions made by different theoreticians and practitioners to the concept of reflective practice are introduced in Table 1, identifying the proponents, their main focus and terminology embedded within each theme.

Table 1 Concepts related to reflective practice in teacher education

Proponent	Focus	Themes
<b>Grimmett, MacKinnon, Erickson, &amp; Riechen (1990)</b>	Levels of reflective teaching	Technical: instrumental mediation of actions Deliberative: deliberation among competing views Dialectical: reconstruction of experience
<b>Valli (1990)</b>	Images of teaching	Technical rationality: non-reflective Practical decision-making: technical within a reflective context Inculcation, indoctrination: moral, ethical & social in a non-reflective mode Moral reflection: deliberative, relational, critical
<b>Killion &amp; Todnem (1991)</b>	Types of reflection	Reflection-on-action (thinking about action) Reflection-in-action (reflecting during action) Reflection-for-action (thought then action follows)
<b>Ross (1990)</b>	Categories of teaching reflection	Recognizing an educational dilemma; responding to a dilemma; framing and reframing the dilemma; experimenting with the dilemma; considering intended and unintended consequences
<b>Sparks-Langer &amp; Colton (1991)</b>	Orientations to reflective thinking	Cognitive, narrative, critical
<b>Mezirow (1991)</b>	Levels of reflection	Non-reflective action; habitual action; thoughtful action; introspection; reflective action: content, process, and premise
<b>Colton &amp; Sparks-Langer (1993)</b>	A framework for developing teacher reflection	Building a professional knowledge base; developing an action to plan, implementing it and evaluating instruction; providing opportunities for constructing new meaning; developing attributes of reflective decision-making
<b>LaBoskey (1994)</b>	Types of reflective thinkers	Common sense thinkers - Alert novices – Pedagogical thinkers
<b>King &amp; Kitchener (1994)</b>	Model of reflective judgement	Pre-reflective reasoning (stages 1-3) Quasi-reflective reasoning (stages 4 & 5) Reflective reasoning (stages 6 & 7)
<b>Hatton and Smith (1995)</b>	Types of reflection	Descriptive information, descriptive reflection, dialogic, critical reflection
<b>Zeichner and Liston (1996)</b>	Categories of reflection	Academic, social efficiency, developmentalist, social reconstructive, generic
<b>Barnett (1997)</b>	Critical reflection: political-social dimensions	Action, self-reflection and understanding

<b>Valli (1997)</b>	A hierarchy of types of reflection	Technical, reflection in/on action, deliberative, personalistic, critical
<b>Ghaye &amp; Ghaye (1998)</b>	Reflective conversations	Descriptive, perceptive, receptive, interpretive, critical
<b>Moon (1999)</b>	Critical thinking	Reflexivity, metacognition
<b>Baxter Magolda (1999)</b>	Epistemological cognition	Dualist position – Relativist position
<b>Lee (2000)</b>	Depth of reflective thinking	Recall, rationalization, reflectivity
<b>Jay &amp; Johnson (2002)</b>	Dimensions of reflection	Descriptive, comparative, critical
<b>Grushka, Hinde-McLeod, &amp; Reynolds (2005)</b>	Types of reflection	Reflection for action, reflection in action, reflection on action
<b>Korthagen &amp; Vasalos (2005)</b>	Phase model of core reflection	Experience/problematic situation; awareness of ideal situation/awareness of limitations; awareness of core qualities; actualization of core qualities; experimenting with new behaviour
<b>Larrivee (2008)</b>	Levels of reflection	Pre-reflection, surface reflection, pedagogical reflection, critical reflection
<b>Thorsen &amp; DeVore (2012)</b>	Developmental Continuum of Reflection-on/for-Action Rubric (DCRo/fA Rubric)	Analyzing teacher candidates' indicators of reflective thinking, reflective communication, and cognitive processes; reflective practices as continuum
<b>Liu (2015)</b>	Model of transformative learning	Assumption analysis, contextual awareness, imaginative speculation, reflective skepticism, reflection-based actions, reflect on the effect-based actions

*Adapted from Zwozdiak-Myers (2009: 11) and renewed by the paper authors*

Referring to the data in Table 1 it could be summarised that multiple perspectives the concept of reflective practice has been approached in the last three decades on the one hand clearly demonstrate its complexity, on the other hand, they underpin its importance within the domain of teacher education. Consequently, the attributes characteristic of reflective practice must be taken into account when applying the concept of reflective practice in all its possible forms and in all its relevant contexts. This argument leads to further investigations into how reflective practice is positioned and manifests itself in the context of student-centered studies of pre-service teacher education.

## Reflective practice in student-centered studies of pre-service teacher education

Over the past century, strong educational movements, mainly conditioned by the changes in society, have occurred in higher education resulting in the need for higher education institutions to recognise a new paradigm to be implemented in the studies they provide, i.e. to shift away from an emphasis on teaching to an emphasis on learning. In essence, this paradigm change is founded on the assumption that students should be actively constructing and reconstructing knowledge in order to learn effectively, with learning being most effective when, as part of an activity, the learner experiences constructing a meaningful product. This is primarily grounded in the constructivist view of learning (Landau, 2001, p. 22). The shift from teaching to an emphasis on learning means that there has been a parallel shift in power away from the teacher to the student (Barr & Tagg, 1995). While approaching a new teaching-learning paradigm, the term commonly used in the educational literature is *student-centered learning* (SCL). The main principles proposed by Lea et al. (2003), which underlie the concept of SCL, are summarised in Figure 2.

Closer examination of both the concept of SCL and reflective practice leads to the assumption that they correlate to a great extent and are interdependent: reflection on practice is a prerequisite for the quality of the new teaching/learning process. Further discussion attempts to support this assertion.

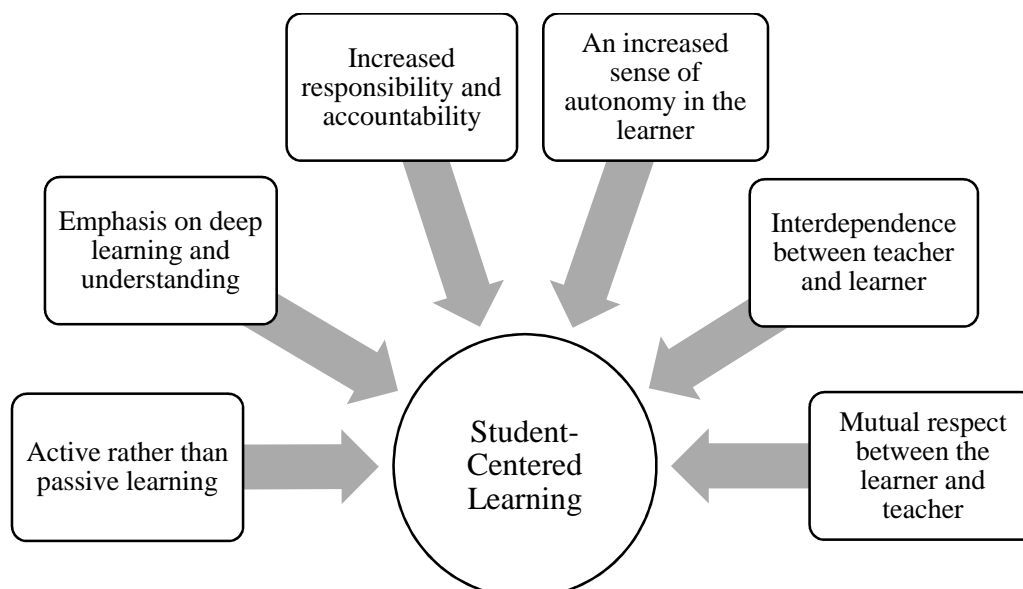


Figure 2 **The concept of SCL** (Designed by the paper authors)

The term *reflective practice* implies the nexus between *reflection* and *practice*. In pre-service teacher preparation programmes students of teaching are

to (1) develop knowledge and skills of teaching and (2) to learn how to competently apply these in practice. Consequently, if the term practice encompasses both the practice of teaching and the practice of learning, then practical experience becomes a site for learning (Smith, 2005). The importance of reflective practice in pre-service education is grounded in the need for teacher students to learn the skills and dispositions of reflective inquiry so that they in turn can teach such ways of thinking to their students (Rodgers & LaBoskey, 2016, p. 71). Such a proposition puts reflection on practice central to learning and development of knowledge required in the future profession and is highly resonant with increased responsibility and accountability, the principle underpinning the SCL concept.

Based on Dewey's ideas about reflection, Rodgers (2002) proposes four criteria for reflection which are relevant to contemporary education and can be applied to the understanding and promotion of reflective practices in pre-service teacher education:

- Reflection is a meaning-making process that moves a learner from one experience into the next with deeper understanding of its relationships with and connections to other experiences and ideas. It is the thread that makes continuity of learning possible, and ensures the progress of the individual and, ultimately, society. It is a means to essentially moral ends.
- Reflection is a systematic, rigorous, disciplined way of thinking, with its roots in system inquiry.
- Reflection needs to happen in community, in interaction with others.
- Reflection requires attitudes that value the personal and intellectual growth of oneself and of others (p. 845).

As for SCL, it is supposed to be a deep learning, which means that learning results have to be personally meaningful and significant and this can be achieved by employing reflective methods in education.

The assertion of SCL as being “*characterised by innovative methods of teaching which aim to promote learning in communication with teachers and other learners and which take students seriously as active participants in their own learning, fostering transferable skills such as problem-solving, critical thinking and reflective thinking*” (“Student-Centred Learning-Toolkit for students, staff and higher education institutions”, 2010, p. 5), justifies further considerations relevant to the assumptions underlying the development of reflective practice that student teachers must be engaged in activities that will teach them how to go about reflecting. This argument puts a demand on teacher educators to choose the most relevant teaching in order to nurture and model

effective and meaningful reflection. Finlay (2008, p. 16) identifies four guiding principles to be born in mind by educators:

- reflective practice(s) should be presented with care;
- adequate support, time, resources, opportunities and methods for reflection should be provided;
- skills of critical analysis should be developed;
- proper account of the context of reflection should be taken.

These afore-mentioned principles enable educators to foster interdependence between teacher and learner and are built on mutual respect between them.

Summing up this part of the research paper, by now it should be evident that reflective practice and student-centered studies are underpinned by the same fundamental principles, putting reflection at their heart which, supported by proper teaching/learning practice, becomes a key aspect of lifelong learning.

### **Conclusion**

The concept of reflective practice in the context of teacher preparation remains to be one of the most important issues which is constantly approached and researched by a wide array of theorists, practitioners and researchers in the field of higher education. It is multifaceted and complex and embraces different theories, categories, levels, types, frameworks, dimensions and models of reflection to be carefully considered when applying them in pre-service teacher education programmes.

The concept of reflective practice is embedded in student-centered studies of pre-service teacher higher education and is built on the same principles, the ultimate goal of which is to enable the process of transformation, first of all, of student teachers who will, in turn, make changes to the whole society.

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# РАЗВИТИЕ ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНО- ПЕДАГОГИЧЕСКОЙ МОТИВАЦИИ БУДУЩИХ ПЕДАГОГОВ В УСЛОВИЯХ ИНТЕГРИРОВАННОГО ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНО-ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОГО ПРОСТРАНСТВА

## *Development of Professional-Pedagogical Motivation of Future Teachers in the Conditions of the Integrated Educational and Professional Space*

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**Abstract.** *The article is devoted to consideration of a problem of modernization of vocational training of future teachers by strengthening of its practical orientation. One of solutions of this problem is designing of the new educational space based on close interaction and integration of resources of university and organizations-customers of specialists. In article the author's model of the integrated educational-professional space of training of teachers is characterized. This model including a number of the interconnected components: target, structural, resource, substantial, procedural-activity and productive.*

*The professional-pedagogical motivation at future teachers was studied by means of „Self-assessment of Professional-Pedagogical Motivation” by N. P. Fetiskin. This tool allows to define at what step of a motivational ladder there is a student: from indifference to future profession to the professional need to seize bases of pedagogical skill.*

**Keywords:** *higher education; educational space; training of future teachers; model.*

### **Введение** **Introduction**

К настоящему моменту в системе педагогического образования ряда стран обострились проблемы, связанные с необходимостью обновления организации и содержания профессиональной подготовки педагогических кадров на основе учёта изменившихся, обусловленных тенденциями

глобализации социально-экономических требований. Ключевыми задачами модернизации высшего педагогического образования становится усиление его практической направленности, ориентация результатов на требования рынка труда и ожидания работодателей, повышение привлекательности педагогической профессии и др. Система подготовки педагогических кадров, отражающая интересы социально-экономического развития государства, в условиях современного университета должна, в первую очередь, продуцировать таких выпускников, которые востребованы и конкурентоспособны на рынке труда, адаптированы к условиям производства (рабочего места), готовы к эффективной реализации своего профессионального потенциала, к ответственной реконструкции социальных объектов в интересах современного общества, способны демонстрировать успешность педагогической профессии, в полной мере осознают себя в качестве реальных действующих лиц социального становления и инновационного развития своего региона, общества и страны в целом.

Одним из определяющих свойств конкурентоспособного специалиста сферы образования является его мотивация к педагогической деятельности, которая определяет не только результативность выполнения им профессиональных задач, но и эффективность его действий в нестандартных ситуациях. Профессиональная мотивация выступает важным внутренним фактором развития профессиональной компетентности и педагогического мастерства специалиста образования. Данные положения определяют значимость обращения к проблеме развития профессиональной мотивации студентов, ориентирующихся на педагогические профессии, поскольку именно в этой научной плоскости характерным образом прорисовываются ключевые аспекты взаимодействия в диаде «личность – профессия», где архитектура образовательного процесса обретает приоритетное значение.

В этом плане весьма актуальной становится трансформация традиционного образовательного пространства подготовки педагогических кадров на основе принципа социального партнерства и взаимодействия, субъектами которого становятся университет и организации-заказчики педагогических кадров. В качестве основных средств создания такого пространства выступают процессы социальной интеграции, цель которых – объединение системы профессионально-педагогического образования с иными региональными институциями, основанное на кооперации ресурсов и разделении ответственности за профессиональную подготовку будущих педагогов.

Все вышесказанное определило цель исследования – конструирование нового образовательного пространства, основанного на тесном взаимодействии и интеграции ресурсов университета и организаций-заказчиков кадров и позволяющего повысить профессионально-педагогическую мотивацию будущих специалистов сферы образования. В качестве методов исследования использовался анализ литературы по проблеме, моделирование, опрос, предполагающий организацию самооценки респондентами собственной профессионально-педагогической мотивации, а также ряд статистических методов обработки результатов.

### **Теоретическая основа исследования** *Theoretical basis of research*

В течение последних десятилетий ученые все чаще обращаются к категории образовательного пространства при решении педагогических, организационно-управленческих и иных проблем (Fraser, 2002; Moos, 1979; Wilson, 1995; Бондырева, 2003; Борытко, 2000; Виленский, 2002; Гинецинский, 1997; Мещерякова, 2002; Пономарев, 2003). Однако до настоящего времени понятие «образовательное пространство» остается одной «из недостаточно разработанных категорий педагогической науки, которая находится в стадии накопления представлений» (Громкова, 2003, с. 241).

Базовое понятие «пространство» имеет длительную историю употребления в социально-гуманитарных науках: философии, социологии, психологии. Обобщенное понимание пространства связано с порядком расположения (взаимным расположением) одновременно сосуществующих объектов. Понятие же образовательного пространства в научных исследованиях не столь однородно по трактовке и наполняется различным содержанием.

Так, например, по мнению Р. Е. Пономарева (2003), «...образовательное пространство человека представляет собой вид пространства, место, охватывающее человека и среду в процессе их взаимодействия, результатом которого является приращение индивидуальной культуры образующегося» (с. 29).

С. К. Гураль и О. А. Обдалова (2011) рассматривают образовательное пространство как «структурированное многообразие отношений между субъектами образовательного процесса» (с. 90).

В. А. Козырев (1999) считает, что, «говоря об образовательном пространстве, мы имеем в виду набор определенным образом связанных между собой условий, которые могут оказывать влияние на образование человека. При этом по смыслу в самом понятии образовательного

пространства не подразумевается включенность в него обучающегося. Образовательное пространство может существовать и независимо от обучающегося» (с. 26).

Таким образом, образовательное пространство может рассматриваться как определенное место расположения взаимодействующих объектов и связанные с ним условия, где осуществляются качественные изменения личности обучающегося в соответствии с целями избранной им образовательной программы.

Инновационное развитие образовательного пространства подготовки педагогических кадров в условиях современности требует тесного сотрудничества учреждения высшего образования и социальных партнеров, основными из которых являются работодатели, в целях модернизации содержания образования и образовательных технологий. Сотрудничество, налаженное в рамках социального партнерства, некоторым образом касается и процесса совершенствования механизма управления образованием, ориентируя его на инновационный режим развития.

Университет является открытой структурой, способной устанавливать многосторонние горизонтальные связи с внешней средой и выходить на тесное взаимодействие с другими социальными системами, интегрируя их ресурсы для решения стоящих перед ним задач.

Приведенные выше общие положения позволили нам создать модель интегрированного образовательно-профессионального пространства подготовки будущих педагогов.

Вопросам моделирования в педагогических исследованиях посвящены работы В. П. Беспалько (1989), Е. А. Лодатко (2010), В. И. Михеева (1987), В. М. Монахова (2001), В. А. Ясвина (2001) и др. Авторы излагают общие подходы к моделированию, обосновывают и доказывают необходимость применения метода моделирования в педагогике. Подчеркивая значение данного исследовательского метода, И. В. Гребенков и Е. В. Чупрунов (2007) отмечают, что «моделирование как способ деятельности и модели как объекты деятельности являются необходимым элементом инструментария любой области знания, претендующей на статус науки» (с. 28).

Понятие «модель» (лат. *modulus* – мера, образец) трактуется как объект-заместитель, который в определенных условиях может заменять объект-оригинал, воспроизводя интересующие свойства и характеристики оригинала, а также предоставляя возможность переноса результатов, полученных в ходе построения и исследования моделей, на оригинал (Камалеева & Нургазизова, 2010, с. 115). Воспроизведение свойств и

характеристик оригинала при моделировании осуществляется как в предметной (макет, устройство, образец), так и в знаковой формах (изображение, график, схема, программа, теория).

Методологическая и прогностическая ценность моделирования состоит в том, что оно «дает возможность изучить процесс до его осуществления. При этом становится возможным выявить отрицательные последствия и ликвидировать или ослабить их до реального проявления» (В. П. Шibaев, 2008, с. 39).

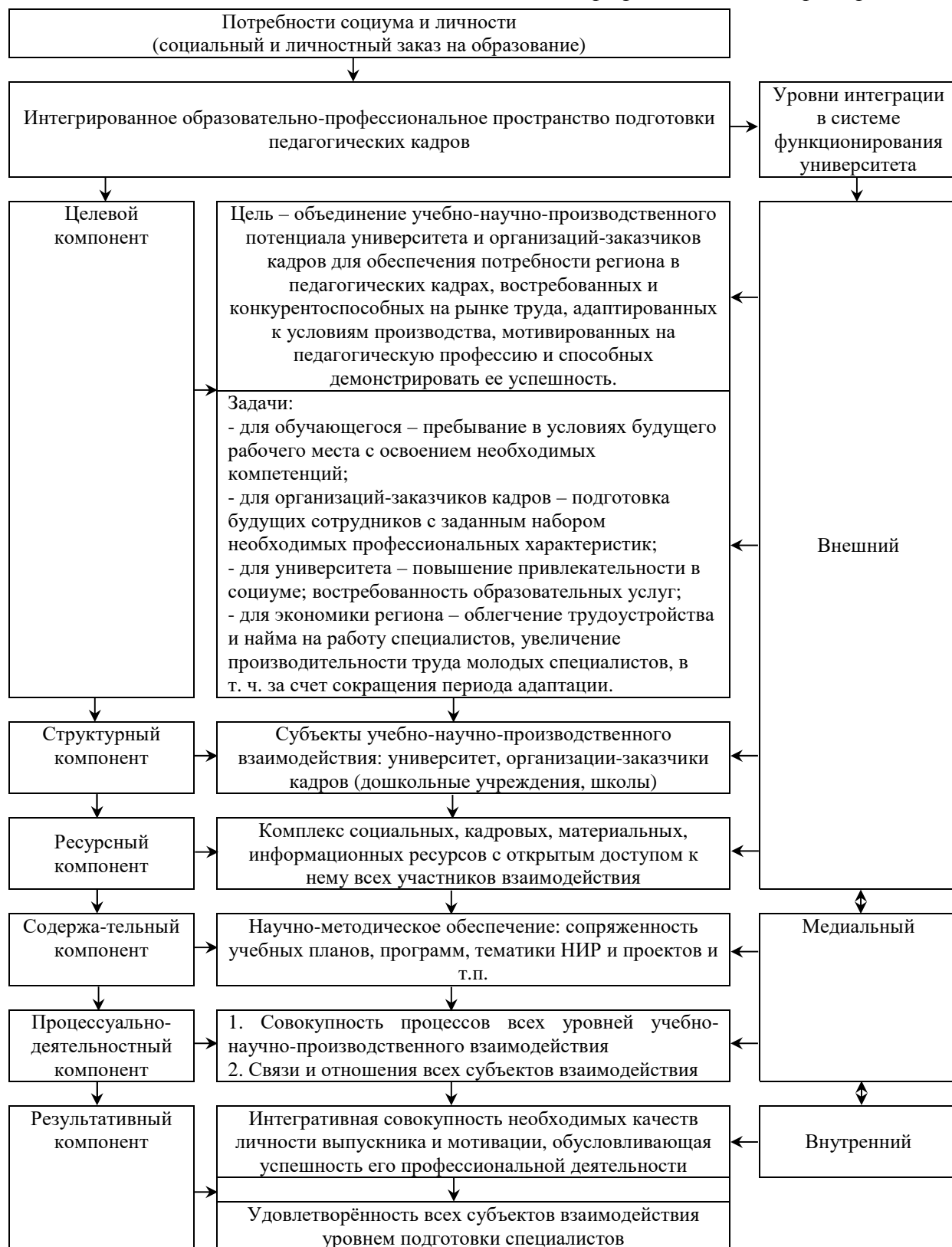
### **Модель интегрированного образовательно-профессионального пространства**

#### ***Model of the integrated educational-professional space***

Сконструированная нами модель образовательно-профессионального пространства подготовки педагогических кадров для регионального развития представляет собой совокупность взаимосвязанных компонентов: целевого, структурного, ресурсного, содержательного, процессуально-деятельностного и результативного (рисунок 1).

Целевой компонент направлен на достижение основной цели – объединения учебно-научно-производственного потенциала университета и организаций-заказчиков кадров для обеспечения потребности региона в педагогических кадрах, востребованных и конкурентоспособных на рынке труда, адаптированных к условиям производства, мотивированных на педагогическую профессию и способных демонстрировать ее успешность.

Цель конкретизирована комплексом задач, представляющих частные цели субъектов выстраиваемого образовательно-профессионального пространства, а также экономики и социума региона (результаты взаимовыгодного сотрудничества): для обучающегося – это пребывание в процессе обучения в условиях рабочего места с освоением необходимых компетенций; для заказчиков кадров – подготовка будущих сотрудников с заданным набором необходимых профессиональных характеристик; для университета – повышение привлекательности в социуме, обеспечиваемой клиенто-ориентированной позицией; востребованность образовательных услуг; для экономики региона – облегчение трудоустройства и найма на работу специалистов сферы образования, увеличение производительности труда молодых специалистов, в т. ч. за счет сокращения периода адаптации к условиям рабочего места.



**Рис.1. Модель интегрированного образовательного-профессионального пространства подготовки педагогов**  
*Figure 1 Model of the integrated educational-professional space of training of teachers*

Структурный компонент модели включает субъектов взаимодействия, реализуемого в процессе подготовки педагогических кадров и основанного на кооперации труда и кооперации в использовании основных средств (фонды, технологический потенциал, оборудование): учреждение высшего образования (университет) и организации-заказчики кадров (учреждения дошкольного образования, средние школы).

Ресурсный компонент содержит комплекс необходимых социальных, кадровых, материальных, информационных ресурсов, которыми располагает каждый из субъектов взаимодействия, и предполагает открытый доступ к указанному комплексу всех участников образовательно-профессионального пространства.

Содержательный компонент объединяет необходимое научно-методическое обеспечение, предназначенное как для обучающихся по образовательным программам подготовки педагогических кадров, так и для профессорско-преподавательского состава университета и педагогических работников организаций-заказчиков кадров, осуществляющих свою профессиональную деятельность в условиях интегрированного образовательно-профессионального пространства.

Процессуально-деятельностный компонент модели обеспечивает реализацию подготовки специалистов в условиях интегрированного образовательно-профессионального пространства и представляет собой совокупность процессов всех уровней взаимодействия его субъектов, взаимосвязи и взаимоотношения территориально разобщенных учреждений образования различных уровней и иных организаций.

Результативный компонент модели отражает продуктивность функционирования интегрированного образовательно-профессионального пространства, проявляющуюся в интегративной совокупности сформированных у выпускника необходимых профессиональных качеств и профессионально-педагогической мотивации, обуславливающей успешность его трудовой деятельности, что, в свою очередь, должно определять удовлетворённость субъектов социума и экономики региона уровнем подготовки специалистов сферы образования.

Перечисленные компоненты являются инвариантной составляющей модели. Вариативная составляющая зависит от содержания образовательных программ подготовки педагогических кадров (в соответствии с выбранной специальностью), характеризует деятельность конкретного участника учебно-научно-производственного взаимодействия в различных образовательных ситуациях, обуславливает выбор форм, методов, технологий, используемых в образовательном процессе. Данная модель обеспечивает продуктивную подготовку педагогических кадров на



основе интеграции инвариантной и вариативной составляющих, пронизывающих и дополняющих друг друга.

Моделирование интегрированного образовательного профессионального пространства подготовки педагогических кадров для регионального развития позволило увидеть потенциальную позицию современного университета как интегратора различных ресурсов – внешних и внутренних, определяющих подготовку эффективных, мотивированных на профессионально-педагогическую деятельность специалистов; как центра, обеспечивающего социальное партнерство в сфере подготовки педагогических кадров и интегрированный результат этого процесса, выражающийся в формировании у выпускников целостного комплекса профессионально значимых свойств.

В связи с этим в предлагаемой нами модели выделен ряд уровней в системе функционирования университета при подготовке педагогических кадров, каждый из которых вносит свой вклад в обеспечение интеграционных процессов:

- внутренний, объединяющий в себе инициированные университетом, его социальными практиками внутриличностные изменения, обеспечивающие интегративный результат подготовки выпускника как совокупности необходимых компетентностей;
- медиальный, обусловленный интеграцией процессов образования, научного исследования и производственной практики, теоретической и практической подготовки специалистов, межкафедрального, межподразделенческого сотрудничества, учебной, научной и практической деятельности обучающихся в ее операциональном аспекте;
- внешний, охватывающий сферу социального партнерства университета с другими организациями, региональным сообществом.

### **Результаты исследования** *Results of research*

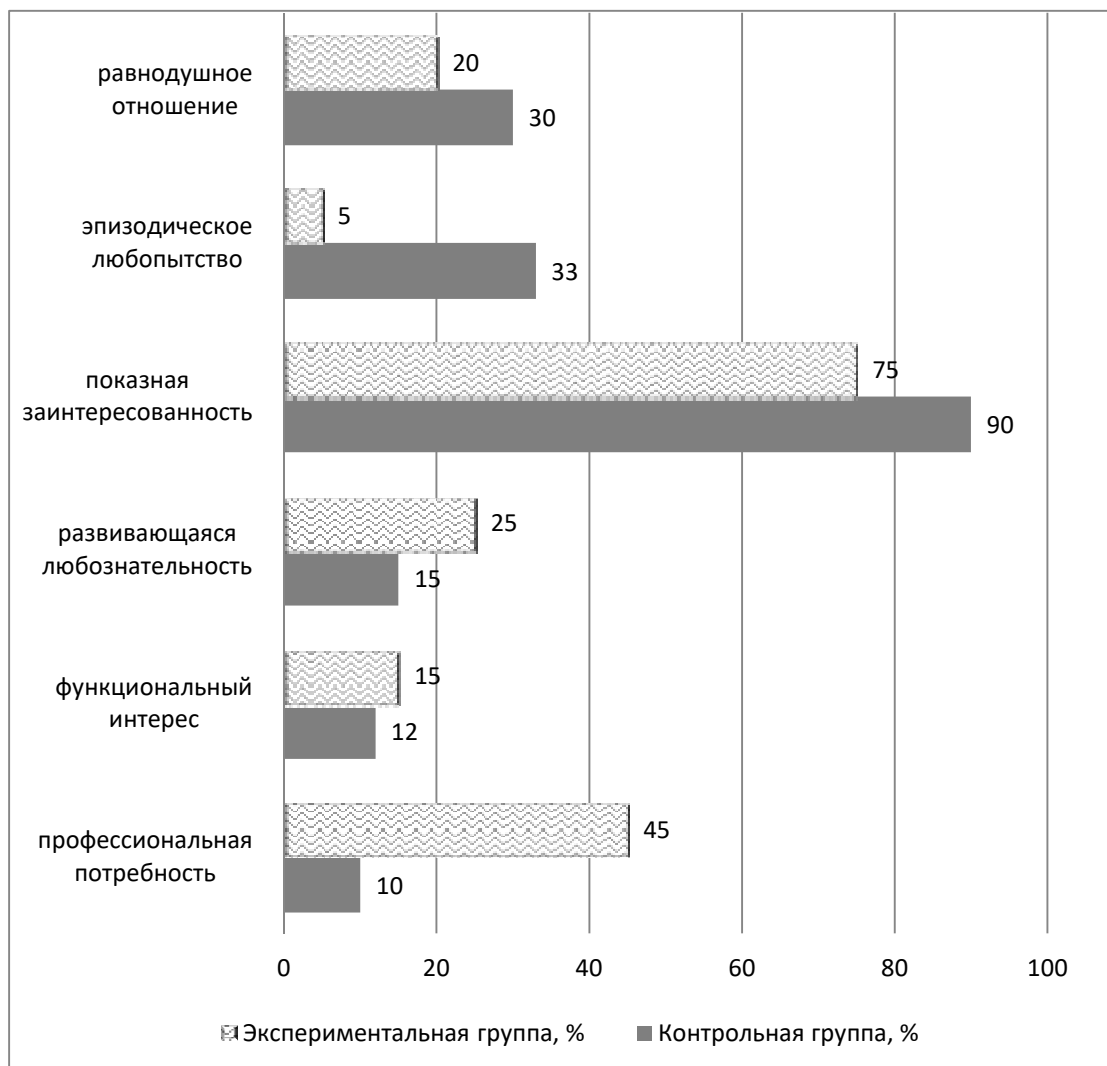
Внедрение разработанной нами модели интегративного образовательного профессионального пространства в практику подготовки педагогических кадров, по нашему замыслу, должно, в частности, обеспечить оптимальный содержательный уровень развития профессионально-педагогической мотивации будущих специалистов сферы образования.

Соответствующее образовательно-интегративное пространство было сконструировано для студентов 1–2 курсов специальностей педагогического факультета Гродненского государственного университета имени Янки Купалы. В исследование были включены студенты, осваивающие образовательные программы «Дошкольное образование», «Начальное образование», «Олигофренопедагогика», «Логопедия» (экспериментальная (n=50) и контрольная (n=42) группы).

Профессионально-педагогическая мотивация у будущих педагогов изучалась с помощью диагностической методики «Самооценка профессионально-педагогической мотивации», адаптированной Н. П. Фетискиным (2002). Данный инструмент позволяет определить, на какой ступени мотивационной лестницы находится студент: от равнодушия к будущей профессии до профессиональной потребности овладеть основами педагогического мастерства. Материалом для исследования, согласно данной методике, является опросник, утверждения которого респонденты оценивали по частоте. В дальнейшей обработке опросников ответ «всегда» оценивался баллом 5, ответ «часто» – баллом 4, ответ «не очень часто» – баллом 3, ответ «редко» – баллом 2, ответ «никогда» – баллом 1. Определение содержания преобладающих мотивов каждого респондента основывалось на суммировании полученных баллов по категориям вопросов, обозначающих наличие профессиональной потребности, функционального интереса, развивающейся любознательности, показной заинтересованности, эпизодического любопытства или равнодушного отношения. По каждому из критериев был определен один из уровней профессионально-педагогической мотивации: 11 и более баллов – высокий, 6–10 – средний, 5 и менее – низкий.

В ходе анализа данных диагностики самооценки профессионально-педагогической мотивации были получены подтверждающие эффективность апробируемой модели результаты (рисунок 2). С помощью непараметрического критерия U Манна-Уитни нами были установлены статистически значимые различия в выборках студентов 1 и 2 курсов экспериментальной и контрольной групп. У студентов контрольной группы преобладают высокие показатели по следующим шкалам: показная заинтересованность (90 %), эпизодическое любопытство (46 %), равнодушное отношение (38 %), что в целом определяет недостаточный содержательный уровень профессионально-педагогической мотивации. У студентов же экспериментальной группы отмечены высокие показатели профессиональной потребности (45 %). Указанные различия в группах респондентов являются статистически значимыми ( $U=0,0003$ , при  $p \leq 0,05$ ). Так, показатель по критерию «показная заинтересованность» имеет тенденцию к уменьшению в экспериментальной группе, а показатели по

критерию «профессиональная потребность» ( $U=0,0008$ , при  $p \leq 0,05$ ) увеличиваются в зависимости от перехода с курса на курс, что подтверждает благоприятное влияние сконструированного нами интегративного образовательно-профессионального пространства на профессионально-педагогическую мотивацию будущих педагогов.



**Рис.2. Результаты самооценки профессионально-педагогической мотивации будущих педагогов**

*Figure 2 Results of self-assessment of professional-pedagogical motivation in future teachers*

## **Выводы** **Conclusions**

Таким образом, отвечая на вызовы современности, система высшего педагогического образования стремится к развитию по пути осознания необходимости обоснования и разработки новых моделей профессиональной подготовки обучающихся на основе принципа прагматизации, предполагающего сближение содержания и организации обучения со спецификой содержания и организации будущей профессиональной деятельности специалиста педагогического профиля.

Одним из путей решения этой проблемы является конструирование нового, интегрированного образовательного-профессионального пространства, основанного на тесном взаимодействии и интеграции ресурсов университета и организаций-заказчиков педагогических кадров и результирующего распределенной ответственностью за образовательный продукт.

Внедрение модели интегрированного образовательного-профессионального пространства в систему подготовки будущих специалистов образования обеспечивает эффективное развитие у обучающихся профессионально-педагогической мотивации до оптимального содержательного уровня, что подтверждается данными диагностики.

## **Summary**

The main objectives of modernization of the higher pedagogical education is strengthening of his practical orientation, orientation of his results to requirements of labor market, increase in competitiveness of specialists and appeal of a pedagogical profession.

The motivation of pedagogical activity is one of the main properties of the competitive specialist of education. The motivation defines not only effectiveness of performance by the specialist of professional tasks, but also and defines efficiency of his actions in unusual situations. The professional motivation acts as the main internal factor of development of professional competence and pedagogical skill of the specialist of education.

Therefore very urgent is a transformation of traditional educational space of training of teachers on the basis of the principle of social partnership and interaction. The university and the organizations-customers of specialists become subjects of this interaction.

Our developed model of educational-professional space of training of future teachers is set of the interconnected components: target, structural, resource, substantial, procedural-activity and productive.

Introduction of this model of integrative educational-professional space in practice of training of future teachers, in our opinion, has to provide optimum level of development of professional and pedagogical motivation at them.

For confirmation of efficiency of introduction of the model in practice we have studied professional-pedagogical motivation at students-future teachers by means of a technique „A self-assessment of professional and pedagogical motivation” (N. P. Fetiskin).

Following the results of diagnostics it is defined that an indicator by criterion „ostentatious interest” tends to reduction in experimental group, and indicators by criterion „professional requirement” increase depending on transition from a course to a course. It confirms beneficial effect of the integrative educational-professional space designed by us on professional-pedagogical motivation of future teachers.

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## MĀCĪBU METODES TEMATA “SERVITŪTU TIESISKAIS REGULĒJUMS” APGUVĒ

### *Teaching Methods in the Mastering Course “Legal Regulation of Easement”*

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**Abstract.** *The goal of any university is to train highly qualified specialists who would be competitive on the labour market. Each branch of law or speciality has specific teaching methods designed to bring the desired result, where students are able to acquire knowledge and develop their skills and abilities. The research deals with several teaching methods that could be relevant with respect to the legal framework of easements and presents the results of observations and questionnaire surveys covering students of several bachelor’s degree programmes (Law, Innovation Economics and Business, Accounting and Audit, Interior Design and Culture Management).*

*The research emphasises that even complicated issues may be presented in a simplified and easily understandable manner, thereby promoting the students’ interest in their exercises. It is essential to select the appropriate teaching method and formulate adequate practical exercises.*

**Keywords:** *Teaching method, observation, practical exercise, student, easement.*

### **Ievads**

#### **Introduction**

Vienā no nozīmīgākajiem politikas plānošanas dokumentiem Latvijā “Latvijas ilgtspējīgas attīstības stratēģija (Latvija 2030)” uzsvērts: “Ņemot vērā, ka pasaules ekonomika un tehnoloģijas tuvākajos 20 gados var strauji mainīties, efektīva un elastīga augstākās izglītības sistēma ir izšķirošs Latvijas konkurētspējas un cilvēkkapitāla vērtības faktors (Latvija 2030). Savukārt A. Štokenbergs ir teicis, ka “informēta un tiesiski izglītota sabiedrība ir jebkuras tiesiskas valsts mērķis, jo tikai izglītota sabiedrība var nodrošināt valsts izaugsmi un konkurētspēju” (Štokenbergs, 2011).

Augstskolu likuma 5. panta otrajā daļā reglamentēts, ka “Augstskolas izstrādā studiju programmas, izraugās akadēmisko personālu, iekārto

laboratorijas, darbnīcas, bibliotēkas un citas struktūras tā, lai studējošajiem dotu iespēju iegūt zināšanas, akadēmisko izglītību un profesionālo prasmi atbilstoši zinātnes attīstības līmenim un Latvijas kultūras tradīcijām, turklāt iespējami koncentrētā un didaktiski pilnvērtīgā veidā" (Augstskolu likums, 1995)

Latvijas ilgtspējīgas attīstības stratēģijā izvirzīto mērķu sasniegšana un augstskolu darbība nav iedomājama bez akadēmiskā personāla – docētājiem, kas izglīto studējošos. Arī V. Krastiņš norāda, ka "Nozīmīga skolu izglītojošās vides komponente ir pedagogi. Viņu profesionālā sagatavotība un meistarība vistiešākā veidā ietekmē izglītības kvalitāti" (Krastiņš, 2010). I. Vedins uzsver, ka studiju procesa kvalitāti nosaka studiju programmas, studiju kursu saturs, docētāja profesionālā meistarība. Savukārt viens no profesionālās meistarības nosacījumiem ir mācību metožu sistēmas radoša apgūšana (Vedins, 2011). Mācību metode ir skolotāja un skolēnu savstarpējās sadarbības paņēmieni kopums, kāds nepieciešams noteikta didaktiskā principa vai pedagoģiskās pieejas ietvaros, un paredzēts, lai nodrošinātu mācību, audzināšanas un attīstības uzdevumu izpildi mācību procesā un izglītības mērķu sasniegšanu (Pedagoģijas terminu skaidrojošā vārdnīca, 2010). Citēto definīciju autore attiecina arī uz studentiem. I. Žogla mācību metodi skaidro kā didaktikas kategoriju, kas apzīmē veidu, kā divpusējā mācību procesā sasniedz mērķī paredzēto rezultātu tā kvantitatīvi kvalitatīvajā izteiksmē (Žogla, 2001).

Autore konstatē, ka gan Latvijā, gan citās pasaules valstīs jautājums par mācību metodēm ir plaši pētīts un pamatā visi autori ir nonākuši pie secinājuma, ka mācību metodes ir virzītas uz to, lai īstenotu mācīšanās mērķus (Rutka, 2012; Albrehta, 2001; Zelmenis, 2000; Žogla, 2001; Gudjons, 2007; Vedins, 2011; Kapeloviča, Žukovs, 2000; Andersone, 2007). Pedagoģijas terminu skaidrojošā vārdnīcā (2010) mācību mērķis skaidrots kā ideāls priekšstats par gaidāmo mācīšanās un mācīšanās rezultātu, kas balstīts uz skolēnu vecumposma attīstības likumībām un mācību satura apjoma un dziļuma vienotību. Pamatojoties uz jau esošām pētnieku atziņām un personīgi gūto pedagoģisko pieredzi, autore atspoguļos mācību metodes, kas pielietojamas viena temata apgūvē vairāku studiju kursu ietvaros.

**Pētījuma mērķis** – atklāt studiju kursus "Lietu tiesības" un "Tiesību pamati" pielietojamo mācību metožu efektivitāti un lietderību, balstoties uz novērojuma un aptaujas datiem.

Ņemot vērā, ka studiju kursā tiek aplūkoti vairāki temati un katra temata apgūvē tiek pielietotas dažādas metodes, šajā pētījumā raksturotas metodes, kas pielietojamas temata "Servitūtu tiesiskais regulējums" apgūšanas procesā.

**Izmantotās pētniecības metodes:** literatūras un tiesību aktu teorētiskā analīze; aptauja; novērošana. Rezultāti interpretēti kvalitatīvi, izmantojot kvalitatīvu satura analīzi.



## **Pētījuma metodoloģija** ***Research Methodology***

Pētījums balstīts gan uz literatūras, gan tiesību aktu teorētisko analīzi. Lai noskaidrotu jēdziena “mācību metode” saturu un praktisko nozīmi, analizētas vairāku autoru paustās atziņas. Uzmanība vērsta arī uz politikas plānošanas dokumentos un normatīvajos aktos izvirzītajiem mērķiem izglītības jomā.

Tā kā temats par servitūtiem ir samērā plašs un sarežģīts, docētāja uzdevums ir atrast vispiemērotāko mācību metodi un paņēmieni, kā maksimāli vienkāršotu šī temata apguvi. Lai studentiem sniegtu zināšanas un izpratni par jautājumiem, kas saistīti ar servitūtu tiesisko regulējumu, ir iespējams izmantot dažādas mācību metodes. Tāpēc katrs docētājs izvēlas to, ko uzskata par visefektīvāko. Šī pētījuma ietvaros aplūkotas vairākas mācību metodes un mācību procesā autores pielietojamie mācību paņēmieni. Mācību paņemiens ir mācību metodes sastāvdaļa, ar kuru mācību mērķa sasniegšanas procesā veic konkrētu uzdevumu (Albrehta, 2001; Pedagoģijas terminu skaidrojošā vārdnīca, 2010). Lai pārliecinātos par izvēlēto mācību metožu un paņēmienu pozitīvajām un/vai negatīvajām iezīmēm, pētījumā autore izmantoja aptaujas metodi, veicot studentu anketēšanu un organizējot pārrunas.

Pētījumam bija izvēlēti divās augstākās izglītības iestādēs (Rīgas Stradiņa universitātē un Ekonomikas un kultūras augstskolā) studējoši studenti, kas studiju programmas ietvaros apgūst studiju kursus, kuros iekļauts temats “Servitūtu tiesiskais regulējums”. Jānorāda, ka minētais temats tiek apgūts Rīgas Stradiņa universitātē Tiesību zinātņu programmā studiju kursa “Lietu tiesības” ietvaros. Savukārt Ekonomikas un kultūras augstskolā Inovatīvās ekonomikas un uzņēmējdarbības, Grāmatvedības un audita; Interjera dizaina un Kultūras vadības studiju programmās studējošie šo tematu vispārīgi apgūst studiju kursa “Tiesību pamati” ietvaros. Abās minētajās augstākās izglītības iestādēs studējošie studiju kursa ietvaros pilda identiskus praktiskos uzdevumus. Ar mērķi noskaidrot, vai respondentu viedokļi, ieinteresētība, motivācija un citi faktori atšķiras un ietekmē praktiskā darba izpildes kvalitāti, ņemot vērā studiju programmas veidu, pirmajā grupā iedalīti tie respondenti, kuri studē studiju programmā Tiesību zinātnes. Pie otras grupas - studiju programmu Inovatīvā ekonomika un uzņēmējdarbība, Grāmatvedība un audits; Interjera dizains; Kultūras vadība programmās studējošo respondentu anketas.

Studentiem izdalītas aptaujas anketas un studenti sniedza atbildes uz uzdotajiem jautājumiem, izvēloties vienu vai vairākus no piedāvātajiem atbilžu variantiem, kā arī sniedza komentārus, ieteikumus, priekšlikumus, pauda savu viedokli par attiecīgo patstāvīgi izstrādāto vai izpildīto praktisko uzdevumu.

Anketas izdalītas un aizpildītas par 3 praktiskajiem uzdevumiem (praktiskie uzdevumi raksturoti sadaļā - Temata “Servitūtu tiesiskais

regulējums” apguvē izmantojamo mācību metožu izvēles pamatojums un raksturojums) un gūtie rezultāti atspoguļoti sadaļā “Pētījuma rezultāti”.

Lai nodrošinātu aptaujā sniegto atbilžu maksimālu ticamību, izsniegtās anketas bija anonīmas un izdalītas tikai pēc attiecīgā studiju kursa beigām un eksāmena vērtējumu paziņošanas (2017. gada janvārī). Minētais darīts ar mērķi, lai studenti neizjustu bažas par to, ka docētājs varētu identificēt katru konkrētu studentu un nepieļautu domu, ka anketās sniegtās atbildes varētu negatīvi ietekmēt eksāmena rezultātu. Līdz ar to autore skatījumā tika nodrošināta pilnīga izteiksmes brīvība.

Visas aizpildītās anketas atzītas par derīgām. Iegūtie dati analizēti, izvērtējot visas anketas kopumā, gan arī pa atsevišķi nodalītām grupām.

Izvēlēto mācību metožu efektivitātes novērtēšanai izmantota arī novērošanas metode, vēršot uzmanību uz to, ar kādu interesi, motivāciju studenti pievēršas praktisko uzdevumu izpildei un cik rūpīgi tos izpilda. Kā arī pirms un pēc praktisko uzdevumu izpildes veiktas pārrunas par ieguvumiem un grūtībām, ar ko var saskarties vai saskārās studenti, patstāvīgi izstrādājot vai pildot praktiskos uzdevumus.

Rezultāti interpretēti kvalitatīvi, izmantojot kvalitatīvu satura analīzi.

**Temata “Servitūtu tiesiskais regulējums” apguvē izmantojamo mācību metožu izvēles pamatojums un raksturojums**  
*Grounds for the selection and the description of methods to be applied in the teaching of the legal framework of easements*

Servitūta būtību atklāj Civillikuma 1130. pants “Servitūts ir tāda tiesība uz svešu lietu, ar kuru īpašuma tiesība uz to ir lietošanas ziņā aprobežota kādai noteiktai personai vai noteiktam zemes gabalam par labu (Civillikums, 1937). Latvijā pastāv vairāki servitūtu veidi un studentu uzdevums mācību procesā ir iepazīt katru no tiem, izprast to būtību un piemērošanas jomas. Jāatzīmē, ka mācību procesu var aplūkot gan no studentu, gan no docētāja darbības puses. Aplūkojot mācību procesu no docētāja puses, jānorāda, ka mācību process ietver 5 galvenos uzdevumus: 1. Izvēlēties mērķus. 2. Izprast audzēkņu īpašības. 3. Izprast un izmantot idejas par mācīšanos un mācību motivāciju. 4. Izvēlēties un izmantot mācīšanas veidus (metodes un paņēmienus). 5. Novērtēt audzēkņu mācību sasniegumus (Geidžs & Berliners, 1998).

Kā iepriekš minēts, teorijā izšķir dažādas mācību metodes. Mācību metožu klasifikācija ir iespējama pēc vairākiem pamatiem. Augstskolas didaktikā svarīgākie ir trīs iedalījuma pamati – pēc mācību vielas avota, tās loģiskās virzības un intelektuālās ievirzes (Vedins, 2001). Jānorāda, ka autore mācību procesā minētās mācību metodes cenšas pielietot savstarpējā mijiedarbībā un dažādās kombinācijās. Uz to ir vērsti arī autore izstrādātie praktiskie uzdevumi,

kas detalizēti raksturoti turpinājumā. Mācīšanās pieejas kļūst elastīgākas un studiju modeļi tiek kombinēti saistībā ar studentu iespējam, kas, savukārt, atbilst studentu dzīvesvietai un nodarbinātībai, viņu interesēm un spējām. Bet tam nepieciešama studenta mērķtiecīga darbība, patstāvība, pacietība, prasme organizēt savu un mācīšanās laiku (Smith & Wade, 1994).

Autores skatījumā, viens no būtiskākajiem docētāja uzdevumiem iepazīstinot studentus ar praktiskā uzdevuma saturu, ir izskaidrot mērķi un ieguvumus. Taču ieguvumus svarīgi skaidrot ne tikai no teorētiskā viedokļa, bet jāilustrē ar praktiskiem piemēriem kā iegūtās prasmes students varēs pielietot ikdienas dzīvē. J. Ģirupnieks, kas bija izcils pedagogs, rakstnieks, zinātņu popularizētājs, uzsvēra, ka bērni būs ieinteresēti izdarīt pat grūtu darbu, ja vien “skolotājs zina viņiem pateikt, kur minētās zināšanas viņiem dzīvē noderēs, ja skolotājs prot savas stundas saturu sasaistīt ar praktisko dzīvi” (Ģirupnieks, 1931). Modernā pedagoģija akcentē nevis informācijas iegaumēšanu, bet tās izpratni, tādējādi izvirzot arvien jaunas prasības kā docētājiem, tā studentiem (Kincāns, 2007). Ikdienas dzīvē un profesionālajā darbībā daudz lielāka vērtība būs nevis iegaumētajam, bet izprastajam.

Turpinājumā autore raksturo katru no autores izstrādātajiem praktiskajiem uzdevumiem, kas tieši virzīti studenti uz izpratnes veidošanu:

**[1] Krustvārdu mīklas sastādīšana/risināšana.** Šis praktiskais darbs sākotnēji liekas neparasts un pārāk vienkāršs. Un dažiem pat var rasties jautājums, “Ko ar šādu darbu var iemācīt, īpaši jau augstskolas studentiem?”. Taču pēc tā izpildes studenti atzīst, ka darbs bija interesants, samērā sarežģīts, jo prasīja laiku, uzmanības koncentrēšanos un rūpību, bet tajā pat laikā lietderīgs, jo gūtas papildus zināšanas. Krustvārdu mīklas sastādīšana ir radošs process, kas autores skatījumā attīsta studenta intelektu. Intelektu attīstība jaunībā ir cieši saistīta ar radošo spēju attīstību, kas nosaka ne tikai vienkāršu informācijas iegaumēšanu, bet arī intelektuālās iniciatīvas izpausmi un kaut kā jauna radīšanu (Baltušīte, 2006).

Praktiskais uzdevums ir komplicēts un sastāv no vairākiem posmiem:

*1. posms. Izpildes nosacījumu, mērķa un ieguvumu izskaidrošana (mutiski, rakstiski).* Pirmkārt, docētājam svarīgi paskaidrot, ka praktiskā darba mērķis ir sniegt papildus zināšanas, attīstīt prasmes formulēt precīzus jautājumus un kompetenci patstāvīgi atrast nepieciešamo informāciju, analizēt to un atlasīt būtiskāko.

Studentiem ir jāpaskaidro, ka jebkurai personai ir jāspēj ne tikai sniegt atbildes uz jautājumiem, bet arī jāprot precīzi formulēt uzdodamo jautājumu. Īpaši tas svarīgi Tiesību zinības studējošajiem studentiem. Jo juridiskajās profesijās strādājošajiem ir jāprot jautājumu formulēt tā, lai to nepārprastu, lai saņemtu uz to precīzu atbildi vai vēlamu atbildi. Precīzi formulēts jautājums bieži ir advokāta panākumu atslēga uzvarai tiesas prāvā.

Arī tiem studējošajiem, kas apgūst citas profesijas, izkopta jautājumu formulēšanas māksla noteikti būs noderīga gan darbā, gan ikdienas dzīvē. Piemēram, rakstot iesniegumu kādai no valsts iestādēm ir jāpārdomā uzdoto jautājumu formulējumi, lai būtu droši, ka jautājumu izpratīs un uz to būs iespējams sniegt atbildi pēc būtības. Ir daudz gadījumu, ka neprecīzi formulēta jautājuma dēļ atbildi uz iesniegumu nav iespējams sniegt. Tāpēc autore ir pārliecināta, ka saņemot izvērstu un ar praktiskiem piemēriem pamatotu skaidrojumu, studentam noteikti veidosies nopietna attieksme pret veicamo darbu.

2. posms. *Studenta patstāvīgais darbs pie krustvārdu mīklas izstrādes – dizains, jautājumu un atbilžu formulēšana.* Šajā posmā studenta uzdevums ir atlasīt un lasīt noteiktu literatūru un/vai citus izziņas avotus par servitūtiem un pamatojoties uz izlasīto, formulēt noteiktu skaitu jautājumu. Jāatzīmē, ka vienlaicīgi lasot un formulējot jautājumus, students gūto informāciju iegaumē un izprot daudz labāk nekā tikai izlasot.

3. posms. *Darbs auditorijā.* Lai nodarbības padarītu aizraujošākas un pārbaudītu iegūtās zināšanas, studentu uzdevums ir apmainīties ar izstrādātajām krustvārdu mīklām un aizpildīt tās. Paralēli studentu uzdevums ir rakstiskā veidā īsi izteikt savu viedokli par kursa biedra sastādīto krustvārdu mīklu un formulētajiem jautājumiem (piemēram, norādīt, kuri jautājumi nebija saprotami/korekti formulēti. Vai tieši pretējo).

4. posms. *Aizpildīto krustvārdu mīklu pārbaude* (pamatojoties uz izstrādātāja sagatavotajām atbildēm). Ne visiem studentiem izdodas pilnībā atbildēt uz krustvārdu mīklā esošiem jautājumiem. Tāpēc šajā posmā krustvārdu mīklas izstrādātājs izsniedz izpildītājam lapu ar pareizajām atbildēm. Tādējādi izpildītājs var pārliecināties par to, uz cik jautājumiem ir atbildējis pareizi un uzzināt pareizās atbildes uz neatbildētajiem jautājumiem. Šis posms dod iespēju atcerēties gan paša lasīto, gan uzzināt ko jaunu.

5. posms. *Apspriešana.* Šajā posmā studentiem ir iespēja apmainīties ar viedokļiem par katra izstrādāto praktisko darbu, izteikt piezīmes un uzteikt praktiskā darba izstrādātāju par centību, iegūt plašāku skaidrojumu par neizprasto jautājumu utt. Tas notiek diskusijas veidā, kas ne tikai ļauj apmainīties ar informāciju, bet arī attīsta saskarsmes kultūru. Interesanti atzīmēt, ka dažkārt novērotas ļoti spraigas un ilgas diskusijas, kurās iesaistās pat visa auditorija un docētājs.

6. posms. *Izvērtēšana un vērtējumu izlikšana.* Vērtējumu izlikšana par paveikto parasti ir docētāja prerogātīva. Taču dažkārt ir vērts šādas tiesības piešķirt pašiem studentiem. Līdz ar to, pēc noteiktiem kritērijiem izstrādātājs izvērtē paša padarīto un novērtē ar atzīmi savu izstrādāto krustvārdu mīklu un izpildītāja sniegtās atbildes. Savukārt izpildītājs novērtē ar atzīmi izstrādātāja krustvārdu mīklas kvalitāti.

Šis posms nav mazāk svarīgs kā pārējie, jo var droši apgalvot, ka studenti pat nepazināti nodarbojas ar izvērtēšanu, pašnovērtējumu un paškontroli. Jautājumu par izvērtēšanu, pašnovērtējumu un paškontroli mācību procesā ir plaši pētījusi L. Hahele, kura norāda, ka izvērtēšana ir mērķtiecīga, detalizēta savas darbības un rezultātu mijsaikarību analīze, plānojot turpmāko darbību. Savukārt apkopojusi dažādu autoru viedokļus par pašnovērtējumu, Hahele norāda, ka autori pašnovērtējumu aplūko kā mācīšanās stratēģiju, kas palīdz veidot jēgu, izsecināt būtiskumu, saskatīt saistību ar savu iepriekšējo mācīšanās pieredzi [...], bet citi – kā līdzekli personības attīstībai un mācīšanās motivācijai [...], tomēr kopīgi akcentējot atziņu, ka, izvērtējot skolēnu rakstītos pašnovērtējumus, skolotāji var izvēlēties skolēniem piemērotākas mācību metodes un pedagoģiskos līdzekļus (Hahele, 2006). L. Hahele min, ka “Pašnovērtēšanas rezultātā notiek virzība no izvīzītajiem mērķiem un uzdevumiem uz mācību rezultātiem un progresu. Izvērtējot mācīšanās kvalitāti, skolēns uzlabo savus mācību rezultātus (Hahele, 2006). Kā atzīmē Rotenbergs, jo biežāk tiek pārbaudīts un novērtēts skolēna darbs (tajā skaitā pašam pārbaudot savu darbu vai nododot to pārbaudei citiem apmācāmajiem), jo interesantāk viņam strādāt (Ротенберг, 1989).

Teiktajam pilnībā var piekrist un var apgalvot, ka pedagoģiskajā praksē ir lietderīgi izmantot ne tikai dažādas mācību metodes, bet arī dažādas vērtēšanas metodes. Par to liecina arī autores novērojumi, strādājot ar studentiem.

## **[2] Tiesas sprieduma analīze.**

Arī šī praktiskā uzdevuma izpildei studentiem nepieciešams padziļināts skaidrojums. Tiesas spriedumu atlase un analīze ir neatņemama juridisko profesiju pārstāvju darba sastāvdaļa. Tiesu praksi piemēro rakstot dažāda satura dokumentus – skaidrojumus, pretenzijas, brīdinājumus, prasības pieteikumus utt. Uz tiesu praksi (judikatūru) juristi, advokāti, prokurori u.c. atsauca, sniedzot paskaidrojumus tiesā un pamatojot savu viedokli, tādējādi nostiprinot savas pozīcijas un radot pārliecību par teikto.

Lai gan šis praktiskais uzdevums vairāk piemērots studiju programmai Tiesību zinības. Taču nevar aizmirst, ka jebkura persona var nonākt situācijā, kad savas intereses nākas aizstāvēt tiesā (piemēram, gadījumā, ja nav iespējams piekļūt savam īpašumam un nepieciešams nodibināt ceļa servitūtu uz blakus esoša zemes gabala). Diemžēl, ne vienmēr ir iespējams algot juristu vai advokātu savu lietu vešanai. Un šādās situācijās nozīmīgs ieguvums būs studiju kursā iegūtās spējas atlasīt risināmai situācijai atbilstošo tiesas spriedumu par servitūta nodibināšanu, atlasīt tajā būtiskāko informāciju, izanalizēt to, cenšoties piemērot situācijai. Jāatzīmē, ka tiesas spriedumu ir jāprot lasīt, lai izprastu tā būtību un varētu izmantot to savu interešu aizsardzībai. Veidi, pēc kādiem veic tiesas sprieduma analīzi ir dažādi un atkarīgi gan no studiju kursa satura,

mērķiem, gan docētāja pārliecības. Uzdodot minēto uzdevumu, sākotnēji ir jāpārliecina, vai iepriekš studenti tāda veida darbu ir veikuši. Ja nav, tad noteikti jādod norādes uz ko vērst uzmanību, analizējot spriedumu. Piemēram, lūdzot situāciju attēlot shematiski un dodot studentiem ievirzes jautājumus: *Kādas instances tiesa lietu izskatīja? Kas ar ko strīdējās? Saistībā ar ko puses strīdējās un ko lūdza tiesai? Kādi bija pušu svarīgākie argumenti, aizstāvojot savas intereses? Kādas ir tiesas atziņas? (uz kādiem likumiem un likumu pantiem pamato savu spriedumu. Ne tikai jānosauc panta numurs, bet jāieskatās arī attiecīgajā likumā, lai zinātu, ko šis pants nosaka); Ko tiesa nosprieda?*

Izpildot šo praktisko uzdevumu, studentiem ir sekojoši ieguvumi: rodas priekšstats par teorijas piemērošanu praksē; tiesību normu tulkošanas un piemērošanas īpatnībām; izpratne par tiesas spriedumā lietotajiem terminiem. Studenti attīsta spēju analizēt un atlasīt svarīgāko informāciju, loģisko domāšanu un izkopj juridisko valodu.

Protams, visefektīvākais šī praktiskā darba noslēgums ir analizētā sprieduma pārspriešana auditorijā, kur katram studentam dota iespēja izteikties, uzdot jautājumus, papildināt vienu otru.

### **[3] Studiju kursu noslēdzošais praktiskais darbs – atbilžu sniegšana uz jautājumiem.**

Paralēli tam, ka studiju kursa ietvaros studenti izstrādā dažādus praktiskos darbus un raksta kontroldarbus, jau pirmajā nodarbībā studentiem tiek paziņots, ka studiju kursa noslēgumā (eksāmena dienā) jānodod apjomīgs noslēdzošais darbs (studentiem pieejams elektroniskajā e-studiju vidē), kas sastāv no 45 jautājumiem, aptverot visu studiju kursa saturu, t.sk. jautājumus par servitūtiem. Jautājumu saturs ir dažādas sarežģītības pakāpes (jāatbild ar «jā» vai «nē»; jāsniedz izvērsts skaidrojums; uzskaitījums; jāveic salīdzināšana, izdarot patstāvīgus secinājumus; jāpamato atbildes ar konkrētiem piemēriem vai normatīvajiem aktiem; jāatklāj aktualitātes utt.).

Uzdevuma mērķis ir padziļināt studentu zināšanas un izpratni par studiju kursā apskatītajiem jautājumiem, rosināt patstāvīgi domāt, salīdzināt un meklēt konkrētu informāciju, pamatot savu viedokli, atkārtot studiju kursa laikā skatītos jautājumus (uzskaitītais pie uzdevuma izpildes norādīts arī kā studentu ieguvumi). Galvenais akcents likts uz to, lai students nevarētu mehāniski atrast un nokopēt informāciju, bet būtu spiests domāt pats. Tas palīdz sagatavoties gaidāmajam eksāmenam un šāda veida darbs viennozīmīgi veicina izpratni un atcerēšanos labāk nekā teksta lasīšana.

Nākamajā sadaļā autore atspoguļos studentu anketēšanā gūtos rezultātus par studentu izstrādātajiem vai izpildītajiem praktiskajiem uzdevumiem: Krustvārdu mīklas sastādīšana/risināšana (skatīt 1.tabulu); Tiesas sprieduma analīze (skatīt 2.tabulu); Noslēdzošais praktiskais darbs – atbildes uz

jautājumiem (skatīt 3.tabulu). Jānorāda, ka anketēšanā iegūtajiem rezultātiem un izdarītajiem secinājumiem bija būtiska nozīme praktisko

### Pētījuma rezultāti Research results

Izstrādājot praktiskos uzdevumus, docētājs balstās gan uz savām teorētiskajām zināšanām, gan iegūto praksi. Taču, lai izvērtētu vai izstrādātie praktiskie uzdevumi ir pietiekami kvalitatīvi un ar tiem tiek sasniegts izvirzītais mērķis attiecīgās tēmas apgūvē, ir lietderīgi uzklaut praktisko uzdevumu izpildītāju viedokli. Šajā sadaļā ir apkopoti studentu anketēšanas rezultāti par autores izstrādātajiem praktiskajiem uzdevumiem.

Zemāk esošajā 1. tabulā apkopoti anketēšanas rezultāti par praktisko uzdevumu - *Krustvārdu mīklas sastādīšana/risināšana*.

1.tab. **Krustvārdu mīklas sastādīšana/risināšana**  
*Table 1 Compilation/doing of crossword puzzles*

UZDOTAIS JAUTĀJUMS	ATBILŽU VARIANTI			
	[kvadrātiekvās norādīts respondentu skaits]			
1. Vai Jums ir svarīgi un vai tas rada papildus motivāciju praktiskā darba izpildei, ja ir formulēti ne tikai izpildes nosacījumi, bet arī precīzi formulēti praktiskā darba mērķis, uzdevumi un ieguvumi?	pietiek, ja ir formulēti uzdevuma izpildes nosacījumi, jo man galvenais tikai izpildīt [6]	ir svarīgi un tas rada arī papildus motivāciju, jo skaidrs, kāpēc to daru un ko tas dod [26]	ir svarīgi, bet tas nerada papildus motivāciju [12]	
2. Vai pēc praktiskā darba izpildes Jūs atcerējāties atbildes uz pašu uzdotajiem jautājumiem?	Vairāk jā, nekā nē [26]	Vairāk nē, nekā jā [10]	Jā [7]	Nē [1]
3. Vai formulējot jautājumus un atbildes uz tiem Jums veidojās dziļāka izpratne par attiecīgo tematu salīdzinājumā ar izpratni, kas veidojās pēc lekcijas noklausīšanās par to pašu tematu?	Vairāk jā, nekā nē [24]	Vairāk nē, nekā jā [4]	Jā [15]	Nē [1]
4. Vai ir lietderīgi praktiskajās nodarbībās studējošiem apmainīties ar izstrādātajām krustvārdu mīklām, pildīt tās, apskatīt pareizas atbildes, diskutēt?			Jā [43]	Nē [1]
5. Vai pēc citu studentu sagatavoto krustvārdu mīklu izpildes Jūs pārliecinājāties un varat apgalvot, ka pareizi un saprotami formulētam jautājumam ir būtiska nozīme?			Jā [43]	Nē [1]

6. Vai izpildot praktisko darbu Jūs guvāt pie uzdevuma izpildes nosacījumiem raksturotos ieguvumus?			<b>Jā [43]</b>	<b>Nē [1]</b>
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Par praktisko uzdevumu *Krustvārdu mīklas sastādīšana/risināšana* kopā aptaujāti 44 respondenti. Izvērtējot iegūtos datus par 1.jautājumu secināms, ka vairākums studentu uzskata, ka svarīgi precīzi formulēt praktiskā uzdevuma mērķi, uzdevumus un ieguvumus. Pie kam, vairāk kā pusei no aptaujāto studentu tas rada papildus motivāciju. Savukārt pārrunās noskaidrots, ka motivācijas esamība veicina arī vēlmi darbu veikt kvalitatīvāk. Mūsdienās docētāja praktiskajā darbībā akcents tiek likts uz studiju procesa virzīšanu, ko var panākt ar studējošo motivēšanu un tas ir svarīgi, lai studenti spētu sasniegt arī labus rezultātus savā nākotnes profesionālajā darbībā (Дулинец & Захарова, 2017).

Izvērtējot atbildes uz 2., 3., 5., un 6. jautājumiem secināms, ka studenti ir guvuši papildus zināšanas, izpratni par skatītajiem jautājumiem, pārlicību par jautājumu precīzas formulēšanas nozīmi, ir attīstījuši kompetenci atrast nepieciešamo informāciju, atlasīt būtiskāko un analizēt to, kā arī formulēt loģiskus jautājumus. Taču nelielam skaitam studentu nav izdevies īstenot šajā darbā izvirzīto mērķi. Tāpēc docētājam tas jāņem vērā un nākamo studiju kursu ietvaros jācenšas mudināt studentus uzdot jautājumus, lai noskaidrotu neizprasto. Tikai vienā anketā students pamatā sniedza negatīvas atbildes, kas ļauj secināt, iespējams studentam nebija ne interese, ne motivācija izstrādāt praktisko darbu, jo arī atbildes uz pārējiem anketas jautājumiem bija negatīvas.

Ne tikai anketēšanas rezultāti (4. jautājums), bet arī pārrunas un novērošana nodarbībā liecina, ka studenti ar lielu interesi apmainās ar krustvārdu mīklām, pilda tās nodarbībā un iesaistās savstarpējā diskusijā. Autores novērojumi pēc izpildīto uzdevumu pārbaudes liecina arī par to, ka šāda uzdevuma vairākkārtēja izpilde par dažādiem tematiem viena studiju kursa ietvaros paaugstina studentu formulēto jautājumu kvalitāti.

Anketēšanas rezultāti par praktisko uzdevumu *Tiesas sprieduma analīze* apkopoti 2.tabulā.

2.tab. Tiesas sprieduma analīze  
Table 2 Analysis of a court judgment

UZDOTAIS JAUTĀJUMS	ATBILŽU VARIANTI [kvadrātiņkāvēs norādīts respondentu skaits]			
1. Vai pēc tiesas sprieduma patstāvīgas analīzes Jūs izpratāt strīda būtību?		<b>Daļēji [12]</b>	<b>Jā [29]</b>	<b>Nē [5]</b>
2. Cik reizes Jūs izlasījāt tiesas spriedumu?	<b>1 reizi [6]</b>	<b>2 reizes [26]</b>	<b>3 reizes [12]</b>	<b>4 reizes un vairāk [2]</b>



3. Vai analizējot tiesas spriedumu Jums izdevās izprast kā tiesību normas tiek piemērotas praksē?	Vairāk jā, nekā nē [10]	Vairāk nē, nekā jā [4]	Jā [22]	Nē [6]
4. Vai analizējot tiesas spriedumu Jūs atklājāt jaunus terminus un izpratāt to būtību tiesas interpretācijā?			Jā [41]	Nē [5]
5. Vai pēc tiesas sprieduma pārspriešanas grupā Jūs izpratāt strīda būtību?		Daļēji [0]	Jā [44]	Nē [2]
6. Vai bija lietderīgi semināra nodarbībā pārspriest analizēto tiesas spriedumu kopā ar grupas biedriem?	Jā, jo noskaidroja neizprasto [46]	Nē, tas ir lieks laika patēriņš [0]		
7. Vai izpildot praktisko darbu Jūs guvāt pie uzdevuma izpildes nosacījumiem raksturotos ieguvumus?		Daļēji [7]	Jā [36]	Nē [5]

Pētījuma 2. tabulā atspoguļoti 46 respondentu anketēšanas rezultāti. Kā iepriekš tika norādīts - tiesas spriedumu ir jāprot lasīt, lai izprastu tā būtību. Izvērtējot atbildes uz 1. jautājumu secināms, ka lielākā daļa spēja izprast strīda būtību. Taču 17 studentiem tas nav izdevies un autore pieņem, ka šie studenti nav pietiekami rūpīgi lasījuši spriedumu. Pierādījums autores pieņēmumam rodams anketas 2. jautājumā, kas liecina par to, ka tie studenti, kas uz 1. jautājumu ir atbildējuši ar "Nē", anketas 2. jautājumā norādīja, ka spriedumu lasījuši 1 reizi. Tie studenti, kas uz pirmo jautājumu atbildējuši "Daļēji", anketas 2. jautājumā norādījuši, ka spriedumu lasījuši 2 reizes. Jānorāda, ka tiesas spriedumu saturs ir uzrakstīts koncentrētā un juridiski sarežģītā valodā, līdz ar to šādu tekstu ne tikai sarežģīti atcerēties, bet arī lasīt. Pat pieredzējuši juristi mēdz lasīt tiesas spriedumu vairākkārt. Tiesas sprieduma analīzei nav nozīmes un uzdevuma mērķi nav iespējams sasniegt, ja students nav spējis izprast strīda būtību, tāpēc patstāvīgi analizētais tiesas spriedums jāpārspriež arī ar grupas biedriem. Tā ir neatņemama uzdevuma sastāvdaļa, par ko var pārliecināties arī no aptaujas rezultātiem (atbildot uz 5. jautājumu visi studenti norāda, ka pēc tiesas sprieduma pārspriešanas grupā izprata strīda būtību un tas bija lietderīgi, jo noskaidroja neizprasto - skat. atbildes uz 6. jautājumu). Praktiski visi studenti, izņemot piecus (kas nebija izpratuši strīda būtību un tikai 1 reizi izlasījuši tiesas spriedumu) ir atklājuši jaunus terminus un izpratuši tos. Tas ir vērtīgs ieguvums, jo pareiza terminu izpratne arī palīdz izprast sprieduma būtību. Uz 3. un 7. jautājumu sniegtās atbildes nav viennozīmīgas un liek secināt, ka praktiskajā uzdevumā minētie studentu ieguvumi ir sasniegti tikai daļēji. Tāpēc docētājam būtu jāmeģina ilustrēt sprieduma analīzes tehniku auditorijā, lai studenti var salīdzināt pašu paveikto ar docētāja analīzes niansēm.

Anketēšanas rezultāti par praktisko uzdevumu *Noslēdzošais praktiskais darbs – atbildes uz jautājumiem* apkopoti 3. tabulā.

3.tab. Noslēdzošais praktiskais darbs – atbildes uz jautājumiem  
Table 3 *The final practical exercise, which is responding to questions*

UZDOTAIS JAUTĀJUMS	ATBILŽU VARIANTI [kvadrātiekvāš norādīts respondentu skaits]			
	1. Vai pildot praktisko uzdevumu Jums veidojās izpratne par rakstīto?	Vairāk jā, nekā nē [18]	Vairāk nē, nekā jā [11]	Jā [95]
2. Kas Jums sagādāja grūtības praktiskā uzdevuma izpildē?		Laika trūkums [94]	Izpratnes un zināšanu trūkums [26]	Nespēju atrast vajadzīgo informāciju [7]
3. Vai šāda veida darbus ir lietderīgi uzdot studentiem?			Jā [121]	Nē [6]
4. Vai izpildot praktisko darbu Jūs guvāt pie uzdevuma izpildes nosacījumiem minētos ieguvumus?			Jā [121]	Nē [6]

Pētījuma 3. tabulā atspoguļoti 127 respondentu anketēšanas rezultāti. Iegūtie dati liecina, ka studenti (absolūtais vairākums – skatīt uz 1., 3., 4. jautājumu atbildes) gan atbalsta šāda veida uzdevumus, gan ir guvuši uzdevuma izpildes nosacījumos minētos ieguvumus (padziļināt studentu zināšanas un izpratni par studiju kursā apskatītajiem jautājumiem, rosināt patstāvīgi domāt, salīdzināt un meklēt konkrētu informāciju, pamatot savu viedokli, atkārtot studiju kursa laikā skatītos jautājumus). Tikai 6 studentiem ir pretēji uzskati. Vērtējot sniegtās atbildes uz 2. jautājumu kopsakarā ar autores novērojumiem un veiktajām pārrunām, secināms, ka liela daļa studentu neprot un nespēj organizēt un plānot savu laiku, lai nodrošinātu apjomīga praktiskā uzdevuma izpildi noteiktā termiņā (neskatoties uz to, ka praktiskais uzdevums ir pieejams izpildei jau pirmajā nodarbībā un jānodod tikai eksāmena dienā). Ir pamats secinājumam, ka steiga var būt iemesls ir tam, ka students nespēj izprast rakstīto.

Diemžēl no anketēšanas rezultātiem nav iespējams noteikt cik lielā mērā studenti ir motivēti un ieinteresēti praktisko uzdevumu izpildē. Bet, vērtējot visu augstāk minēto praktisko uzdevumu izpildes kvalitāti, novērojot studentu praktisko darbību nodarbībās, kā arī veicot pārrunas, autore secināja, ka studiju programmas Tiesību zinības studējošie bija vairāk motivēti un ieinteresēti uzdevumu izpildē nekā Inovatīvās ekonomikas un uzņēmējdarbības, Grāmatvedības un audita; Interjera dizaina un Kultūras vadības studiju

programmu studenti. Svence (2003) norāda, "Motivācijas pamatā ir iekšējie darbības mudinājuma faktori: motīvi, vajadzības, mērķis, nodomi, vēlmes, intereses un citi ārējie darbības pamudinājuma faktori jeb stimuli, ko nosaka situācija". Motivēta mācīšanās sekmē gatavību dzīvesdarbībai, jo veicina patstāvību un radošu spēju attīstību (Maslo, 2003).

Autore uzskata, ka Tiesību zinības studējošo motivācija un ieinteresētība ir izteiktāka, jo Tiesību zinības studējošie tematu par Servitūtu tiesisko regulējumu apgūst padziļināti un saista ar savu turpmāko profesionālo darbību, bet pārējo studiju programmu studenti tikai pieļauj domu, ka kādreiz ar jautājumiem varētu saskarties un tāpēc neuzskata, ka viņiem šī temata apguve ir primāra.

### **Secinājumi Conclusions**

Pamatojoties uz zinātnieku atziņām, anketēšanas, novērošanas rezultātiem un personīgo 15 gadu pedagoģisko pieredzi, autore nonāk pie sekojošiem secinājumiem:

1. Dažādu mācību metožu izmantošana un atbilstošu veidu izvēle, to savstarpēja mijiedarbība viena temata apguves ietvaros vairo studējošo zināšanas, veicina padziļinātu izpratni, attīsta prasmes un spējas.
2. Studenti, kas studē Tiesību zinātnes un apzinās, ka jautājumi par servitūtiem būs viņu ikdienas darba sastāvdaļa, strādājot kādā no juridiskām profesijām, ir vairāk ieinteresēti un motivēti praktisko uzdevumu izpildē nekā tie studenti, kuri studē citās studiju programmās un tikai pieļauj, ka nākotnē varētu saskarties ar šiem jautājumiem.
3. Aptaujās sniegto atbilžu maksimālu ticamību iespējams nodrošināt, ja anketas izdala pēc attiecīgā studiju kursa beigām un eksāmena vērtējumu paziņošanas, lai students nepieļautu iespēju, ka anketēšanas rezultāti varētu ietekmēt eksāmena vērtējumu.
4. Izstrādājot praktiskos uzdevumus ir precīzi jāformulē (gan mutiski, gan rakstiski) katra praktiskā uzdevuma izpildes nosacījumi, mērķis, uzdevumi un ieguvumi, jo tas rada papildus motivāciju uzdevuma izpildei.
5. Jebkuram praktiskajam uzdevumam jābūt izstrādātam ar mērķi, lai students iegūtās zināšanas varētu sasaistīt ar ikdienas dzīvi, aktuāliem notikumiem sabiedrībā un piemērot praksē.
6. No novērojumiem un pārrunās gūtās informācijas secināms, ka liela daļa studentu neprot un nespēj organizēt un plānot savu laiku, lai nodrošinātu apjomīga praktiskā uzdevuma izpildi noteiktā termiņā.

Līdz ar to daļa studentu praktisko uzdevumu laika trūkuma dēļ nespēj izpildīt ar pietiekamu rūpību. Un tas, savukārt, nevairo studentu zināšanas un neattīsta prasmes.

7. No aptaujas rezultātiem secināms, ka lielākā daļa studentu apstiprina, ka pēc praktisko uzdevumu izpildes veidojas dziļāka izpratne par rakstīto; vairāk atceras nekā neatceras pašu sniegtās atbildes uz jautājumiem; praktiskā darba izpildes gaitā gūtās zināšanas un praktiskās iemaņas noderēs nākotnē; šāda veida praktiskos darbus ir lietderīgi uzdot studentiem; pēc praktiskā uzdevuma veikšanas pārlicinājās, ka pareizi un saprotami formulētam jautājumam ir būtiska nozīme; tiesas sprieduma analīze palīdz izprast, kur un kā ir iespējams izmantot tiesas spriedumus (judikatūru) praksē savu interešu aizsardzībai; praktiskie uzdevumi attīstīja noteiktas prasmes, spējas un kompetenci. Tātad, autores izstrādātie praktiskie uzdevumi ir lietderīgi un pamatoti tiek piemēroti mācību procesa ietvaros.

### **Summary**

In both Latvia and other countries, the matter regarding teaching methods has been studied extensively; as a result, most of authors have concluded that teaching methods are aimed at attaining the goals of learning.

This research analyses the following three practical teaching methods applied in the study process: compilation/doing of crossword puzzles; analysis of a court judgment and the final practical exercise, which is responding to questions. In order to evaluate the effectiveness, deficiencies and usefulness of the teaching methods applied for study purposes, the author has prepared questionnaires concerning the aforementioned practical exercises and disseminated them among students after the examination results have been announced.

The research has demonstrated that, in the opinion of most of the students, practical exercises ensure a deeper understanding of the subject; the students remember their answers to questions better; knowledge and practical skills acquired during exercises will be useful in the future; these practical exercises should be given to students; the practical exercises have shown that a clearly and accurately defined question is essential; the analysis of a court judgment has shown where and how court judgments (case-law) may be applied in practice to safeguard interests; owing to the practical exercises, the students have developed their skills, abilities and competences.

As it has been ascertained as a result of the evaluation of the teaching methods applied in the study process, the observation of students and the analysis of questionnaires completed by them, the teaching methods in question are effective and useful.

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## SOCIETAL PERCEPTIONS ABOUT BEING A GOOD TEACHER IN LATVIA

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**Abstract.** *Teacher is one of the most responsible professions in the world because the teacher builds a sustainable society. There is an ongoing discussion about a professional competency of the teacher and changes in the requirements for teachers in the acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes required from teachers. There are numerous researches being carried out about the professional competency of teaching competency. The professional teaching standard that was ratified in 2004 is outdated but the new teaching standard is not designed yet because policy makers cannot come to an agreement about what a good teacher needs to know. For the changes to take place, the main aim of the study is to explore and to analyze societal opinion about the notion of a good teacher and competencies required for a good teacher. The research was carried out from May, 2016 until September with a participation of 160 respondents from different age groups. To ensure the validity of the study the authors used a questionnaire. Acquired data indicate that there exists a significant difference between the opinion expressed by the school age children and the opinion of adults. By describing the ideal of a good teacher pupils pay more attention to personal features of a teacher but adults pay closer attention to the skills and knowledge needed for a teacher.*

**Keywords:** *competency-based teaching, contemporary teacher, sustainability.*

### Introduction

The current global socio-economic and technological conditions put education in the centre of European sustainable competitiveness and development strategy; however, schools experience unprecedented challenges: they need to be able to provide measurable results under the condition of decreased budget, as well as they have to be modern and progressively-minded,

they have to offer attractive education programs and train young people for jobs that do not exist yet (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015). Therefore, teachers need to learn to live in ever changing environment and change themselves. The changes that are taking place towards sustainability are among the driving factor in the University's educational programs (Anspoka, 2014; Pipere, Veisson, & Salīte, 2015; Jurgena, Cedere, & Keviša, 2015; Badjanova, J., Iliško, D., & Drelinga, 2014). First players who are coming across those challenges are the teachers and this depends mainly on them how teacher education serves the needs of young people by teaching them how to solve successfully problems in the complex situations. As this has been acknowledged, the quality of the educational system is closely related to teacher qualification (Barber & Morshed, 2007). This is expected from the teachers that they offer an opportunity for the younger generation to acquire not only skills but to help youth to learn and to understand diverse aspects of culture, to develop values, skills, attitudes, and survival competencies (Blūma, 2012). What are the skills the teacher needs to acquire to help a young person to become successful at work, family, society and a career? These are the questions of the 21st century that can be found in numerous researches, scientific articles and discussions (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015; OECD, 2005; LIZDA, 2016; MacBeath, 2012; UNESCO, 2016; Vidović & Domović, 2013; Zariņa, Drelinga, Iliško, & Krastiņa, 2016, etc.). The requirements set for the teachers are quite high, but the prestige of the teacher's vocation is quite low. This tendency can be observed in many countries, but especially in Latvia.

On one hand, in 2016 in Latvia there was a wide discussion about the necessity for stricter demands for teachers' selection in the educational programs. At the same time only one percent of the parents participating in the survey expressed the desire for their children to become a teacher (European Commission /EACEA /Eurydice, 2015). If compared to 20 years ago, now there are four times less people becoming teachers that are younger than 32 years (LU, 2015). On the other hand, significant reforms are taking place in Latvia towards competency based approach initiated in 2016 (VISC, 2016), aimed at practical implementation of the competency-based approach in education. At the same time the new teaching standard is not ratified yet, which would describe teachers' tasks, duties and competencies. Therefore, teacher trainers teach skills and competencies that are prescribed in the professional standard of 2004. Society places high expectations on teachers and there are discussions about what a teacher should be like. Pupils and their parents have also developed the image of a good teacher. Latvian populations' opinion could be of high value not only in designing professional standard but also would be valuable for teacher trainers. Therefore, the aim of the article is to explore the opinion of

Latvian citizens about what qualities and competencies the teacher has to possess.

The analyses of the notion and the content of the “teachers’ professional competency” in the research leads the authors to acknowledge that teachers’ professional competency is a flexible notion as compared with the knowledge, skills and attitudes that offer pupils to acquire necessary competencies for a changing world. Therefore, this is clear that the answer to the question:” What is the image of a good teacher?” is that there are no universal answers and the policy makers need to undertake the whole responsibility by designing the professional standard. In this article the authors describe the study that was carried out in year 2016 that explores the opinion of multiple stakeholders involved about the image of a good teacher.

### **Theoretical background**

Research finding on the image of a good teacher by multiple stakeholders are mainly based on a constructivist view of a teacher (Duffy & Jonassen, 1992) who arranges a learning process in a way that allows pupils to construct their own understanding in a free atmosphere, where learners have an opportunity to interact with peers and teachers, where learners’ ideas are central in learning and teachers pose problems of emerging relevance and build learning around children’s ideas. Knowledge construction in the classroom becomes a fluid and evolving process concentrating on pupils’ interests. Constructivist thinkers envision children as knowledge producers, creators of values and meanings; they engage in a group discussions and build a shared understanding. The teacher is more of a facilitator than an instructor guiding children in the learning process, and they believe in children’s capacity to construct meaning (Edwards, 2011; Walsh, 2002). Researchers who tried to explore the image of the teacher and to understand the choice of pedagogical approach have studied teachers’ beliefs, thought, values that have an impact of the professional development (Tatar, 2014)

Similar research in teachers’ image has been carried out by Kalke and Baranova (2015) at the University setting and paid particular attention to personal properties and traits of character.

### **Teachers’ professional competency: theoretical aspects and description of the situation**

As noted by Conway, Murphy, Rath and Hall (2009) the understanding about the teacher’s professional competency is changeable and it depends on various factors, for example, on society’s understanding about educational aims



and teaching, on the prestige of the profession teacher, on material resources, social context, on the culture, the existing traditions, etc. At the time when there is a reorientation to competency-based approach taking place in the education system, which is aimed at teaching skills to an internationally competitive, knowledge based society, the question about what a good teacher should be like has become especially important, and this is being studied in numerous researches, scientific articles and discussions (Caena, 2011; Hattie, 2003, EK, 2011; EK, 2013; IZM, 2011; UNESCO, 2016; Vidović & Domović, 2013 et.al.).

At the level of the European Union it is admitted, that member states need to have a united view on the teacher training process and further education. Thus in the suggestions designed in Europe a special attention paid to the content of teacher's professional competency (EK, 2011; EK, 2013; European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015). It is being related to a wide range of knowledge, skills and attitudes, for example, knowledge in pedagogy, psychology, information technology and the area of the subject, evaluation, inclusive education, design of education programs, leading group work, metacognitive and classroom arrangement skills, planning skills, organisational skills, ability to adjust and evaluate teaching process, ability to cooperate, apply various materials and technologies, to carry out research, be willing to participate, continue education and reflect on it, etc. (EK, 2013). In terms of teachers' training policy issues, the contents of teachers' professional competency is actualised also at the level of UNESO. Thus, for example, in in the discussion organised in Bangkok in 2016 "*Valuing Teachers, Improving their Status*" (UNESCO, 2016) the content of teacher training and further education was discussed. The following conclusions were drawn: (1) the four spheres of teacher's professional competency shall be included in teacher training programmes: the cognitive sphere (knowledge in the sphere of the subject, pedagogy and information technology); physical sphere (classroom arrangement and communicative skills); spiritual sphere (ethical and moral values); emotional area (compassion and understanding about the different needs of pupils); (2) in the professional development of teachers an important role is played in personal interest and joint responsibility, as well as mutual cooperation, which takes place not only among colleagues, but also at community and international level.

By defining the notion "teachers' professional competency" and by analysing its content, it is noted in research of different levels, that teacher's professional competency is a holistic totality of knowledge that can be developed in a flexible cooperative environment, as well as a totality of skills, attitudes and values, that corresponds to the specific national context and ensures that pupils have the opportunity to acquire the necessary competency for life in a changing world. Thus, it is clear, that there is not one universal answer

to the question “What a good teacher should be like?” and that responsible for the contents of teachers’ professional competency are the policy makers of every country. They have to design the Profession standard and have to include in it specific information on what knowledge, skills and attitudes the teacher shall have.

Unfortunately, in Latvia the work started in 2010 is still in process and the new Standard for the profession of teacher is not ready yet. Thus, teachers, teacher trainers and teachers of further education still use the document approved in 2004, where the necessary knowledge and skills for pedagogical work are defined. It does not correspond to the tendency in the education policy of the European Union, where about the teachers’ professional qualification this is discussed at the level of competency. In the present situation, pedagogical programme directors and implementers at Latvian higher education institutions, as well as teachers of further education are forced to follow the suggestions by the European Union, where the teachers’ professional competency is discussed in general. Whereas, the opinion about a good teacher based on the nation context can be found in researches, where the existing opinions in Latvian nation are being studied, for example, in the research “Study of needs of further education of pedagogues, 2011” (IZM, 2011) the surveyed pupils, teachers and parents admitted that they want the teacher to be tolerant, objective, with good professional knowledge in his/her subject and psychology, he/she has to be a charismatic leader, creative and modern – open to everything new. The teacher also needs to have a good command of foreign languages and has to be able apply multiform methods. He/she has to know how to use information technology; he/she has to be exhaustively educated, positive, exciting/inspiring, honest, with good communication and cooperation skills, ready to continuously improve his/her knowledge.

Further in the article there is described the research carried out in 2016, where Latvian citizens of different age were surveyed and the opinion about a good teacher based in their personal experience was found out.

### **Research methodology**

Date obtained in a research that was carried out during March – September, 2016 is analysed in the present article. The aim of the research is to evaluate the opinion of multiple stakeholders about the image of a good teacher. The authors used a questionnaire as a quantitative research methodology. Among the research participants were 160 randomly selected respondents. Among them were N=40 preschool children (average age 5 years), n=40 pupils (average age 14 years), n=40 young people (average age 22 years), n=40 adults (average age 45 years). The questionnaire contains the following question: “Please, describe

the image of a good teacher.” The answers were recorded and later transcribed. For the purpose of the study the authors used the content analysis.

### **Data obtained in the research and interpretation**

As a result of the content analyses the authors have identified four themes: (1) The opinion of preschool pupils (5-7 years old) about the image of a good teacher; (2) the opinion of pupils (8-18 years old) about a good teacher; (3) The opinion of youth (19-25 years old) about a good teacher; (4) The opinion of adults (26 years old and up) about a good teacher.

### **The analyses of the opinion of multiple stakeholders**

#### **The opinion of the 5-7 years old children about a good teacher**

In the upbringing of pre-school children one the significant factors is considered to be the emotional aspect (Līduma, 2014; Lieģeniece, 1996; Lieģeniece, 1999). Pre-school children expressed their opinion in relation to teacher’s human characteristics, such as necessity for love “*she is like a mother, she hugs*”, necessity for sensitivity and understanding “*she ...she rebukes..., then she is sad.*” There is a need for loving relationships as expressed in children’s responses. Particular attention is paid to teacher’s appearance. She needs to be “*beautiful and strong.*” The participants emphasized teacher’s skills to make the whole educational process engaging and interesting “*...the main thing is, that it is interesting*”. *Teacher needs to have various skills* “*...the teachers has to know how to do different things*”. Among the significant skill, pupils consider teacher’s competency to communicate with pupils. she “*...plays with us*”, “*...reads fairy tales*”, “*...gives us sweets if we perform well*”, and “*...gives home work*”.

#### **The opinion of the 8-18 years old children about a good teacher**

In the educational system children have an urgent need for a physical and psychological security, the basics of which are trustful relationships with adults and peers, positive self esteem, help provided for the personality development (Svence, 1991; Puškarevs, 2001). Most of the features describe the teacher as a personality. Teacher can “*...make comments*”, can build trustful relationships, and build relationships on a mutual respect. Pupils desire to learn in a friendly atmosphere, “*...to ask questions in a secure environment,*” “*...have fun together*”. They want their teacher to be creative, to motivate pupils “*...to praise, if there is a good reason for it.*” At the same time contemporary children who grew in the era of technologies, know how to proceed information, if needed, process huge amount of information, communicates with peers not only in a native language but also un foreign languages, know about new technologies (Anspoka, 2014). Children have also acknowledged such features

of a good teacher that can be related to teachers' professional competency: knowledge about a wide range of topics, *"ability to discuss not only about the mathematics, physics but to also to be able to discuss a wide range of issues: "events that are taking place in the world," "to know languages," "...to know how to use IT," "to be knowledgeable, and to be open to new things, to be able to experiment."*

### **The opinion of youth 19 – 25 years old about a good teacher**

At this age this issue of particular importance becomes a question about further life perspectives and plans. Therefore, the main emphases in the evaluation of a good teacher lies on teacher's ability to organize the educational process and a development of such skills as critical thinking, ability to make decision, to develop a tolerant and responsible attitude towards oneself, society, ability to work in teams and to adjust to ever changing marked requirements (Latvia Strategy of a Sustainable Development until 2030, 2010). Youth expect the teacher to see each child's individual abilities. Good teacher trusts in the abilities of children, inspires them and helps them to reach aims. A significant feature of a teacher is his/her ability to help pupils to learn and to gain new experience. They want the teacher to be skillful in teaching, can praise for a well performed job, and motivates pupils for the learning process in a comprehensive way. Youth evaluate positively teachers' experience *"...experienced in many spheres"*. They respect teachers who have a competency not only in their subject matter, who *"...is a professional,"* who *"has a good command in one's subject matter,"* who is *"good in a psychology,"* and has *"a good classroom management skill, but isn't too strict."* At the same time teacher is *"understanding and kind"* and *"understands pupils"*. Young people describe a good teacher as the one who is inclusive, *"humanistic,"* who has a good command of communication skills with children and their parents. A good teacher can organize the learning process according to the contemporary requirements and knows how to motivate pupils. The teacher *"loves her/his work," "finds an opportunity to differentiate his/her work by finding the key to every heart," "believes in child's abilities"*

### **The opinion of adults (26 years old and up) about a good teacher**

The main features in describing adults' opinion about the image of a good teacher are influenced by the memories from their schooling, and from the images they perceive from media about a prestige of the teacher's vocation and personality. (Research about prestige of teacher's vocation and possibilities to raise it as viewed by various stakeholders, 2007). The parents pay closer attention to teacher's features when their child has completed a preschool and prepare to start their learning process at school (Sobkin, Ivanova, & Skobel'tsina, 2013). Adults view a good teacher as the one who knows how to build trustful relationships. A good teacher in the one who knows how to build

trustful relationships. For the pre-school children this is a person who can initiate a play, is joyful, respects pupils' interests, and cooperates with children's' parents. Adults evaluate positively such characteristics of the teacher as an ability to understand pupils and their parents. There is a strong emphasis of the factors determining motivation of a teacher to work in his/her vocation despite of a low salary. Adults describe a good teacher as the one with "a good sense of humor" "stylish, well dressed," "patient," and "with a good self respect and a respect towards pupils," the one "who controls his/her language." A good teacher is the one who is eager "to pursue one's education," who motivates pupils, and who "develops in his/her learner's willingness to live and to gain new experience" and teaches "how to reach their aims." Particular attention has been paid to teacher's professional competency "to explain everything in a way that one can learn," who has classroom management competency, can "discipline so that all can learn."

### Features of a good teacher as described by multiple stakeholders

The respondents of different ages have different opinion about teachers. The authors of this research trace similar features that were repeated in diverse age groups of respondents (see Chart 1)



Chart 1 Opinion about a good teacher by various stakeholders: similarities and differences

Different stakeholders describe a good teacher by paying close attention to the following features:

**Individual characteristics of a teacher:** Preschool children want to see their teacher being *loving, kind, calm and joyful*; youth and adults want to see their teacher as *positive, patient, supportive and with a good sense of humor*. Particularly important is **teachers' attitude towards his/her job**. For the preschool children this is a person who *plays* with them and *cares* about them. For the school age pupils this is important that the teacher *loves his/her job, is able to motivate and inspire, does more than is in his/her workload*, for example, organises excursions and discos. All multiple stakeholders think that **a good teacher is the one who is knowledgeable** – *clever, educated* and with whom one can discuss various issues. This is a teacher, who *knows many languages, knows how to use technologies, is not afraid to do new things, and is ready to learn*. The respondents involved in this study acknowledged that **teachers' appearance** also matters. Preschool pupils want a *beautiful* teacher, school age pupils want to see a *contemporary* teacher and adults want to see a *stylish and well-dressed* teacher. A good teacher is the one who **knows how to establish cooperation and trustful relationships with others**. Preschool children and school age children want to see a teacher who can *play* with them, *participate in different events, can communicate and have fun* with them. Parents as important consider such features as *respect towards pupils, does not impose his/her opinion, is communicable, and has a good relationship* with parents. Among the other highly evaluated skills parents also mentioned **classroom arrangement skills** – the ability to create a productive environment in the classroom. According to them, a good teacher is *honest, does not rise his/her voice*, however when there is need for that, he/she can *rebuke*. All stakeholders expect a discipline in the classroom. Teacher needs to **develop pupils' skills and talents** and to maintain a good discipline. Both, youth and adults desire their teacher to *trust the talents of children, to motivate them for setting new aims and reaching them*. An important characteristic of a good teacher is the ability **to induce child's willingness to learn and the skill to help him/her to learn and accumulate new experience**. If preschool children want to see a good teacher who can *praise* then, adults have a more detailed requirement that they set for their teacher, for example, teaching in a comprehensive way.

### Conclusions and discussions

While describing the image of a good teacher the participants of the research pay attention to 1) individual features of a good teacher, 2) positive attitude towards work; 3) good knowledge and skills, 4) appearance; 5) ability to build trustful relationships; 6) having good classroom arrangement skills,

7) skills of developing individual talents by developing each students' individual skills, 8) having an ability to motivate each child for studies and acquisition of a new experience. The view of pre-school children, youth, children and adults about a good teacher are similar, it expands with a respect of an experience and age peculiarities. In the responses of the preschool children particular attention is being paid to teachers' personal features, character, motivated attitude towards work, knowledge, and skills. The responses of youth and adults reflect teachers' skills to see and to develop children individual skills, talents and ability to teach and to develop children's' needs to study. Latvian inhabitants who participated in the research describe a good teacher by paying attention to such features of character as being lovely, calm and joyful. Young people and adults want to see their teacher as positive, responsive, with a good sense of humor. For the research participants particularly important is teacher's attitude towards one's work. Pre-school children view an ideal teacher as the one who plays and cares about them. The school age children express their need to view the teacher who loves one's work, who is motivated and who does more than it is required, as well as organizes out-door activities for children. Both, pupils and young people consider good teacher to be clever, educated and holistically thinking - the one with whom one can discuss various issues, who knows languages, knows IT and who is not afraid to do something new and to learn something new. Latvian inhabitants pay close attention to teacher's appearance. Pupils want to see their teacher as a contemporary person with a good style. Participants involved in this study highly evaluate teachers' classroom management skills-ability to build positive learning environment, honesty. All participants, preschool children, youth and adults expect a discipline and at the same time they do not want to be humiliated. The research data reveal that knowledge about the subject matter is not the main competency required for the teacher by the society. This conclusion relates the research done by the Eurydice carried out in 2015: „Teacher's vocation in Europe: practice, perception of a vocation and politics.” (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015) The authors of the document state that teachers are well prepared to teach their subject matter. At the same time teachers need more support for introducing innovations and changing their pedagogical practice, as well as for a management of pupils' behavior and a career, in designing individual educational programs with gifted children and children with special needs by designing multicultural environment. The research contains societal opinion about the development of a societal opinion teacher education and professional developmental programs, by including not only issues related to teachers 'professional development but also paying attention to teachers' professional characteristics and attitudes.

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## MENTORDARBĪBA KĀ SKOLOTĀJU PROFESIONĀLĀS PILNVEIDES LĪDZEKLIS

### *Mentoring as a Tool for Professional Development of Teachers*

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**Abstract.** The terms 'mentor' and 'mentoring' are frequently used in the field of business, however, nowadays they are topical in general education as well. In Latvia, the teacher mentor profession has been included in the Classification of Occupations since 2012, which means that teachers, who have acquired the rights to carry out mentoring at educational institutions, can be paid for teacher mentor work hours. However, mentoring is most often a life's calling for teachers rather than a position with financial cover. A wish to identify the pedagogical potential of mentoring in the field of teachers' professional development determined the topic of the research. The research reflected in the paper includes the analysis of scientific literature, analytic judgements based on previously conducted research, as well as the results of the interview of teacher mentors and author's personal pedagogical experience.

**Keywords:** benefits, education institution, mentor, mentoring, teacher, professional development.

### **Ievads**

#### ***Introduction***

Jēdzieni mentors un mentordarbība bieži tiek lietoti uzņēmējdarbības jomā, tomēr mūsdienās tie ir aktuāli arī vispārējā izglītībā. Latvijā kopš 2012. gada Profesiju klasifikatorā ir iekļauts skolotāja mentora amats, kas nozīmē to, ka skolotājiem, kuriem ir iegūtas tiesības veikt mentordarbību izglītības iestādē, var tikt tarificētas skolotāja mentora darba stundas.

Latvijas Republikas Ministru Kabineta noteikumi Nr. 662 "Noteikumi par pedagogiem nepieciešamo izglītību un profesionālo kvalifikāciju un pedagogu profesionālās kvalifikācijas pilnveides kārtību" nosaka, ka pedagogs var ieņemt skolotāja mentora amatu, ja viņam papildus skolotāja kvalifikācijai ir apgūts mentordarbības kurss vai skolotāja mentora B programma vismaz 72 stundu apjomā (Ministru Kabinets, 2014). Visbiežāk tomēr mentordarbība skolotājiem ir dzīves aicinājums, nevis amats ar finansiālu segumu.

Mūsdienās jauniejiem skolotājiem bez mentora profesionāla atbalsta ir grūti iekļauties skolas darbā. Mentors ir cilvēks, kurš viņiem sniedz palīdzību un dažādu praktisku informāciju, lai iekļaušanās izglītības iestādes vidē noritētu ātri un sekmīgi (Ngang, Kanokorn, & Prachak, 2014). Tomēr ne tikai jauniejiem skolotājiem vai studentiem praktizantiem ir nepieciešams mentora atbalsts, tas ir nepieciešams arī pieredzējušajiem skolotājiem, kas izpaužas kā viņu kolēģu prasme un palīdzība tajās darbības jomās, kuras ir svešas vai ne tik labi pārzināmas mūsdienu pārmaiņu laikā.

Mentordarbības nozīmīgums izriet no pārlicības, ka indivīdi var vislabāk mācīties sadarbojoties ar kolēģiem, vērojot viņu darbu, komentējot, uzdodot jautājumus un saņemot atbildes, darbojoties praktiski nevis vienkārši klausoties (Reis, 2002).

Pētījuma mērķis: apzināt mentordarbības pedagoģisko potenciālu skolotāju profesionālās pilnveides jomā.

Rakstā atspoguļotajā pētījumā veikta zinātniskās literatūras analīze, analītiskie spriedumi balstīti uz iepriekš veikto pētījumu bāzes, kā arī izmantojot skolotāju mentoru interviju rezultātus un autora personisko pedagoģisko pieredzi.

### **Mentordarbības jēdziena izpratne** *Comprehension of the concept of mentoring*

Mentordarbības jēdziena izpratne mūsdienās ir daudzveidīga. Mentordarbība tiek skatīta kā mācīšanās vai attīstības process, palīdzība un atbalsts, kā attiecības, metode vai izaugsmes stratēģija (skat. 1. tabulu).

1.tab. **Mentordarbības jēdziena definējums**  
*Table 1 Definition of the concept of mentoring*

Definīcija	Autori
<b>Mentordarbība ir mācīšanās process</b> , kurš tiek veidots savstarpējā palīdzībā balstītās attiecībās, koncentrējoties uz sasniegumiem un emocionālu atbalstu	Wong & Premkumar, 2007
<b>Mentordarbība ir attīstības process</b> , kas notiek indivīdam daloties savā pieredzē, zināšanās un prasmēs ar citu personu, lai tā gūtu labumu personīgai un/vai profesionālai attīstībai	Khan, 2006
<b>Mentordarbība ir palīdzība un atbalsts</b> cilvēkiem, lai viņi pārvaldītu savas zināšanas un palielinātu savu potenciālu, attīstītu prasmes un uzlabotu sniegumu, un kļūtu personībām, par kādām vēlas būt	Parsloe, 1992
<b>Mentordarbība ir iekļaujošas, konfidenciālas attiecības</b> starp diviem cilvēkiem, kas vērstas uz personisku izaugsmi un iestādes panākumiem kā kopīgo mērķi	Brown, 1990

<b>Mentordarbība ir sadarbībā esošu cilvēku darbības īpašs veids</b> , kuru raksturo aktivitātes un pasākumi, kas ir saprotami attiecīgo ideju diskursā	Kemmis, Heikinen, Fransson, Aspfors, & Edwards-Groves, 2014
<b>Mentordarbība ir metode</b> , lai uzlabotu indivīdu mācīšanos un attīstību dažādās dzīves jomās	Klasen & Clutterbuck, 2002
<b>Mentordarbība ir izaugsmes stratēģija</b> , kuru īstenojot viena persona veicina citas attīstību, daloties ar resursiem, zināšanām, prasmēm, perspektīvām, attieksmēm un lietpratību	Hattingh, Coetzee, & Schreuder, 2005

Mentordarbība ir vērsta uz attīstību, tā ir īstenojama daudzveidīgās aktivitātēs, savstarpēji daloties pieredzē, vērojot un iedziļinoties, klausoties un jautājot, reflektējot un diskutējot, bagātinot savu profesionalitāti un veidojot plašāku skatījumu uz aktuālām profesionālām problēmām.

Mentordarbību visbiežāk skata kā plašu un sarežģītu procesu, lai atbalstītu cilvēkus mācībām un profesionālajai izaugsmei. Tas ir process, kurā pieredzējis indivīds palīdz citai personai īstenot viņas mērķus un attīstīt prasmes, lietojot daudzveidīgas mācību un sadarbības stratēģijas (Center for Health Leadership & Practice, 2003). Mentordarbībā būtiskas ir partneru pozitīvas savstarpējās attiecības, kuras pakāpeniski veidojas par profesionālu draudzību (Gardiner, 2010).

Mentordarbībā var izdalīt vairākus veidus, ņemot vērā to, kādā jomā vai kādas institūcijas ietvaros tā tiek skatīta (skat. 1. tabulu).

2.tab. **Mentordarbības veidi un to raksturojums** (pēc Juusela, 2005)

*Table 2 Mentoring types and these characteristics*

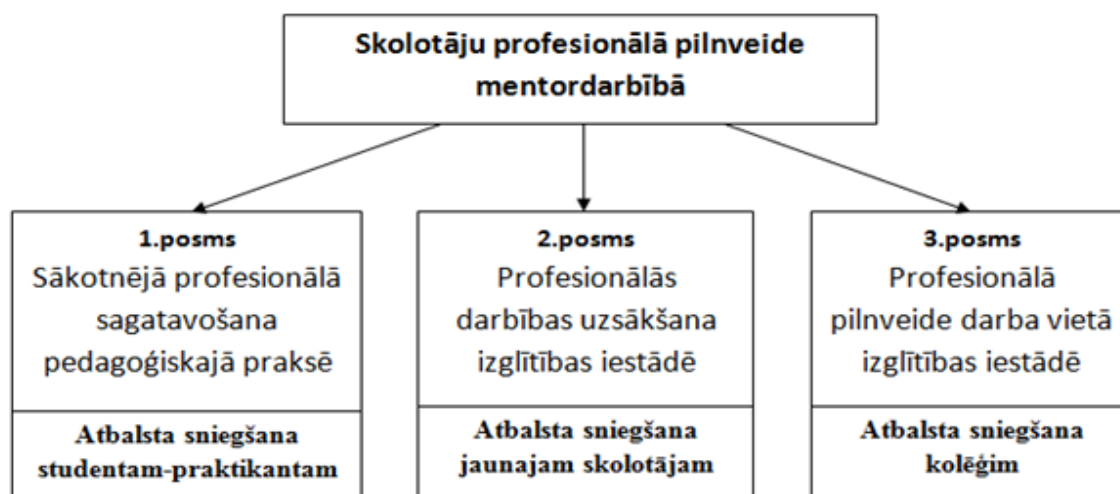
<b>Mentordarbība ...</b>					
<b>izglītības iestādē</b>	<b>uzņēmumā</b>	<b>Sabiedriskajā organizācijā</b>	<b>uzņēmējdarbībā</b>	<b>karjeras atbalstā</b>	<b>bērnu atbalstam</b>
Pieredzējis pedagogs sniedz atbalstu studentam, jaunajam skolotājam vai kolēģim, lai veicinātu profesionālo izaugsmi.	Pieredzējušie darbinieki sniedz palīdzību jaunajiem kolēģiem	Dalībnieki dalās ar savu pieredzi ar organizācijas biedriem un citiem interesentiem	Pieredzējis uzņēmējs dalās ar savām zināšanām un pieredzi ar jauno uzņēmēju	Profesionālis palīdz jaunajam, darbiniekam vai jaunajam uzņēmējam karjeras veidošanā	Pieaugušie sniedz palīdzību bērniem veicot "krusttēva vai krustmātes" pienākumus

Jebkura veida mentordarbībā galvenā ideja saistās ar mentora (pieredzējuša pedagoga, uzņēmēja, profesionāla u.c.) sadarbību ar pieredzes pārņēmēju

(praktikantu, jauno uzņēmēju, darbinieku u.c.) sniedzot atbalstu, daloties zināšanās un pieredzē, palīdzot apzināties sevi, savu rīcību dažādās situācijās.

### **Skolotāju profesionālā pilnveide mentordarbībā** *Teachers' professional development in mentoring*

Mentordarbību izglītības iestādē var uztvert kā līdzekli, ar kuru var novērst skolotāju savstarpējo izolētību un atbalstīt viņu profesionālo pilnveidi, koncentrējoties uz skolotāja ikdienas darbu un mācību situācijām. Skolotāju profesionālā pilnveide mentordarbībā īstenojas 3 posmos: atbalsta sniegšana studentam kā topošajam skolotājam pedagoģiskajā praksē, atbalsta sniegšana jaunajam skolotājam un atbalsta sniegšana kolēģim jaunu prasmju apgūvē (skat. 1. attēlu).



1.att. Skolotāju profesionālā pilnveide mentordarbības kontekstā  
*Figure 1 Teachers' professional development in the context of mentoring*

Studentu praktikantu kā topošo skolotāju pedagoģiskās prakses kvalitatīva norise ir vienmēr bijusi aktualitāte. Studentu gatavības veicināšana patstāvīgai pedagoģiskai darbībai ir skolotāju mentoru viens no darba uzdevumiem. Students praktikants sadarbībā ar skolotāju mentoru integrē iepriekš apgūtās zināšanas praktiskajā pedagoģiskajā darbā, analizējot situācijas, prognozējot iespējamo rīcību, izstrādājot darbības plānojumu, īstenojot pedagoģisko procesu un veicot sava darba pašizvērtēšanu. Šī konkrētā pētījuma kontekstā sīkāk netiks skatīta mentordarbības norise studentu praktikantu profesionālajā sagatavošanā pedagoģiskās prakses ietvaros.

Laika periods, kad ir tikko iesākts skolotāja darbs, ir nozīmīgākais, jo pamatā tas nosaka skolotāja tālāko virzību nākotnē un to, vai jaunais skolotājs paliks arī turpmāk strādāt savā profesijā.

Jaunais skolotājs, uzsākot darbu izglītības iestādē, uzņemas atbildību, viņš sāk īstenot jaunus pienākumus, kas sākotnēji ir neierasti un sarežģīti. Viņš izjūt arī spriedzi, ko rada jaunā situācija, pirmie soļi sadarbības veidošanā ar skolēniem, viņu vecākiem, citiem skolotājiem un skolas vadību.

No sekmīgas jaunā skolotāja un mentora sadarbības ir atkarīga viņa iejušanās izglītības iestādes vidē, viņa pašvērtējums un turpmākā darbība, kā arī skolēnu attīstība un sasniegumi.

Iepriekšējie pētījumi (Dzerviniks & Ustane, 2016) atklāj, ka Latvijā jaunajiem skolotājiem lielākais mentora atbalsts ir nepieciešams klases audzinātāja pienākumu veikšanā un metodiskā darba īstenošanā. Paši jaunie skolotāji atzīst, ka viņiem trūkst pārliecības par savām spējām, bet to var iegūt darba gaitā, pielietojot studiju procesā apgūto, strādājot radošā sadarbībā ar kolēģiem, saņemot iedrošinājumu un atbalstu no mentora.

Lai izvērtētu mentordarbības pedagoģisko potenciālu un apzinātu skolotāju ieguvumus šajā procesā, tika intervēti 22 vispārizglītojošo skolu skolotāji mentori.

Sniedzot atbildes uz jautājumu par pieredzējušu skolotāju nozīmīgākajām vajadzībām mentordarbības procesā, mentori norādīja, ka viņu pieredze liecina par to, ka skolotāju nozīmīgākās aktualitātes ir šādas:

- jaunu zināšanu apguve, prasmju attīstība konkrētās jomās, piemēram, IKT jomā;
- pedagoģisku pieeju apspriešana, piemēram, kompetenču pieeja izglītībā;
- konkrētu situāciju, problēmu izvērtēšana, piemēram, klases audzinātāja darbā;
- alternatīvu risinājumu apzināšana, piemēram, CLIL metodes īstenošana;
- kopēju projektu izstrāde, piemēram, projekti eTwining, ERASMUS+ programmās;
- kopēju pasākumu sagatavošana un īstenošana, piemēram, novada konkursi;
- digitālo izstrādņu veidošana, piemēram, mājas lapa metodiskajai komisijai;
- sadarbības grupu veidošana, piemēram, jaunu kontaktu attīstīšana, kopējas interešu grupas veidošana;
- emocionāla atbalsta gūšana, stimulēšana turpmākajam darbam.

Tradicionāli tiek uzskatīts, ka mentora darbība atbalsta sniegšanā pieredzējušam kolēģim ir vērsta uz jaunu profesionālo kompetenču apguvi. Pētījuma rezultāti to atklāj, tomēr norāda arī uz to, ka skolotājiem mūsdienās ir aktuāli attīstīt prasmes, lai sadarbībā strādātu pie jauniem projektiem, kopējiem pasākumiem, digitālām izstrādņēm, lai veidotu interešu grupas un iespējams

nākotnē sadarbības tīklus. Protams katram skolotājam, gan jaunajam, gan pieredzējušajam, ir nepieciešams arī kolēģa emocionāls atbalsts.

Pedagoģiskajā literatūrā parasti tiek apskatīti pieredzes pārņēmēju ieguvumi no mentordarbības programmas īstenošanas izglītības iestādē (Wills, 2014). Tomēr atsevišķu pētnieku (Huling & Resta, 2001; David, 2000; Holloway, 2001) darbos tiek izvirzīta atziņa, ka mentordarbībā ievērojamus ieguvumus gūst arī paši mentori.

Veiktajā pētījumā tika apzināti skolotāju mentoru viedokļi par viņu ieguvumiem mentordarbības procesā (3. tabula).

3.tab. Skolotāju mentoru ieguvumu apkopojums

Table 3 Summary of teachers- mentors' benefits

Skolotāju mentoru ieguvumu veids	Intervijas rezultāti - skolotāju mentoru viedokļi
Profesionālā kompetence	Jaunu ideju mācību metodikā apzināšana; Klausīšanās, jautājumu uzdošanas prasmes attīstība; Atgriezeniskās saites veidošana
Reflektēšanas prakse	Personīgo uzskatu apzināšana un formulēšana par mācīšanu, mācīšanos, skolēnu attīstību, mācību sasniegumu vērtēšanu, klases audzinātāja darbu
Sadarbība	Sadarbības prasmju pilnveide; Koleģiālās mijiedarbības attīstība; Jaunu kontaktu veidošanās; Uzticēšanās gūšana no partnera; Sava brieduma strādāt ar pieaugušajiem kolēģiem apzināšanās
Psiholoģiskie ieguvumi	Profesionāla atjaunošanās; "Uzlādēšanās" turpmākajam darbam; Pašapziņas attīstība; Pozitīvu sajūtu gūšana; Gandarījuma gūšana palīdzot citiem; Apmierinātības sajūta
Iesaiste pētniecībā	Savas profesionālās darbības kritiska izvērtēšana; Pieredzes pārņēmēja profesionālās darbības izpēte; Iesaiste kopējos projektos
Līderība	Virzība uz līderību; Vadības spēju apzināšanās; Sadarbības komandas veidošana; Mentordarbības metožu un formu apzināšana, darba plānošana, partneru iedvesmošana

Intervijās minētie skolotāju mentoru viedokļi par viņu ieguvumiem mentordarbības procesā tika apkopoti un sagrupēti. Rezultātā ir izdalīti skolotāju mentoru ieguvumu veidi: profesionālā kompetence, reflektēšanas prakse, sadarbība, psiholoģiskie ieguvumi, iesaiste pētniecībā un līderība.

### Diskusija Discussion

Mentordarbībai izglītības iestādēs ir dažādas izpausmes. Viena no tām – mentordarbība kā uzraudzība, vadīšana. Šajā gadījumā mentora darbībā uzsvērtā ir plānošana, koordinēšana un kontrolēšana. Uzraudzības attiecības ir iepriekš



paredzamas. Tajās pavīd zināma hierarhija, īpaši, ja izglītības iestādes vadības pārstāvis ieņem arī mentora lomu. Mentordarbības īstenā būtība saistās ar vienlīdzīgām attiecībām, kas balstās uz pušu vienošanos, sadarbību un lielā mērā īstenojas ikdienas darba situāciju un aktualitāšu izvērtēšanā un rīcības apzināšanā.

Viena no raksturīgākajām mentordarbības izpausmēm ir mentordarbība kā profesionālais atbalsts. Mentors sniedz padomus, ieteikumus pieredzes pārņēmējam profesionālās darbības jautājumos. Šajā gadījumā ir koleģiālas attiecības partneru starpā, tās balstās uz savstarpēju cieņu, tomēr arī šajā gadījumā var saskatīt atsevišķas problēmas. Piemēram, pieredzes pārņēmējs ir pasīvs, nenonāk pie situāciju risinājumiem pats, bet saņem no mentora jau gatavu rīcības programmu, tas rada zināmu atkarību no padomdevēja.

Balstoties uz teorētiskās literatūras analīzi (Olivero, 2014; Kemmis, Heikinen, Fransson, Aspfors, & Edwards-Groves, 2014) un personisko pedagoģisko pieredzi, par vēlamo mentordarbības modeli var izvirzīt mentordarbību kā partneru kopīgu pašpilnveidi. Mentordarbības ideja ir iesaistīto pušu līdzsvarota darbība, kur katra no pusēm ir gan devējs, gan ieguvējs. Starp partneriem ir dialogs, kura mērķis ir abpusēja profesionāla un personiska pilnveide. Gan skolotājs mentors, gan pieredzes pārņēmējs savstarpējās attiecībās ir līdzvērtīgi partneri, bet zināšanu un prasmju jomā, uzkrātās pieredzes ziņā pastāv dažādība, kas arī ir ieguvums šīm attiecībām. Tas nozīmē, ka pastāv iespēja apzināt šo dažādību un veidot aktuālos personiskos jaunveidojumus, apmainīties ar informāciju, reflektēt par aktualitātēm no savas pieredzes viedokļa.

Iepriekš minētās izpausmes var skatīt kā mentordarbības līmeņus: zemākais līmenis – mentordarbība kā uzraudzība, vidējais līmenis – mentordarbība kā atbalsts un augstākais līmenis – mentordarbība kā pašpilnveide.

### **Secinājumi** **Conclusions**

1. Izglītības jomā mentori ir skolotāji ar pedagoģiskā darba pieredzi, kuri ir pabeiguši mentoru profesionālās pilnveides programmu un ieguvuši atbilstošu skolotāja mentora izglītību.
2. Skolotājiem mūsdienās ir aktuāli attīstīt jaunas profesionālās kompetences, lai sadarbībā ar kolēģiem kā mentoriem strādātu pie jauniem projektiem, kopējiem pasākumiem, digitālām izstrādņēm, lai veidotu interešu grupas un saņemtu arī kolēģu emocionālu atbalstu darbam.
3. Skolotāju mentoru ieguvumi iekļaujas tādās jomās kā profesionālā kompetence, reflektēšanas prakse, sadarbība, psiholoģiskie ieguvumi, iesaiste pētniecībā un līderība.

4. Mentora un pieredzes pārņēmēja attiecības vienmēr ir nepārtrauktā kustībā – attīstībā, kas tendēta uz profesionālu pilnveidi. Mentordarbība ir nozīmīgs skolotāju profesionālās izaugsmes līdzeklis, lai veidotu labvēlīgu atmosfēru izglītības iestādes profesionālajā vidē un veicinātu pedagogu savstarpējo sadarbību un dialogu.

### **Summary**

Nowadays, the perception of the term 'mentoring' is varied. Mentoring is regarded as a learning or development process, help and support, as relationships, a method or a development strategy. It is directed towards the development and is implemented through various activities, by exchanging experience, observing and going into details, listening and asking, reflecting and discussing, enriching professionalism and creating a broader perspective on topical professional issues.

Mentoring in educational institutions can be perceived as a tool, which may eliminate the mutual isolation of teachers and support their professional development, focusing on teachers' daily work and teaching situations.

The idea of mentoring is that there is a balanced work of the parties involved, where each of the parties is both giver and acquirer. There is a dialogue between the parties aiming at mutual professional and personal development. Both a teacher mentor and a transferee of experience are equal partners in mutual relationships, but there are differences regarding the knowledge, skills and gained experience, which is also a benefit in these relationships. It means that there is an opportunity to identify these differences and promote relevant personal formations, exchange of information, reflect about topical issues from own personal perspective.

Mentoring in educational institutions has various expressions. One of them – mentoring as a supervision, control. In this case, planning, coordination and control are highlighted in mentoring. The most characteristic expression of mentoring is mentoring as a professional support. A mentor gives advices, recommendations to the transferee of experience in professional activity matters. Based on the analysis of theoretical literature and personal pedagogical experience, mentoring as joint self-development of partners can be proposed as a preferred mentoring model. The idea of mentoring is that it is a balanced work of the parties involved, where each of the parties is both giver and acquirer. There is a dialogue between the parties aiming at mutual professional and personal development.

The main conclusions:

1. In the field of education, mentors are teachers with pedagogical work experience who have completed mentors' professional development programme and acquired a proper teacher mentor education.
2. Nowadays, teachers need to develop new professional competencies to work as mentors on new projects, common events and digital developments in cooperation with colleagues in order to form interest groups and receive colleagues' emotional support for work as well.

3. Teacher mentors' benefits appear in such areas as professional competence, reflecting practice, cooperation, psychological benefits, involvement in research and leadership.
4. The relationships of a mentor and a transferee of experience are always in continuous motion – development that is tended towards professional improvement. Mentoring is a significant tool for professional development of teachers, in order to create positive atmosphere in the professional environment of educational institution and promote pedagogues' cooperation and dialogue.

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## VIENOTAIS JURISTA EKSĀMENS, PAR UN PRET

### *Unified Lawyers Examination, For and Against*

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**Abstract.** Ministry of Justice of the Republic of Latvia believes that in Latvia is relatively low quality of legal education. As the most appropriate way for solving this problem is considered state unified lawyer qualification exam, which would promote legal education quality growth. The quality of legal education in Latvia is increasingly becoming the subject of public discussion. In 2016 took place the final Ministry of Justice working group meeting on implementation of the state lawyer's professional qualification examination. The article devoted to challenges and perspectives of unified lawyer qualification examination implementation.

**Keywords:** lawyer, exam, professional standard, education.

### **Ievads**

#### **Introduction**

Temata aktualitāti apliecina tas, ka diskusija par vienoto jurista kvalifikācijas eksāmenu ilgst jau vairākus gadus. Tieslietu ministrijā secināts, ka Latvijā ir samērā zema juridiskās izglītības kvalitāte (Tieslietu ministrija, 2015). To uzlabot plāno, ieviešot vienotu eksāmenu visiem tiesību zinātņu maģistra studiju programmu absolventiem vai arī visiem, kuri ieguvuši jurista kvalifikāciju un vēlas strādāt valsts sektorā. Bijusī Saeimas Juridiskās komisijas priekšsēdētāja Ilma Čepāne rosināja arī Saeimā lemt par juristu izglītības kvalitāti un iestājās par eksāmenu. Viņa vairākkārt ir pārliecinājusies, ka jurista izglītības kvalitāte Latvijā nav viendabīga un bieži vien pārāk zema. Tieslietu ministrijas izveidotā darba grupā, kurā piedalījās Augstākās izglītības padomes, Rīgas Juridiskās augstskolas, Izglītības un zinātnes ministrijas, Latvijas Studentu apvienības (LSA) un Tieslietu ministrijas pārstāvji 2016. gada 30. jūnijā veica pēdējos papildinājumus un precizējumus Ministru kabineta noteikumu projektā “Valsts vienotā jurista profesionālās kvalifikācijas eksāmena norises kārtība” un likumprojektā “Grozījumi Augstskolu likumā” (Čepāne, 2016). Pētījuma mērķis ir izpētīt jurista profesionālās kvalifikācijas eksāmena ieviešanas argumentācijas pamatotību un lietderīgumu. Pētījumā izmantota: juridiskās analīzes metode, izpētot normatīvo aktu prasības temata kontekstā un analizējot jurista profesijas

standarta kvalitāti un atbilstību sabiedrības vajadzībām un ietekmi uz studiju programmu kvalitāti augstskolās. Salīdzinošā metode pielietota salīdzinot ekspertu – augstskolu tiesību zinātnes studiju programmu Latvijas vadošo docētāju, Tieslietu ministrijas un studentu viedokļus.

### **Ekspertu viedokļi par jurista profesionālās kvalifikācijas eksāmenu** *Expert opinions about the lawyer professional qualification examination*

Ideja par vienoto jurista profesionālās kvalifikācijas eksāmenu iespējams ir atbalstāma, vēl jo vairāk to atbalsta Latvijas studentu apvienība (Dimants, 2016, 6-7).

2012. gada 7. jūnijā žurnāls „Jurista Vārds” sadarbībā ar Latvijas Universitātes Juridisko fakultāti rīkoja diskusiju „Vienots valsts juridiskais eksāmens Latvijā: iespēja vai nepieciešamība”. Latvijas Universitātes Juridiskās fakultātes 5. Starptautiskās zinātniskās konferences „Juridiskā izglītība un kultūra: pagātnes mācības un nākotnes izaicinājumi” ietvaros 2014. gada 11. novembrī atsevišķa sekcija tika veltīta juridiskās izglītības problēmjaudājumu analīzei. Arī Latvijas Republikas Saeimas Juridiskās komisijas Tiesu politikas apakškomisijas darba kārtībā vairākkārt ir iekļauts un vērtēts jautājums par iespējamiem risinājumiem juridiskās izglītības kvalitātes uzlabošanai (piemēram, 2013. gada 5. novembra, 2015. gada 3. marta sēde) (Tieslietu ministrija, 2015).

Iepazīstoties ar profesionāļu un ekspertu viedokļiem, kas publicēti žurnālā Jurista vārds, jāsecina, ka jau pats raksta virsraksts „Augstskolas ir gatavas idejai, bet ne nepārdomātiem eksperimentiem” liecina par to, ka joprojām nav pārliecības par šāda eksāmena nepieciešamību un tā saturu (Jurista vārds, 2015, 17-24). Profesionāļu un ekspertu viedokļi šajā rakstā dalās un nav vienprātīgi, un tie arī nevar būt vienprātīgi, jo:

- jurista izglītības it kā zemā kvalitāte Latvijā nav argumentēti un pārliecinoši pierādīta ar zinātniskiem pētījumiem un ticamiem dokumentiem. Pilnībā jāpiekrīt profesora Dr. iur. A. Vilka viedoklim, ka Konceptuālā ziņojuma projektā par valsts vienotā jurista kvalifikācijas eksāmena ieviešanu spriedums par jurista izglītības salīdzinoši zemo kvalitāti faktiski ne ar ko nav pamatots (Jurista vārds, 2015, 17-24).

- savukārt LU pārstāves asoc. prof. Dr. iur. A. Rodiņas nešaubīgs viedoklis par vienota jurista eksāmena nepieciešamību tiek bāzēts, pirmkārt, uz Ziņojumu, cik var saprast uz Konceptuālā ziņojuma projektu par valsts vienotā jurista kvalifikācijas eksāmena ieviešanu, kas savukārt nav balstīts uz pārliecinošiem argumentiem un, otrkārt, – uz Vācijas kolēģu it kā ilgstošo viedokli par augstākās juridiskās izglītības problēmām Latvijā, kas arī nav ne ar ko dokumentāli pamatots. Ja Vācijas kolēģi bija norādījuši uz trūkumiem LU juridiskās izglītības programmās, tad arī LU pienākumos un kompetencē ir šīs problēmas risināt

(Jurista vārds, 2015, 17-24). Ja Vācijas kolēģi, akreditējot LU programmas, bija kritizējuši citas Latvijas augstskolas, tad viņu rīcība bija netaktiska un neprofesionāla, diez vai bija attiecīgi argumentēta. Savukārt darba devēju – valsts un pašvaldību iestāžu, komersantu atsauksmes, piemēram, par Rēzeknes tehnoloģiju akadēmijas tiesību zinātnes programmas absolventu profesionalitāti praksē ir visnotaļ pozitīvas (Rēzeknes Tehnoloģiju akadēmija, 2017).

- arī pats Konceptuālā ziņojuma projekts par valsts vienotā jurista kvalifikācijas eksāmena ieviešanu arī diemžēl ir tikai projekts un nevar būt saistošs. Jebkurai koncepcijai ir jāgūst teorētiku un praktiķu piekrišana caur viņu dalību attiecīgas koncepcijas izstrādē un apstiprināšanu no valsts puses, kas šajā gadījumā varētu būt Tieslietu ministrija.

### **Argumenti jurista profesionālās kvalifikācijas eksāmena nepieciešamībai un profesijas standarta prasības**

#### ***Arguments for lawyer professional qualification examination is need and professional standard requirements***

Vietā ir uzdot jautājumu, vai šāda veida vienotajam eksāmenam nebūtu jābūt katrā svarīgā nozarē, piemēram, būvniecībā, medicīnā, valsts drošībā utt.? Kāpēc tikai jurista kvalifikācijai ir svarīgākā nozīme, nekā, piemēram, būvnieka – projektētāja kvalifikācijai, ievērojot Maxima traģēdijas sūro mācību, jo, kā atzīst eksperti, par katastrofas iemeslu bija projektētāju rupja kļūda aprēķinos (Milovs, 2016).

Pašreizējā situācijā rīcība, kad sākumā tiek ieviests vienotais jurista eksāmens, lai pēc tam paskatītos praksē, būs vai nebūs problēmas jurista izglītības kvalitātē, ir pilnīgi neloģiska rīcība un apšaubāms eksperiments, jo šāda eksāmena ieviešana prasa ievērojamus finanšu līdzekļus 101 294 *euro* (Tieslietu ministrija, 2015) un rūpīgu iepriekšēju sagatavošanu. Šajā gadījumā ir jāuzstāda vairāki jautājumi:

- vai vispār jebkad un cik lielā apjomā, un kādā periodā Latvijas juridiskās izglītības problēmas praksē bija detalizēti un dziļi izpētītas un pamatoti sistematizētas? Ņemot vērā to, ka juridiskā izglītība ir nepieciešama ļoti daudzās jomās un profesijās, bez dziļiem un vispusīgiem pētījumiem nav iespējams noteikt konkrētas un skaidras prasības jurista profesijām.

- vai pašreiz spēkā esošie jurista, juriskonsulta un jurista palīga profesijas standarti bija izstrādāti pamatojoties uz objektīviem zinātniskiem pētījumiem, ja tādi vispār ir bijuši? Vai minētie profesijas standarti ir pietiekoši kvalitatīvi un atbilstoši valsts un sabiedrības vajadzībām?

Pat virspusēja analīze liecina par šo profesijas standartu zemo kvalitāti un formālismu to izstrādē. Daudzi punkti ir ļoti vispārīgi un līdz ar to dažādi

interpretējami un tas negatīvi ietekmē tiesību zinātnes studiju programmu izstrādi jebkurā augstskolā, piemēram, Jurista profesijas standartā noteikts:

- „8. Spēja veikt pētījumus ar zinātnisku vērtību jurisprudencē”. Vai ir tāda praktiska nepieciešamība situācijā, kad jāapgūst citas svarīgākas liela apjoma zināšanas un prasmes, lai iegūtu izglītību - zināšanu, prasmju un attieksmju kopumu (Izglītības likums, 1998). Paredzēts, ka eksāmenā būs ietvertas piecas tiesību pamatnozares saskaņā ar jurista profesijas standartu, kā to interpretē Tieslietu ministrija: Krimināltiesības un kriminālprocesa tiesības; Civiltiesības, civilprocesa tiesības un komercietības; Konstitucionālās tiesības, administratīvās tiesības un administratīvā procesa tiesības; Starptautiskās un Eiropas Savienības tiesības; Tiesību teorija, tiesību filozofija un Latvijas tiesību vēsture (Osis, 2016). Katra no šīm nozarēm ietver ļoti apjomīgu tematiku un jautājumu skaitu. Tā, piemēram, starptautiskās tiesības tiek iedalītas starptautiskajās publiskajās tiesībās un starptautiskajās privātajās tiesībās, kur katra no tām satur vēl visai apjomīgas apakšnozares. Tāpēc ir būtiski noteikt pēc iespējas konkrētu jurista kvalifikācijai nepieciešamo jautājumu kopumu. Turklāt paredzamā eksāmena ietvarā netiek minēts cits liela apjoma zināšanu kopums, kas paredzēts profesijas standartā – vides tiesības, nodokļu tiesības, baznīcas tiesības un daudzas citas zinātņu nozares (Ministru kabineta 2010. gada 18. maija noteikumi Nr. 461).

- „9. Spēja sazināties valsts valodā un divās svešvalodās.” Šāda redakcija faktiski ir identiska arī juriskonsulta un jurista palīga profesijas standartā, taču nav norādīts kādā līmenī jāparvalda valsts valoda (Valsts valodas likums, 2000) un svešvalodas, kaut gan ar normatīvo regulējumu ir paredzēti vairāki līmeņi. Frāze “Spēja sazināties valsts valodā” ir interpretējama kā minimālās prasības valsts valodas zināšanām, kas atbilst A 1 līmenim (Ministru kabineta 2009. gada 7. jūlija noteikumi Nr. 733). Patiesībā Ministru Kabineta noteikumi juristam, juriskonsultam un jurista palīgam nosaka augstāko latviešu valodas zināšanu līmeni C 2.

- “22. Pārvaldīt divas svešvalodas saziņas līmenī, no kurām viena ir Eiropas Savienības dalībvalsts valsts valoda.” Plašāk izmantojamā ir angļu valoda, taču Apvienotā Karaliste izstāsies no ES.

- “1.1. datorzinības” – nav teikts, kādā līmenī datorzinības jāapgūst. Ja ir domātas datorzinības pamatlīmenī, tad tās apgūst vidusskolā.

- “2.7. fizisko personu datu aizsardzības tiesības;”. Vai tad juridisko personu datu aizsardzība nav nepieciešama?

Juriskonsulta profesijas standartā:

- punkti “3.7. komercietības;” un “3.9. komercietības;” ir identiski un tas spilgti liecina par profesijas standartu izstrādes paviršību!

- “1.3. zinātniskā darba izstrādāšanas pamati;” juriskonsulta un jurista palīga profesijas standartos vairs netiek pieprasīti, kaut gan tie augstākajā izglītībā



ir jāapgūst pirmām kārtām, jo tas nepieciešams pētniecisko darbu izstrādē sākot ar pirmo kursu (Ministru kabineta 2010. gada 18. maija noteikumi Nr. 461).

Pat virspusēji pārskatot profesijas standarta prasības, ir saskatāma acīmredzama nepieciešamība pēc rūpīgas minēto profesijas standartu revidēšanas.

Jāizvērtē, vai tika izmantotas pārējās augstākās izglītības normatīvā regulējuma pilnveidošanas iespējas, lai tomēr sekmētu izglītības kvalitāti. Tā piemēram Ministru Kabineta Noteikumi par otrā līmeņa profesionālās augstākās izglītības valsts standartu (Ministru kabineta 26.08.2014. noteikumi Nr. 512) nepieprasa valsts pārbaudījumā jebkādu eksāmenu kārtošānu un augstskolām pastāv izvēles brīvība. Pašsaprotams, ka eksāmena iekļaušana valsts pārbaudījumā sekmētu izglītības kvalitāti, taču pastāvošās konkurences apstākļos augstskolas, lai piesaistītu studentus, izvēlēties studentiem izdevīgākus un vieglākus nosacījumus.

Ministru Kabineta noteikumu Valsts vienotā jurista profesionālās kvalifikācijas eksāmena norises kārtība projektā ir virkne normu, kurām nevar piekrist un ir normas, kuras nav skaidri formulētas vai loģiski pamatotas:

- nav saprotams pēc kādiem kritērijiem un kādas saistības ar augstskolu skaitu, kuras īsteno juridisko izglītību, ir iekļauts formulējums “5. Tieslietu ministrs reizi gadā apstiprina komisiju 45 locekļu sastāvā. 6. Komisija sastāv no 15 apakškomisijām šādās tiesību nozarēs”. Katrai augstskolai pašai ir jānodrošina komisija, kas aptver visas piecas nozares – ja augstskola to nespēj nodrošināt, tad var pieaicināt attiecīgas kvalifikācijas komisijas locekļus no citām augstskolām;

- nav skaidra kāda procentuāla pārstāvība paredzama no juridisko nozari pārstāvošajām profesionālajām organizācijām – arī šiem pārstāvjiem ir jābūt ar doktora grādu jurisprudencē;

- Teorētiskās daļas, kas ietvers kopā 15 jautājumus, kārtošāna piecās stundās bez pārtraukuma ir pilnīgi nepieņemami no cilvēka fizisko spēku un fizioloģisko vajadzību viedokļa. Pārbaudījums katrā no tiesību nozarēm ar 3 jautājumiem pats par sevi ir atsevišķs eksāmens, kas prasa no studenta pamatīgu stresu un spēku mobilizāciju. Pārbaudījumam katrā no tiesību nozarēm jānotiek atsevišķās dienās, paredzot starp tām vairāku dienu pārtraukumu. Jebkurš eksāmens ir studiju procesa būtiska sastāvdaļa, kas sekmē studentu zināšanu līmeni, tāpēc eksāmena norisei nedrīkst būt sasteigtai un jānodrošina studentam izmantot iespēju sagatavoties katram nākošajam eksāmena etapam.

- “32. Kvalifikācijas eksāmena praktiskās daļas uzdevumus (kāzus) katrā šo noteikumu 20. punktā minētajā tiesību nozarē kārtos divas stundas” – tas nozīmē vienā dienā 10 stundas!!! Arī praktiskā daļa ir vai nu jāsamazina vai jāsadala vairākās dienās, pretējā gadījumā jāreķinās, ka no studentiem noteikti būs pretenzijas un sūdzības, rezultātu vērtējumu apstrīdēšana.

Pašreiz pastāvošā profesijas standartu hierarhija, paredzot jurista, juriskonsulta un jurista palīga standartus ir pamatā atbalstāma, jo šāda hierarhija

nodrošina studentiem, pirmkārt izvēli līdz kādām kvalifikācijas līmenim iegūt izglītību, bet otrkārt tiek nodrošināta iespēja pakāpeniskai un secīgai profesionālai izaugsmei, izglītību mijot ar praksi darba vietās. Šādā hierarhijā saglabājas arī specializācijas iespējas, piemēram, civiltiesību juriskonsults, kā to piedāvā prof. Dr.iur. J. Načisčionis (Jurista vārds, 2015; 21).

Autors atbalsta profesora Dr.iur. A. Vilka viedokli par tiesību zinātnes studiju programmu specializāciju un šīs specializācijas iekļaušanu vienotajā jurista eksāmenā: Rīgas Stradiņa universitāte varētu specializēties medicīnas tiesībās, Rēzeknes Tehnoloģiju akadēmija – būvniecības tiesībās, fiskālo, muitas un robežu drošības tiesībās, Daugavpils Universitāte – policijas tiesībās utml. Šādu specializāciju, augstskolām savstarpēji vienojoties arī vajadzētu paredzēt topošajā koncepcijā, ņemot vērā reģionālās un citas vajadzības, augstskolu īpatnības un iespējas. Savukārt Latvijas Universitāte varētu turpināt jurista pamatzglītības nodrošināšanu bez specializācijas. Šāds kompetenču sadalījums varētu daļēji kompensēt pašreiz pastāvošo ne visai taisnīgo konkurenci starp Latvijas Universitāti un citām augstskolām, jo Latvijas Universitātē konkurss uz Tiesību zinātnes studiju programmām ir 2 un vairāk reizes lielāks nekā citās augstskolās un var droši paredzēt, ka Latvijas Universitātes absolventu izglītības kvalitāte būs augstāka. Šādos apstākļos daudz svarīgākas ir nevis augstskolu šaurās intereses, bet gan tādu apstākļu radīšana, kas ļautu jaunatnei realizēties ne tikai Rīgā, bet arī reģionos. Reģionam bez izglītotas jaunatnes nav nākotnes un progresa.

## **Secinājumi** **Conclusions**

1. Pētījuma mērķis - izpētīt jurista profesionālās kvalifikācijas eksāmena ieviešanas argumentācijas pamatotību un lietderīgumu pēc autora viedokļa ir sasniegts. Autors nonāk pie secinājuma, ka ideja par vienoto jurista profesionālās kvalifikācijas eksāmenu ir atbalstāma, jo tas sekmēs jurista profesijas kvalitāti daudzās sabiedrībai svarīgās jomās un nozarēs.
2. Jurista profesionālās kvalifikācijas eksāmena satura un metodoloģijas izstrāde ir jāsāk nevis ar empīriskiem pieņēmumiem un hipotēzēm, bet gan ar zinātniskiem un dziļiem pētījumiem visās jurista, juriskonsulta, jurista palīga darbības jomās valsts un pašvaldību iestādēs, pie komersantiem un citur, lai detalizēti noskaidrotu šīm profesijām nepieciešamo zināšanu, prasmju un attieksmju kopapjomu. Tikai pēc tam būs iespējams noteikt minēto profesiju nepieciešamību, vietu darba tirgū un hierarhiju.
3. Nepieciešama jurista, juriskonsulta, jurista palīga profesijas standarta pilnīga pārstrāde, kas tiktu balstīta un pamatota ar objektīviem zinātniskiem

pētījumiem, lai noteiktu skaidras un konkrētas prasības iepriekšminētajām prasībām.

4. Pašreizējās situācijas analīze Rēzeknes Tehnoloģiju akadēmijā liecina, ka gandrīz visi Tiesību zinātnes maģistra studiju programmas absolventi ir iekļāvušies darba tirgū atbilstoši iegūtai izglītībai un kvalifikācijai. Tāpēc reģionālajās augstskolās ir nepieciešama Tiesību zinātnes studiju programmu saglabāšana, paredzot to specializāciju attiecīgā normatīvajā regulējumā un Jurista profesionālās kvalifikācijas eksāmena metodoloģijā.

### **Summary**

The idea of a unified lawyer professional qualification examination is to be welcomed, as it will contribute to the quality of the legal profession in many public key areas and sectors.

Lawyer professional qualification exam content and methodology development must begin not with the empirical assumptions and hypotheses but with scientific and deep research in scope of lawyer, legal adviser, legal assistant within state and municipal authorities, in businesses and other places in order to find out the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes for these professions. Only then it will be possible to determine the need of the profession, the job market and hierarchy.

Needed complete overhaul in lawyer, legal adviser, legal assistant professional standards which would be based on objective scientific research in order to establish clear and specific requirements.

Analysis of the current situation in Rezekne Technology Academy shows that almost all of Law Master's program graduates are integrated into the market in accordance with the education and profession. Therefore, the regional higher education institutions need a conservation of Law study programs, providing their specialization in the regulatory framework and the Lawyer professional qualification examination methodology.

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## CAPACITY BUILDING OF WOMEN LEADERS VIA MANAGEMENT PROGRAMS

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**Abstract.** *Despite of women advancement in politics, business, and other spheres of life, women are largely absent from senior position and are marginalized in terms of power and resources. In Latvia women set up and lead vibrant and successful governmental and private organizations. **The purpose of the article** is to explore cultural roots of gendered inequality in leadership and economic power positions by the literature review and as revealed in interviews. Interview data reveal the obstacles women need to overcome in their career advancement and their stories of success. **Methodology:** The study presents a qualitative study on women's leadership as defined in legislation and recent research and is supported by the qualitative inquiry of life stories of seven women engaged in the education's management programs. These women undertake leadership positions in their organizations. **Conclusions:** To conclude, the goal of equal participation for both male and female players in all significant spheres of life as declared in the international legislation and the United Nations, declarations will strengthen democracy and will promote its proper functioning. The authors assert that higher education through management study programs can also build women's capacity for leadership by assertiveness training and encouraging independent and critical thinkers.*

**Keywords:** *capacity building, equal participation, management programs, women's leadership.*

### Introduction

Majority of contexts, like politics, business, and economy remain male dominated. Women still continue to be underrepresented in many fields, particularly in top management positions. In politics historically men believed to be much better leaders. Lots of research point to barriers that prevent women from attaining leadership positions. Gender stereotypes make managers to view women as less capable or competent to lead an office (Glass & Cook, 2016;

Klenke, 2011). As O'Brien and Wegren (2015) assert, inequality between genders are need to be examined by a system approach by considering an interplay of a complex myriad of economic, political, culture and social factors, including socially constructed attitudes about what is men's and women's work. Inglehart and Norris (2003) have observed that cultural norms, values and beliefs also shape gender equality.

Increased processes of globalization and developed new markets brought on a surface may women leaders-entrepreneurs. Current reality of leadership is based on hierarchal bureaucratic structures. The traditional theories on leadership assert that leaders need to be assertive, forceful, authoritative. Recent theories point to such leadership qualities which are more characteristic to females, such as cooperation and collaboration.

### **Legislation on gender equality**

Discrimination against women takes many forms and can be found in practice. UN (2015) position paper offers indicators how SDG 5 (Sustainable Development Goal 5) should be implemented in practice. The main target as reflected in the document is to ensure full participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels for both males and females.

Gender equality has been recognized as the bases for building a sustainable community in major local and international documents (UNESCO, 2002; GAP, 2015; UN, 2015). Gender equality has also been reflected as one of the 17 sustainable development goals as a foundation for a peaceful, prosperous and sustainable world and by putting an imperative to fight for equal access to education and representation in political and economic decision-making processes of both men and women that will benefit societies and humanity at large (EC, 2011). The major document of EU "*Strategic Engagement for Gender Equality (2016 - 2019)*" (2016) also focuses on the major strategic areas as equality for both sexes in decision making processes, economic independence, dignity and integrity of both sexes. The emphases on promoting women in leadership positions and decision making processes was also emphasized in the GAP (2015) (Global Action Pan). The document points to positive changes that are taking place in the society, namely, the proportion of female heads of institutions increased in 15 of the 20 EU countries in 2014 as compared with the date of year 2014.

### **Research methods, procedure and participants**

Research reveals the causes of women's underrepresentation in leadership positions, by focusing on a complex set of factors in maintaining gender

inequality. While understanding the causes on the unemployment of women, such aspects of sustainability as politics, economy, and culture should be taken into account. *Societal factor* plays a significant role in determining women’s position in the political ladder. Societal issues in the particular society, such as gender equality, access to higher education, and opportunities for women to engage in activities requiring to undertake initiative can contribute or lag behind women’s participation in leadership. Women who are overburdened with health issues and survival needs will unlikely engage in governance. Educated women with work experience will likely engage in leadership. *Economic factors*, such as high level of economic development, economic freedoms, investments in private sectors also can be considered among the significant factors influencing women’s leadership participation (World Bank, 2007). *Political factors*, such as pluralism, freedom to exercise agency, and democratic governance, individual rights and freedoms to exercise agency are also among not the least significant factors influencing women’s participation.

For the purpose of the interview the following questions were asked as one hour long interviews with women engaged in different levels of leadership.

Table 1 **Interview guide: major topics and questions** (adopted from (Folta, Segun, Ackerman, & Nelson, 2012, p. 4)

Topic	Question
Career path	Can you tell about your career path what led you to where you are
Leadership	When do you hear the word “leadership,” what idea comes to your mind? Describe the characteristics of a good leaders. Which of the characteristics do you believe you have?
	What did you do to promote your leadership skills?
Motivation	What motivated you to work you are doing?
	What keeps you motivated?
Factors, defining success	Describe please, what made you to be successful?
	Describe the obstacles you are facing at your work?

The study also explores cultural roots of gendered inequality in leadership and economic power position as a result of the literature review and conducted interviews with women. The participants of the study were seven women currently involved in Master’s and Doctor’s program of a community management, currently occupying leadership positions in the community and private organizations. All of them have joined the research on a voluntarily bases.

**Table 2 The profile of the respondents**

White	7
Latvian	3
Russian	4
Age in years at interview	Range 32-60, Mean 49.8
Master' s level programs	4
Doctoral level programs	3
Role in organization	Management position

*Limitations of the study*

Due its qualitative character the study does not lead to a formulation of generalizations but point to the tendencies based on literature review and explore cultural roots of gendered inequality in leadership and economic power positions in Latvia by life interviews.

Prior to conducting interviews, a quick survey was carried out to explore the reasons preventing leadership. Participants of the survey were 34 males and 86 female university graduate students.

**Table 3 Analysis of causes preventing women from leadership (N=120)**

Question	“ Yes” Response rate
<b>Why women do not choose leadership positions?</b>	
Lack of training	73%
Women do not choose leadership positions	82%
Men are better leaders	92%
Women cannot combine family duties with leadership	96%
Women believed to be worse leaders than men	87%
<b>What would encourage women to undertake leadership?</b>	
Family	80%
Mentoring	74%
Inborn abilities	93%

Majority of students support women in leadership positions but as a main obstacle they see unequal distribution of time for both genders to carry domestic duties. They also believe that if women have inborn abilities to lead they may do so. Still, having a choice to decide who will carry a leadership position they see males are better suited for the leadership position.

**Women’s life stories revealed**

The analyses of career trajectories and subjective life experiences of six women provides a more nuanced understanding of obstacles, barriers and opportunities women experienced in their life journeys. All interviewed women had an experience of work in a business, having their own business or work in



different leadership positions. There are certain categories that can be traced in their stories in the business world.

All women pointed to societal stereotypes that were fostered by their families and the society. These gender stereotypes in some way influenced their beliefs, behavior and self-concept. Many women internalized those stereotypes. The interviews with women allows to conclude that new cultural norms, values and beliefs caused by open market economy and globalization tendencies also shape the transition to gender equality. Women feel more liberated, open to initiative taking and leadership. As one of the respondents remarked: "Open marked economy offers us numerous opportunities and our duty is to accept those challenges. This is up to us to be victim of builders of lives and destinies":

#### *Motivating factors*

Among the motivating factors were 'significant other' of a mentor in women's' lives who challenged and encouraged women for undertaking leadership in their communities and their lives. All women could point to the existence of a mentor or a leader in their life who become a symbol of inspiration for their work and life. One of the respondents told the story of the leader who inspired her: "*There are so many wise and strategic leaders in my life who serve as a source of inspiration in my life. I cannot copy these people but I get inspired by the way they lead people and by their constructive vision and strategy, the way they inspire people.*" They pointed out that the mentors were those who helped them to realize their fullest potential in their lives and in the workplace.

Some women mentioned seminars and books as a source of their inspiration. All of them have recognized the value of their studies that allowed to get approval to what and how they were leading their companies and offices and provided challenge for further transformative actions in their personal development and at work. Some of them have mentioned their families as their support factors: "In the economic situation when my husband has lost his job, he fully supports my business plans and challenges?"

Among the factors defying success of their careers women have mentioned: family support, mentoring and challenging learning experience. Two women emphasized new changes that she has to overcome as a driving forces in overcoming obstacles and "celebrating small victories"

#### *Leadership characteristics*

Among the most often mentioned characteristics of a good leader women mentioned a strong vision, charisma, and ability to motivate members of a team: "*The best lesson I have learned was by observing powerful leaders in action and their ability to delegate duties, to trust in abilities of team members as well as charisma to motivate people. Of course, I cannot copy these qualities in my work but I can try my best to inspire my team since work in the private business*

*company requires involvement of a motivated team to reach the best results possible.”*

Among the other qualities that were mentioned were patience, communication skills, and ability to create a shared meaning with others as important for the leader.

The qualities of a leader as mentioned by women point to a transformative type of leaders desired by the respondents, the leader who has a vision and a commutative skill to inspire the team and ability to deal with complex and wicked issues, as well to work towards a desired vision. The theme of an inspirational and transformative leader was among the mostly pronounced themes during the interviews.

#### *Causes of underrepresentation of women in leadership positions*

Among the more often mentioned causes by women were double workload and uneven distribution of household chores: *“As a woman I am supposed to have a full workload at work, to carry out extra duties at work and having a full responsibility of the domestic duties.”*

The other more frequently mentioned cause by women were deeply seated cultural bias on biological and psychological profile that make men better leaders and a deeply seated attitude “think manager - thin male.’ Some interviewed women have mentioned that their advancement in their career and time spent in education become a source of conflict and even caused a divorce in their lives since it was not acceptable for their partners such a career and salary gap between both partners. Due to deeply seated cultural stereotypes this seems unacceptable for their male counterparts to accept the career advancement of their wives.

Since males are believed to be a more productive leader, they are paid for the same work much more than for the women. Unfortunately, females monthly average gross wages are lower than males. Still, there is higher unemployment rate among women. This is hard for women to get a job at the age of 45-55. The majority of women choose education as a sphere of their work that is less paid compared to other spheres of work. Women employment is primarily in low paid occupations, such as teaching, nursing, and culture management. As all women pointed out, although the employment level is equal for men and women, men are more likely to be employers.

## **Conclusions**

Leadership has been a social construct based on expectations of community rather than based on qualities of individual leaders. Community perceives leaders as prototypically male. As a result, women are less likely will be considered for leadership positions because such roles do not fit or the ideal

model of aggressive and assertive leadership, thus devaluing women's experience. Therefore, women's work and achievements are left unacknowledged or provoke negative reactions.

In overall, women continue to enter traditional women's fields of work, such as teaching, social work, and nursing. The challenge is to situate inequality in a system perspective, economically, culturally, and politically. This is not enough to increase a number of women in leadership positions, one needs to re-evaluate the processes and structures that are male based and to explore the ways to change it.

The growth of a global knowledge societies created great opportunities for women and at the same time poses great challenges. In Latvia, the representation of women in the previously dominated field by males of business has increased along with women's occupational representations in managerial positions. Numerous efforts have been made by NGO's to challenge the discriminatory policies and practices of educational establishments. However, the issue of gender equality is not solved yet. Therefore, education has its significant role to play in fostering female participation in leadership.

Educational programs can play a vital role in emphasizing women's agency and empowering women to undertake leadership positions in the community, by helping them to become aware of their capacities and abilities to enter non-traditional fields such as engineering, law and businesses, as well to become active agents in reform processes in education and the society at large, by taking an active role in policy making processes in the country.

Women need to be encouraged to undertake agency by understanding that agency involves recognition of the power of discourse, 'immersion in and indebtedness in that discourse, and a fascination of the play of meaning through which new life-forms may be generated: life forms capable of disrupting old meaning and desires (In Arnot et al., 2006, p. 82).

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# CONCEPTUALISATION OF ACADEMIC STAFF'S DIDACTIC PRACTICES IN THE CONTEXT OF PROFESSIONALISATION

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**Abstract.** *The article presents a theoretical discourse of academic staff's didactic practices with a particular emphasis on importance of conceptualisation of their didactic practices in the professionalisation context. The authors analyse the essence of didactic practice conceptualisation studies and their contribution to the professionalisation process, disclose the interrelations of conceptualisation of didactic practices and lecturers' professional behaviour, their role-playing and models of didactic practices, that are oriented to the study process organisation, planning programmes, modules and classes, a search of information transmittal forms, the use of advanced teaching methods, as well as student counselling and communication. On the basis of the didactic practice conceptualisation studies, the authors argue that the analysis of conceptualisation of lecturers' didactic practices and their professional behaviour (performance models, roles) can be helpful in adding missing elements to the professionalisation of academic staff and suggest strategies for professional development.*

**Keywords:** *conceptualisation of didactic practices, model of didactic practices, a lecturer's professional behaviour, roles, professionalization.*

## Introduction

Individual professionalisation – becoming a professional – is a long and complicated process. High dedication, time, motivation, and persistence are demanded when accumulating specific scientific knowledge essential to run professional activities, when acquiring experience, applying theoretical knowledge in practice, building and renewing a professional identity, and improving skills. On the other hand, a person wanting to become a lecturer should be able to conceptualise in a proper way, that is, realize him/herself and be able to explain what his/her professional activities mean, what knowledge and skills are needed for running the said activities, to construct and direct it.

Lecturers who are ready (and/or have been trained) to become researchers of their field of science often lack didactic knowledge, skills, experience

required to run their pedagogical (as we say) activities. In other words, university lecturers rarely acquire knowledge or skills in higher education didactics before starting their professional activities, not to mention experience, even though previous studies, conducted in a number of countries, show that a lecturer's pedagogical activities, based on didactic excellence in higher education, is one of the main determinants of students' learning outcomes and the quality of studies (Langevin, 2007). We may supplement this argument by the fact that academic staff focuses essentially on pedagogical activities, by giving efforts, time and preparation for it, since they believe it still remains one of the priority areas today (Jatkauskienė et al., 2013). Teaching activities are diverse and encompass drawing up and execution of curricula, modules, conducting lectures and classes, arrangement of tutorials, practice, supervision of students' graduation works, practice, student counselling, assessment, and so on. N. Šedžiuvienė (2005) points out that lecturers' pedagogical activities consist of two elements – visible and “implicit”, invisible. An invisible element means the process of designing of learning and study processes, planning of curricula, modules, and classes, while visible activities – didactics – involve information sharing, conducting classes and practical training, student counselling, communication, etc. It sounds paradoxically that academic staff is quite often found to be inadequately trained for such visible didactic practices. Research conducted in Klaipėda University (Jatkauskienė et al., 2013), has demonstrated that lecturers lack didactic knowledge and skills in higher education; some of the academic staff inadequately perceive their functions, while a conceptualisation of practices manifests itself as *certain activity patterns, reference points, helping lecturers to realize, explain, focus, and construct their didactic practices, professional behaviour, and development* (Neyts et al., 2006). Accordingly, it casts doubt on academic staff's professionalism and development of it.

Didactic education is not mandatory for academic staff of Lithuanian universities. In other words, lecturers need no prior didactic experience in higher education to be employed at a university. Didactic skills in higher education are usually developed as late as during certain postgraduate studies. Not infrequently, a university professor never takes any professional development programme in higher education didactics throughout his/her careers (Jatkauskienė et al., 2013). When talking with peers, one can often hear that they have learned to teach after adopting, in their opinion, a best teacher's performance model and professional behaviour. Then, the question arises as to why university focuses in didactics so little. The more especially as Comenius, who published his *Didactica magna (The Great Didactic)* in 1657, stated a clear and ambitious goal in the subtitle – “The whole Art of Teaching all Things to all Men.” Maybe, didactics is “kicked out” of the campus just because it is not as “respectable” discipline as philosophy, medicine, the arts, or languages, etc.?

Maybe, a university values science only, but not studies or a student who just occasionally reveals systematic scientific truths? Nonetheless, sooner or later, a university when faced with a new generation of students, their needs and demands for academic staff's professionalism, will be forced to consider how to implement a higher school didactics in a lecturers' professionalisation process or a strategy for university activities.

Once higher education has grown into a mass phenomenon, students are becoming an increasingly heterogeneous group of learners in terms of knowledge, experience, skills, age and other aspects. Therefore, traditional didactic methods, forms and techniques of teaching practices, that have established since medieval ages (*lectio et disputatio*), come under criticism of students, social peers, employers as inadequately meeting the learning needs of today's generation of students as well as a mission of a university.

In pursuance of positive changes in lecturers' pedagogical practice, it is necessary to go into (and, sometimes, to change) their personal perception of didactic practice, its explanation and construction (conceptualisation). In other words, a lecturers' attitude toward a learning student, their professional behaviour, performance models, their and a student's roles, their relationships, and interaction require a more comprehensive analysis for promoting the professionalisation process on a basis thereof.

It is quite difficult to give an unambiguous answer to the question of what determines professionalism of academic staff (A number of publications? Degree? The title of pedagogue? Taking part in conferences, projects? Positive student feedbacks?) While answering this question, other questions may arise: what is lecturers' readiness for academic activities? How do lecturers perceive, are they able to explain, to conceptualise their didactic practices? What are the organisational structure, functions, typical performance situations that occur to the majority of university academic staff? What are didactic skills in higher education, didactic practice models, behaviour that are necessary to control such performance situations? In other words, a consideration should be given to how to become a professional in teaching (learning through experience, i.e., *becoming a skilled blacksmith by forging iron all the day long... or otherwise?*)

The *goal of this article* is to review previous studies related to the conceptualisation of academic staff's didactic practices and to disclose the importance of it in the context of professionalisation.

The issues of conceptualisation of academic staff's didactic practices and professionalisation still have a status of a "poor cousin" within the Lithuanian (and not only) study field. Therefore, the article attempts to answer the following problematic issues:

1. What is the essence of studies in conceptualisation of didactic practices and their contribution to professionalisation?

2. What are the interrelations of conceptualisation of didactic practices and professional behaviour, role-playing, and models of didactic practices?
3. Is consideration of diverse conceptualisation of lecturers' didactic practices, their professional behaviour, and analysis thereof be able to provide necessary elements to professionalisation, to point out appropriate professional development ways or means?

The article writing has involved *review of scientific literature and meta-analysis*. References in Lithuanian, English, and French have been selected for the analysis on the basis of a key parameter – appropriation of a reference source for the scientific publication which analyses the conceptualisation of academic staff's didactic practices and their professionalisation.

First, we review scientific publications related to conceptualisation of student learning activities and only then – publications related to conceptualisation of lecturers' didactic activities in the historical perspective of this research area. The publications have been selected and analysed with regard to the above key problematic issues and with an emphasis on the idea of didactic practice conceptualisation, concepts of didactic practices, interrelations of conceptualisation and operational changes, professionalization, etc.

This article is based on the constructivist educational concept, according to which any social reality refers directly to performance and interactions of social actors, their symbolic or tangible practice (Legendre, 2004). Social actors, however, create, mobilise, and resort to various representations, different constructs of mentality and experience based on which they interpret social reality and influence it, since *human thinking and insight always need visuality* (Jaspers, 1998, p 5). It should be noted that the social actors' constructs do not just exist in a space: they have a situational, local nature. In other words, they are interfering with a specific, social context, which involves other social actors, too, and where a variety of human activity products (e.g., goods, tools, organizations, laws, etc.) are produced. This means that social actors are not able to explain, share available representations, or to negotiate, as their social reality concepts are comprised in an enclosed, purified, unchangeable, and subjective space. That is, social reality depends both on a particular actor and interaction partners.

Such methodological provisions presume that university lecturers, as well as other social actors describe and interpret a significant part of their performance objectives to themselves and others with regard to emerging didactic and learning process concepts of their own and their students. To summarise, lecturers' performance objectives can be argued to be not strongly predetermined by outside environment, they rather depend on corresponding interpretative and constructive activities, given the performance objectives and



the means selected for the attainment of the said objectives by the lecturers. Together, it should be noted that interpretations and constructs of the actual teaching activities are integrated into the organisational context of a university, communication with peers and students. Consideration, therefore, must be given to other actors' opinions, approaches, attitudes, communication and operational rules, organisational norms, values, and so on. All this quite often becomes a means of professional learning for lecturers. Based on this approach, we can define educational concepts as performance patterns, reference points which enable lecturers to understand, develop, focus, and explain their didactic practices at the beginning of their pedagogical activities. This is a global vision of teaching staff's didactic practices, obliging them to acquire excellence not only in their own discipline, but in specific subjects (for example, knowledge of didactics and andragogy in higher education, areas of teaching activities, organisational aspects of university, and so on), too. Solely this knowledge and excellence enable to realize, build, and run one's own professional activities, build relationships with students, and develop didactic lecturer-to-student learning activities in an efficient way.

### **Essence of studies in conceptualisation of didactic practices and contribution to professionalisation**

The process of becoming a professional for academic staff, as well as other social actors, i.e., professionalisation, is a lengthy process, taking more than a day or a week. This process involves different ways and means. One of them is a conceptualisation of didactic practices (a visible part of a lecturer's pedagogical activities).

Conceptualisation of didactic practices refers to a lecturer's experience, performance representations (Jatkauskienė et al., 2014). And this is really important for professional development of lecturers, for emergence and growth of a "hard core" of their didactic skills. An importance and benefits of the conceptualisation of didactic practices for professional development have stimulated scientific studies in this area.

Some of the earliest studies (Romainville, 1998) as of the late 20th century were designed to examine a conceptualisation of students' learning activities, interaction between students and lecturers, through a variety of didactic and learning strategies. These studies revealed what was called a "hard core" structuring, including meta-cognition, of student behaviour (Romainville, 1996, p. 64). At the same period (8<sup>th</sup>-10<sup>th</sup> decade of the 20th century), there were studies in conceptualisation of teachers' didactic practices simultaneously launched. The initiator of many of them was the Anglo-Saxon higher school and its representatives, who were later joined by scholars from other countries. It

should be noted that a number of studies (Fox, 1983; Dunkin, 1990) were specially designed to conceptualise a performance of academics “just embarking on a teaching career”. D. Fox proposed and justified a conceptual model of teaching, aimed to look deeper into the teaching activities of a lecturer and learning activities of students. The researcher kept giving one and the same question to teachers for several years running, “What do you mean by teaching?” On the basis on the responses received, D. Fox has developed a conceptual model and identified several theories of teaching (Fox, 1983, pp. 157-158):

- *transfer theory* that treats knowledge as a commodity to be transferred from one vessel to another;
- *shaping theory* that treats teaching as a process of shaping or moulding students' behaviour, knowledge, and skills to a predetermined pattern;
- *travelling theory*, which treats a subject of teaching as a terrain to be explored with hills to be climbed for better viewpoints with the teacher as the travelling companion or expert guide;
- *growing theory*, which focuses more on the intellectual and emotional development of a learner.

The above theories can be argued to match and reflect not only conceptualisation of academic staff's didactic practices, but students' attitude toward learning/studies, too. All the listed theories of teaching can be figuratively divided into two groups: *simple theories* (e.g., transfer and shaping) and *developed, complex* (e.g., travelling and growing) (Fox, 1983, p. 158). However, it should be noted that regardless of a theory chosen by a lecturer to base his/her activities upon so as to improve the didactic process, each of them reflects the lecturer's strategy and correlates with his/her position, attitude toward a student, his/her learning, curricula, subject content, etc.

M. J. Dunkin (1990), in the study of professional integration of university teachers, interviewed 55 new lecturers at an Australian university. The goal – to reveal early experiences in the institution and attitudes regarding teaching and student evaluations. The study data were used to analyse professional integration of the newly employed lecturers, whose expectations with respect to professional integration and their experience were used as a key criterion for initial data analysis. Effects (and results) of the professional integration under the concept of didactic practices became the second criterion of data analysis. M. J. Dunkin (1990, p. 127) identified four elements for description and analysis of didactic concepts: *structure of learning, motivation to learning, encouragement to act and pursue learning autonomy (independence from a*

*lecturer or group members) and building the relationships to facilitate the learning process.*

During the study, analysis and identification of didactic concepts, expressed at early career, has revealed that lecturers often apply not all of the above concepts at the beginning of their careers. Therefore, their didactic practices are to be improved, because conceptualisation of the practices is inadequate and is quite narrow.

Subsequent qualitative studies in the conceptualisation of lecturers' didactic practices have revealed similar trends (Dall'Alba, 1991). During the studies, there were identified seven concepts of lecturers' didactic practices: from didactics for the delivery and conveying of information to didactic practices, implying conceptual changes in learning activities. Different concepts of didactic practice have been studied and described by a number of authors: P. Ramsden (2003), who justified in his study three different personal concepts of teaching; K. Samuelowicz et al. (1992), who identified five qualitatively different concepts of lecturers' didactic concepts – from conveying of information to conceptual changes in learning/studies and support/assistance for a learner.

A brief review of lecturers' didactic concepts and primary studies allow assuming that the conceptualisation of teaching is treated differently by various authors, yet, let us identify the following several general trends:

- lecturers who perceive their didactic practices as a knowledge transfer process vs. lecturers who perceive their didactic practices as support/assistance to students;
- conceptualisation of didactic practices of lecturers, even those teaching the same course, can be very different;
- different hierarchical elements can be identified in the conceptualisation of lecturers' didactic practices;
- conceptualisation of lecturers' didactic practices correlates with the selected didactic strategy and didactic intentions.

Therefore, other authors (Trigwell et al., 1994) focused their studies on the following elements: a concept of didactic practices, strategy and intentions of a lecturer.

Research findings (e.g., Romainville, 1996, p. 67) highlight the following intentions of lecturers: *“lecturers' didactic strategies oriented to him/herself and to the intention of conveying knowledge to students.”* In this case, a lecturer focuses all his/her attention to the mastery of a content of a subject taught, conveying of a content, etc. Hence, a student's role is rather passive. In contrast, the other teaching strategy is focused on a student and a lecturer's intention to support the student's conceptual changes. Learning in this case is understood as

a conceptual change. A student, willing to learn something, must not only construct knowledge or a system of it, but also to confront existing concepts in a particular manner with a view of their qualitative changes. A lecturer's intentions with respect to a learner can be, respectively, of restrictive or motivational nature.

The top position in hierarchy of the conceptualisation of didactic practices belongs to the element known as a lecturer's activities, focused on conceptual changes in learning/studies, and the lowest – to didactic practices as conveying of knowledge, information (Dall'Alba, 1991; Ramsden 2003; Samuelowicz etc., 1992; Trigwell, 1995).

Another and obviously most important finding of the above studies in terms of professionalisation is that in pursuance of positive changes in lecturers' didactic practices, it is necessary to change their personal perception of the practices, i.e., their attitude towards a learner, their and a student's roles, their relationships, interactions. It was, therefore, suggested to name the concepts of didactic practices as *lecturers' personal concepts of didactic practices*, given the nature of their teaching activities. Some authors (Samuelowicz et al., 1992) regard concepts of didactic practices as theories of teaching, because this is *direct didactic experiences tried and applied by a lecturer* (Samuelowicz et al., 1992, p. 97). Approaches of D. Fox (1983) and M. J. Dunkin (1990) match the one of the above author (Samuelowicz et al., 1992). This explains why the efforts to improve lecturers' didactic work process, given that a lecturer takes actions during classes only, and regardless of the conceptualisation of his/her activities, are worth to develop the methodology and strategy of the didactic practices, but not always, as being focused on facilitation or support for a student learning. Improvement of didactic practices should start with changes in thinking, didactic strategies, reflection of methodology applied. Those lecturers, who disregard personal mindset changes, will disregard a didactic strategy to be applied in their activities, as well. Together, such lecturers are not concerned about helping students in pursuing conceptual changes (Trowler et al., 2011).

### **Conceptualisation of activities. Interrelations of lecturers' professional behaviour, roles, and models of didactic practices**

Studies in higher school didactics, conceptualisation of academic staff's didactic practices (Kember, 1997; Saussez, 1998; Kane et al., 2002; Loiola 2001; et al.) became particularly intensive in the last decade of 20th century and in the beginning of the 21st century. This intensiveness can be explained by the fact that scientific studies were aimed to validate the hypothesis: *teachers' behaviour during classes largely depends on the conceptualisation of their didactic practices* (Donnay et al., 1996; Ramsden, 1992; Trigwell, 1995 et al.).

This hypothesis was originally applied only to the analysis of performance of experienced teaching staff (Kember, 1997; Kane et al., 2002; Pratt, 1992; Saussez, 1998). The studies revealed the following trend: the majority of lecturers are poorly aware of available models for running didactic practices, the diversity of behaviours, roles and their opportunities. However, to become a professional, one needs to understand, to be able to explain his/her professional behaviour, i.e. performance methods, roles, didactic models, etc., because *future insights mean today's perception, understanding, a choice of adequate behaviour of a reflecting practitioner in various areas of professional activities* (Schön, 1994, p. 53).

A *model of didactic practices* is defined as a whole of interlinking didactic actions resting upon representations of a human being (an individual), society's didactic practices and learning (Legendre, 2005, p. 896). Models of didactic practices are quite different: some are transmissible, others are behavioural, constructivist or socio-constructivist, meta-cognitive, etc. It is no secret that the lecturers with no didactic framework in higher education may not be aware of the existence of didactic models, their variety and applicability.

However, knowledge of models of didactic practices is essential not only to conceptualise lecturers' didactic practices, to analyse their professional behaviour, to assess their professionalism, etc. The excellence in the above is essential for many other reasons, for example:

- not all people are able to learn the same things by the same means or methods (Clanet, 2004);
- a teacher of literacy must apply various methods and means in his/her didactic practices, have a wide range of operating intentions (Pratt, 2005);
- application of a single didactic model for a long time makes students bored (Joyce et al., 2004);
- in pursuance of quality of studies, teaching, and learning, students should be familiar with the variety of didactic and learning situations (Meirieu et al., 1996);
- a large variety of available didactic models ensure the adaptability to and flexibility in various didactic and learning situations (Vienneau, 2005).

The above authors' studies conclude that a lecturer may play a variety of roles in didactic activities ("coach", "instructor", "didactician", "ferry man", etc.), depending on a didactic model chosen (transmissible, behavioural, constructivist, socio-constructivist, etc.) or a constructing position of professional behaviour. Therefore, one can assume that lecturers, when taking

various roles, represent different didactic models, different behaviours, and respective values (Jorin, 2003):

- a lecturer, taking a “*coach's*” role, represents the behaviour or performance *mastering position*. A coach's role involves a movement toward the performance improvement, toward the search for certain tools and their application. This role, thus, allows motivating a student, observing and encouraging his/her efforts. A positive lecturer-to-student relationship assures successful and productive learning. Taking this role is associated with the diagnostic educational evaluation, upon refusal of traditional control. Preset, current, and required performance excellence is assessed. A learner's individual learning style and tempo are taken into account. The entire process of knowledge and skill acquisition is foreseen;
- a lecturer, taking an “*instructor's*” role, represents the behaviour or performance *effectiveness position*, which is prevailed by success, self-improvement, performance, superiority, individualism, motivation, self-sufficiency values. *Effectiveness* position is directly related to learning-based targets, objectives of activities. An *instructor's* role involves traditional knowledge transfer to students. The transmission model cannot do without knowledge control procedures. Assessment of knowledge and skills, classification of the activities carried out, production, achievements are the most common elements of the "instructor" role performer. The main method of activities is a classic lecture; evaluation has a normative and cumulative nature;
- a “*didactician's*” role represents the behaviour or performance *constructing position* and values such as accuracy, mediation, counselling. A *didactician's* role involves the provision and creation of prerequisites for acquisition of knowledge and skills. A *didactician* is planning means which could be helpful for students in developing independence of thinking, reasoning and actions. Problem-solving is a basis of the *didactician's* performance, whereby much attention is paid to students' social representations, creation of complex learning situations, evaluation of the educator, discipline, formation and mastering of skills needed for professional activities. Therefore, it can be said that a *didactician* is an expert in his/her field, a professional teacher, a practitioner. Construction and proposal of didactic situations to students reveals a pragmatism-based teaching practice. Pragmatic vision of such lecturer allows constructing complex, flexible, and

easily modelled didactic situations with reference to constructivist and socio-constructivist learning;

- a “*ferry man’s*” (“*escort’s*”) role represents the behaviour or performance *understanding, comprehension position*, which values are acceptance and recognition of “others”. Therefore, the position of understanding, comprehension is consistent with basic humanistic ideas, seeks the respect to oneself and others. The learning process involves even the aspects which students often do not speak about: a failure, fear of learning, lack or absence of motivation, etc. Therefore, a lecturer, while taking a *ferry man’s* role, is mobilizing all his/her available skills of attentive listening, empathy, acceptance of another person, etc. A ferry man observes a student's learning problems, difficulties, thus, attempts renewing a constructive dialogue between the student's inner world and the educational establishment’s requirements (Jorin, 2003, p. 70). Such attention to another person is inseparable from the behaviour constructing position and approach selected by the lecturer. To renew the broken contact between a student’s inner world and the educational establishment, a *ferry man* refers to the student’s beliefs, knowledge, values, as well as the educational establishment’s values, symbols, and demands. Therefore, development of a student's independent, critical thinking, self-confidence, socio-cognitive conflict solving, analysis of divergence behaviour concept, professional ethics, responsibility, etc. are of particular importance. A lecturer, in carrying out this role, should understand neuro-linguistic programming (NLP), transactional analysis (TA) techniques, social psychology or, even, psychoanalysis, as required for dealing with unpredicted, unforeseen incidents and problems (Jorin, 2003, p. 72).

All the four above behavioural positions may be conflicting to each other, cause tensions, contradictions subject to their correlation when choosing them as the key positions in the professional behaviour development process. Therefore, the development, construction of professional behaviour, selection and performance of a role are determined by our (lecturers’) own discretion to choose one or the other position and representative values. The selected role and behaviour also depend on a dominating approach to professional behaviour construction: *tactical, strategic, or ethical*.

In case of dominating an *ethical approach to professional behaviour construction*, a lecturer attaches high priority to values, aspirations, visions of the world, caring for others and oneself, to an inner dialogue. If a *tactical approach to professional behaviour construction* is dominant, a lecturer attaches great importance to practice, operating “strings”, advice, professional secrets, an

intuitiveness, a fragmented, peripheral, often artisanal or, even, “poaching” performance, which is often based neither on scientific knowledge nor on professional standards. In case of a dominating *strategic approach to professional behaviour construction*, a lecturer focuses on research publications, performance objectives, index of competitiveness, competence and job descriptions, rational activity, structured actions, etc.

Lecturers with little experience and low self-confidence incur concerns about their professionalism, which do not allow them judging their performance objectively. As a result, they construct their professional behaviour on the basis of the ethical approach to behaviour construction. On the other hand, highly experienced lecturers base their professional behaviour on the strategic approach since being able to perfectly adapt their behaviour to standard expectations and requirements of an educational establishment, to explain their actions to management of the establishment, peers, social partners, and students. The ethical approach is inherent to lecturers who are pursuing professional behaviour, operational innovation. This is a case of intersection of social representations and reality involving continuous self-evaluation, reflection, assessment of other academic staff's performance.

It is assumed that there is no good or bad approach to the construction of professional behaviour since *a lecturer's professional identity, professional behaviour are constructed on the basis of all the three approaches and any possible combinations thereof* (Jorin, 2003, p. 67). Nonetheless, the most important thing is being aware of the different approaches to behaviour construction, the ability to choose and apply them properly. Therefore, we should assume that the consideration of lecturers' professional behaviour, its analysis may become a determinant, an element of their professionalisation, it may point out strategies or means of academic staff's professional development.

## **Conclusions**

1. Didactic preparation is not mandatory for academic staff in Lithuania. It is therefore assumed that some lecturers are not even aware of what higher school didactics-based pedagogical activities mean. That implies problematic issues of lecturers' professionalism notion, of their professionalization process.
2. The essence of didactic practice conceptualisation lies in certain academic staff's performance patterns, models, roles that may be reference points to enable lecturers to understand, explain, focus, and construct their didactic practices. Thus, the conceptualisation of didactic practices may be regarded as one of the lecturers' professionalisation means and factors that stimulate professional development. There are several types of didactic practice



concepts: *developed or complex*, involving many elements of didactic and learning activities, and *simple*, often restricted to one specific element. So, lecturers' didactic practices are assumed to be focused on knowledge and information transfer. *Simple concepts* are supposed to hinder a lecturer in understanding and applying a model of didactic practices. Conversely, *developed, complex* concepts of didactic practices have a positive influence on the choice and application of a student- or learning-oriented didactic approach or strategy.

3. Scientific studies show that lecturers' professional behaviour largely depends on the conceptualisation of their didactic practices. In other words, there is a direct interrelation of conceptualisation of didactic practices and professional behaviour, performance models, and roles. Whoever comprehends and is able to explain their didactic practice, will be able to improve it based on on a clear vision of didactic practice. It can be said that a university is not only a place for formation and dissemination of new scientific knowledge – it is a place for learning/training, acquisition of skills needed for professional activities, too. A lecturer may play important and different roles in the learning /studies and skill acquisition process. Therefore, a variety of lecturers' roles is closely related to a diversity of didactic models. When applying various didactic models during classes, a lecturer can perform multiple respective roles and models. This raises students' interest in classes, in the lecturer, stimulates acquisition of new knowledge and skills.
4. Based on studies in the conceptualisation of didactic practices, we can state that the consideration of diverse conceptualisation of academic staff's didactic practices, their professional behaviour, and analysis thereof may provide necessary elements to their professionalisation, to point out appropriate strategies or means of professional development.

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# HIGHER EDUCATION LECTURERS' SUPPORT/ASSISTANCE IN STUDENT LEARNING: STUDY CASE OF LITHUANIAN HIGHER SCHOOLS

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**Abstract.** *This article analyses a number of aspects of lecturers' support/assistance in student learning. Empirical study reveals support/assistance, provided by lecturers, that is focused on: development of interpersonal relationships, informing, facilitation of learning/studies, regulation of relations, modelling of learning/study activities and behaviour, a vision of student learning, student activities. The above listed aspects of support/assistance might serve as a particular performance indicator for some of lecturers in this field, so as to provide a real and effective help and assure a quality of learning and studies.*

**Keywords:** *higher school, lecturers, support/assistance provided to students.*

## Introduction

One of the fundamental areas of university lecturing staff's activities is providing support/assistance for learning students (Jatkauskienė et al., 2013). A lecturer may be describes as a person-source, an expert, a consultant, or a social intermediary between a learning student and new knowledge, abilities and skills pursued by him/her (Reffay & Chanier, 2005). By focusing his/her activity on a learner, provision of support and assistance, and dynamics of interaction between a lecturer and a student when acquiring and constructing knowledge, a lecturer, thus, plays a significant role in the process of studies.

Lecturing functions are derived from the theory of constructivist learning, which imposes a learner to engage in the actual process of problem-solving. While learning, a student is not provided a solution to his/her problems, but rather looks for it using individual learning strategies. Therefore, a student must independently plan goals, objectives for learning (studies), and ways to achieve them, set priorities, build up all his/her capability and available resources, and progress to action in cooperation with other learners (Raynal et al., 2007). However, students do not always succeed in this and are faced with a number of problems (of cognitive, affective, psychomotor nature, etc.) (Jatkauskienė et al.,

2011). Quite often, learners and students are left alone with the problems arisen. In such cases, principles of vocation, knowledge, and goodwill should inspire a lecturer to offer support/assistance to learning students, by focusing on the development of interpersonal relationships, informing, facilitation of learning/studies, counselling on relations, modelling of learning/study activities and behaviour, a vision of student learning and studies.

Today, Lithuania lacks not only deeper academic discussions on lecturers' support/assistance for students, but also scholarly studies in this area. The situation is somewhat different for Western European countries. Individual scholars (Reffay & Chavier, 2005; Maes, 2007; Basque, Rochelen, & Winer, 2009; et al.) have distinguished several aspects of support/assistance for learners:

- *support and assistance of didactic nature with respect to content* determines the knowledge and competences pursued by a learner (cognitive or meta-cognitive support);
- *support and assistance of didactic nature with respect to methodology* provides for possible obstructions for organising individual or group activity of learners and helps to eliminate them;
- *support and assistance of technical nature* determines and helps to eliminate technical problems encountered by learners;
- *support and assistance of administrative nature* refers to providing information about the educational process to a learner;
- *psychological support* concerns problems of socio-affective nature (motivation, conflicts, etc.) and helps to resolve them.

Some scientists (Gounon, Dubourg, & Leroux, 2004) suggest conceptualisation and modelling of support and assistance provided to a learner based on three perspectives: perspective of *an actor that provides support/assistance* (e.g., a teacher, tutor, mentor, coacher, colleague, relative, etc.); perspective of *an actor that receives support/assistance* (e.g., a learning student); *a type of support/assistance*: proactive, reactive, and contextual. *Proactive* help presumes support/assistance provided at a lecturer's initiative; *reactive* help manifests as a lecturer's response to a request for assistance; *contextual* help is expressed depending on an actual context or situation (Jatkauskienė, 2013).

Support and assistance should reflect a student's cognitive (conceptual, methodological, administrative and technical), social-affective, motivational, and meta-cognitive needs. Given the above, we may state that support/assistance a certain social interaction, related to the self-learning process and can be analysed in various aspects (Jatkauskienė et al., 2011): as support/assistance of *social-affective* nature (to support someone who is "failing", having learning

difficulties); as support/assistance of *cognitive* nature (helping to deal with socio-cognitive conflicts, to regulate interrelations, etc.); as a *subject of learning/studies* (construction and modelling a correct behaviour). Social space should be adjusted so that students understand their interaction while being an integral part of learning. However, there has been an insufficient comprehensive study carried out in Lithuania on the subject so far. Thus, there has been a **scientific problem** presupposed: how and by what means is a lecturer's support/assistance in student learning expressed in various academic aspects?

**A goal of the research** – to analyse theoretically and to reveal empirically aspects of a lecturer's support/assistance for students. In order to achieve the goal, the following **problematic issues of research** are raised:

- What is a lecturer's support/assistance in terms of development of interpersonal relationships and how is it expressed?
- What is a lecturer's support/assistance in terms of informing and how is it expressed?
- What is a lecturer's support/assistance in terms of facilitation of learning/studies and how is it expressed?
- What is a lecturer's support/assistance in terms of facilitation of regulation of relations and how is it expressed?
- What is a lecturer's support/assistance in terms of modelling of learning/study activities and behaviour and how is it expressed?
- What is a lecturer's support/assistance in terms of vision of student activities and how is it expressed?

**Study design.** In this qualitative study, the process of designing, construction, primary data collection and rational choice of analysis methods are described as a study design (Bitinas et al., 2008).

The following *study methods* have been used during the research: *analysis of scientific literature* for revealing a theoretical background of the study, a *meta-analysis* for review of previous studies data in this field and using it for interpretation within this study, and *interviews* for collection of qualitative data to analyse lecturers' support/assistance for students. A sample is based on homogeneous selection, as participants in the research are lecturing or studying at universities and colleges of Lithuania: Klaipėda University, Vytautas Magnus University, Mykolas Romeris University, SMK University of Applied Social Sciences (Klaipėda). The total sample under study is (n=42). The study has involved students (n=22) and lecturers (n=20). A study sample in each group (students and lecturers) is supposed to be sufficient for a qualitative analysis, in view of the phenomenological study approach chosen. It has been pursued to attain an internal study validity through the triangulation (interviews with lecturers (n=20), interviews with students (n=22), a group discussion with

representatives of administration (n=7), and a lecturer's performance monitoring (n=5). The informants were selected by random sampling, that is, randomly chosen from different Lithuanian higher schools. Teaching service of lecturers who participated in research – 11 to 20 years. Among the lecturers under study – 11 males and 9 females. The study involved undergraduate students, of which 8 males and 14 females.

Individual interviews and group discussions with representatives of administration can be considered as constraints of the research since the informants' responses to questions could be affected by the following factors: the desire to be a lecturer or a student positively recognised by society, too high/too low self-esteem in demonstration of understanding a lecturer's support/assistance activities, the role, etc. The reliability of study results is validated by audit of research, i.e., checking a consistency in research data collection, interpretations, and findings. The research was audited by professors of Klaipėda University (n=2). This article provides data obtained in interviews with lecturers and students only.

**The study data collection tool** (questionnaire) was developed on the basis of a set of specific questions which were verified and validated in some countries (Canada, Finland, Sweden) (Jatkauskienė, 2013). Similar studies have been carried out before at the international level (Boutinet, 2013)<sup>1</sup>.

The research tool – the questionnaire – consists of questions intended to analyse informants' opinion of the lecturers' support/assistance in student learning. The questionnaire is divided into separate parts by topic clusters: 1) support/assistance focused on development of relationships; 2) support/assistance focused on informing; 3) support/assistance focused on facilitation of activities; 4) support/assistance focused on regulation of activities; 5) support/assistance focused on modelling of activities; 6) support/assistance focused on the vision of student learning/studies. At the end of the questionnaire, 3 open questions are provided to base upon for holding a group discussion. Clear guidelines for analysis and interpretation of study data is one of the advantages of the research. It has been observed that qualitative studies on the role of activities or individuals, data collection methods, such as interviews or surveys, are sometimes found to be unreliable because of informants' attempt to provide responses as expected by research organisers (Trigwell et al., 2004). In terms of this research, we can reassure that such likelihood was avoided since the data collection and interpretation techniques precluded the possibility of "model" answers.

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<sup>1</sup>Boutinet, J. P. (collectif). 2013. L'accompagnement et ses paradoxes, Actes du Colloque International de Fontvraud les 22 et 24 mai 2013.

The following figure reflects the phases of study:

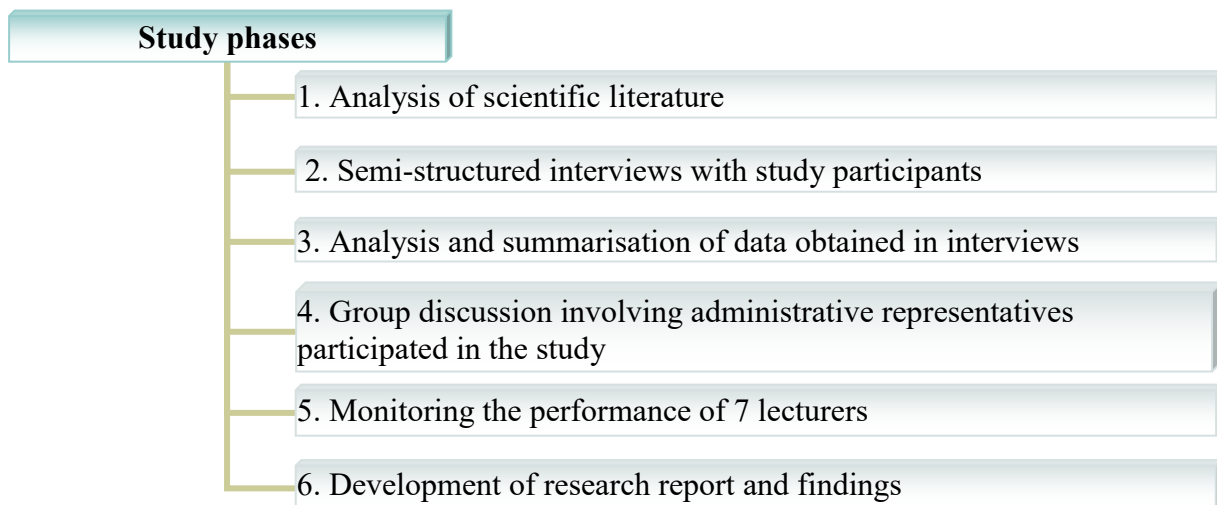


Fig. 1 Study phases

When monitoring lecturers' support/assistance, the following behaviour observation units have been identified: *development of relationships, informing, facilitation of learning/studies, regulation of relations, performance modelling, and focus on a vision of student learning/studies.*

Study site: Klaipėda University, Vytautas Magnus University, Mykolas Romeris University, SMK University of Applied Social Sciences (Klaipėda).

### Results of research and discussion

Participants of the study were asked to read each statement (a total of 55), to rate it at their discretion using a 5-point scale, with the following estimate values: *1 - never, 2 - rarely, 3 - sometimes, 4 - often, 5 - always.* All the statements were divided into separate topic clusters. Each cluster of topics is described by the highest sum of points (estimates) of the statements provided. Such an interpretation of survey data, as part of the lecturer support/assistance analysis, reveals each behavioural goal, insights into the behaviour of a lecturer in not only providing support/assistance, but also in pursuing positive and constructive changes of student learning/studies. As mentioned above, all the statements were grouped into different clusters of topics:

#### **1. Support/assistance, focused on development of interpersonal relationships**

The following correlations of topic clusters with statements were provided for: 1, 5, 7, 12, 13, 23, 42, 44, 47 and 53. The highest possible sum of estimates – 50.



Table 1 Support/assistance, focused on development of interpersonal relationships

Survey participants/estimate values	Does not match - 10-35	Hardly matches - 36-38	Matches - 39-41	Highly matches - 42-44	Fully matches - 45-50
<i>Lecturers' point of view</i>		36.28			
<i>Students' point of view</i>	21.85				

As we can see in the table above, from the point of view of lecturers involved in the survey, the average of estimates under this cluster is 36.28. A comparison of the average with highest possible sum of estimates (50) shows that it hardly matches the support/assistance that is focused on the development of interpersonal relationships of lecturers and students.

Even lower average estimates are obtained from the analysis of students' point of view. The average of estimates of students involved in the survey under this cluster is 21.85 out of the highest possible sum of estimates (50). This shows that the students' attitude toward the lecturers' support/assistance, focused on development of interpersonal relationships, does not meet their expectations. For purposes of support/assistance, focused on the development of interpersonal relationships, a lecturer bases upon listening and trust to build a learning/study environment that makes a student talking about his/her positive and negative experiences, without fear of the lecturer's criticism or negative evaluation (Gounon et al., 2004). It implies that this area of support/assistance is to be improved.

A lecturer's support/assistance could be described as understanding, approval, active listening, and empathy (Maltcuit et al., 2005). Support, assistance is a certain style of communication, based on humanism, human values; recognition of a human being and help he needs (Jatkauskienė, 2013). In this case, the interrelation and interaction between a lecturer and a learner are emphasised. Priority is given to a human factor rather than to a problem or a complex situation. However, we should admit that support/assistance is of intervention nature. The process of intervention differs depending on a type of support, assistance, tools used, and a problem to deal with. Sometimes, intervention is directed towards a student's behaviour or professional practice, sometimes – to reflection so as to achieve effective solution of the problem. Nevertheless, the intervention process always comprises the same stages: *diagnostics, analysis of situation, development of support/assistance scenario, and planning the implementation of this scenario*. In any case, a lecturer playing a role of a mentor, a tutor, or a coacher, is carrying out activities taking a

student's interests into consideration, therefore, a lecturer should give total freedom and responsibility to a student in making any decisions since the process of intervention in support/assistance is aimed solely on improvement of learning activities.

In order to make a lecturer's support/assistance effective and to develop interrelations, lecturers should demonstrate the following behaviour in their activities: to practice active listening (verbal and non-verbal communication shows a sincere interest); to formulate open questions to make a student analyse a current situation; to provide a descriptive feedback developed during the observation; to make sure whether the lecturer perceives a student's emotions in a right way; to answer questions in the way helping students to understand their own emotions and reactions rather than by categorical judgment (Jatkauskienė 2013).

**2. Support/assistance focused on informing:**

Correlations with the statements 3, 4, 6, 9, 10, 11, 19, 24, 40 and 52. The highest possible sum of estimates – 50.

Table 2 **Support/assistance, focused on informing**

Survey participants/Estimate values	Does not match - 10-33	Hardly matches - 34-36	Matches - 37-39	Highly matches – 40-42	Fully matches – 43-45
<i>Lecturers' point of view</i>		34.71			
<i>Students' point of view</i>	18.28				

Given the point of view of lecturers involved in the survey, the average of estimates under this cluster is 34.71. A comparison of the average with highest possible sum of estimates (50) shows that it hardly matches the support/assistance that is focused on student informing.

Even lower average estimates are obtained from the analysis of students' point of view. The average of estimates of students involved in the survey is 18.28 out of the highest possible sum of estimates (50). These figures show that students' attitude toward their awareness of learning/studies and professional development, as well as goal analysis and specific observations on the appropriateness and usefulness of information sources, does not meet their expectations. A lecturer must make sure that his/her advice is appropriate subject to the situation and is justified by sufficient and adequate information about a particular student (Raynal et al., 2007). Should a lecturer ask a student to submit a comprehensive plan of learning/study activities, professional development goals and objectives, he/she must also provide specific comments

on information sources that are appropriate and useful for the student. It implies the following positive *behaviour of a lecturer* (Pineau, 2001): formulation of questions enabling to understand a student's learning/study situation; analysis of a student's prior experiences and planning appropriate learning/studies activities on this basis; formulation of right questions that require definite answers; giving direct comments on a student's current problems and proposals of various solutions to them; reformulation of the information provided to the student so as to attain accuracy of facts and clarity of reasoning; decision-making based on facts.

### **3. Support/assistance, focused on facilitation of learning/studies:**

Correlations with the statements 15, 22, 25, 34, 39, and 49. The highest possible sum of estimates – 30.

**Table 3 Support/assistance, focused on facilitation of learning/studies**

<b>Survey participants/Estimate values</b>	<b>Does not match – 6-18</b>	<b>Hardly matches - 19-20</b>	<b>Matches - 21-22</b>	<b>Highly matches – 23-24</b>	<b>Fully matches – 25-30</b>
<b>Lecturers' point of view</b>				23.00	
<b>Students' point of view</b>	10.71				

Given the point of view of lecturers involved in the survey, the average of estimates under this cluster is 23. A comparison of the average with highest possible sum of estimates (30) shows that it highly matches the support/assistance provided, that is focused on facilitation of learning/studies.

The average, however, is significantly lower in view of the students' attitude. Given the point of view of students involved in the survey, the average of estimates under this cluster is 10.71 out of the highest possible sum of estimates (30). Students, thus, believe that lecturers do not help them to analyse their interests, capabilities, skills, ideas, attitudes, beliefs, values, related to the learning/studies and professional environment. A lecturer should encourage a student to assess an actual performance, by adopting appropriate decisions in learning/studies, and help the student to analyse his/her interests, capabilities, skills, ideas, attitudes, beliefs, values in relation to the learning/studies and professional environment (Zuzevičiūtė et al., 2011). A teacher should demonstrate a positive behaviour in the area of facilitation of learning/studies as follows: formulation of questions and structuring hypotheses, so as to expand a student's vision in learning/study activities, hypotheses that would be based on the lecturer's experience and unbiased information; help in improving

understanding of various and numerous approaches so that to gain a more detailed insight into the decision-making analysis; assessment of a student's commitment to pursue his/her goals; analysis of reasons that help to describe a student's responsibilities and objectives; analysis of a student's learning/study activities, vocational interests, etc. (Jatkauskienė, 2013).

**4. Support/assistance, focused on regulation of relations:**

Correlations with the statements 8, 16, 18, 21, 27, 31, 33, 37, 43, 46, 48, and 51. The highest possible sum of estimates – 60.

Table 4 Support/assistance, focused on regulation of relations

Survey participants/Estimate values	Does not match – 12-39	Hardly matches - 40-43	Matches - 44-46	Highly matches – 47-50	Fully matches – 51-60
<i>Lecturers' point of view</i>			44.57		
<i>Students' point of view</i>	22.00				

Given the point of view of lecturers involved in the survey, the average of estimates under this cluster is 44.57. A comparison of the average with highest possible sum of estimates (60) shows that it matches the support/assistance provided is focused on regulation of relations. Analysis of the average of students' estimates shows lower results. Given the point of view of students involved in the survey, the average of estimates under this cluster is 22 out of the highest possible sum of estimates (60). This shows that, from the students' point of view, lecturers' support/assistance, focused on regulation of relations, does not meet their expectations. A lecturer should help a student to realise his/her unproductive and ineffective performance strategy and behaviour, on this basis, to suggest positive methods, ways to change learning/study capabilities. A lecturer has to show respect when criticising a student's interpretation or apologies in relation to the latter's refusal to take an appropriate action or decision in terms of learning/studies improvement. Therefore, a lecturer's support/assistance, focused on the regulation of relations, should be demonstrated as follows (Quintin, 2007): appreciation of a student's willingness to accept different points of view; openly expressing his/her concerns about the potential impact of constructive criticism on support/assistance relationships; regulation of relations, which will help and enable a student to question conflicts in learning/study objectives, commitment and performance in pursuance of learning/study objectives; choosing the most effective performance strategy and behaviour to induce a student for major changes; where appropriate, providing

direct and critical feedback so as to improve a student's understanding; where a student questions the appropriateness of activities, formulating comments, thereby, suggesting opportunities for his/her learning/study growth.

**5. Support/assistance, focused on modelling of learning/study activities:**

Correlations with the statements 2, 28, 29, 32, 26, and 41. The highest possible sum of estimates – 30.

Table 5 Support/assistance, focused on modelling of learning/study activities

Survey participants/Estimate values	Does not match – 6-18	Hardly matches - 19-20	Matches - 21-22	Highly matches – 23-24	Fully matches – 25-30
<i>Lecturers' point of view</i>				23.00	
<i>Students' point of view</i>	10.71				

As we can see in the table above, the average of estimates of lecturers involved in this study under this cluster is 23. A comparison of the average with highest possible sum of estimates (30) shows that this estimate matches the support /assistance provided that is focused on modelling of learning/study activities.

Again, analysis of students' responses shows a lower average of estimates. The average of estimates of students involved in this study under this cluster is 12 out of the highest possible sum of estimates (30). This shows that, from the students' point of view, lecturers' support/assistance, focused on modelling of learning/study activities, does not meet their expectations. A lecturer should motivate students to take right decisions, a risk, thereby, to confront difficulties in implementation of learning/study or career objectives. Lecturers might openly share their experiences or emotions, become a “model” for a student, thus, enriching mutual relationships (Raynal et al., 2007).

In this case, a lecturer's positive behaviour might be defined as follows: a lecturer expresses his/her own opinion, feelings, emotions, negative experiences so as to stimulate student learning, positive aspects of learning/studies, a potential positive impact of it on careers, personal development; where appropriate, a lecturer gives examples of his/her own experiences and life; shows confidence in a student's ability to make the right decisions in pursuance of learning/study goals (Raynal et al., 2007).

**6. Support/assistance, focused on vision of a student's learning/studies:**

Correlations with the statements 14, 17, 20, 26, 30, 35, 38, 45, 50, 54, and 55. The highest possible sum of estimates – 55.

**Table 6 Support/assistance, focused on the vision of learning/studies**

<b>Survey participants/Estimate values</b>	<b>Does not match – 11-37</b>	<b>Hardly matches - 38-41</b>	<b>Matches 42-44</b>	<b>Highly matches – 45-47</b>	<b>Fully matches – 48-55</b>
<b>Lecturers’ point of view</b>		38.14			
<b>Students’ point of view</b>	18.14				

Given the point of view of lecturers involved in the survey, the average of estimates under this cluster is 38.14. A comparison of the average with highest possible sum of estimates (55) shows that it hardly matches the support/assistance which is focused on vision of a student’s learning/studies. Even lower average estimates are obtained from the analysis of students' point of view. The average of estimates of students involved in this study under this cluster is 18.14 out of the highest possible sum of estimates (55). Students, thus, believe that lecturers’ support/assistance, focused on the vision of a student’s learning/studies, does not meet their needs. A lecturer should encourage a student to take his/her own initiative in overcoming difficult stages of learning/studies, in shifting to the academic environment, induce a student’s critical thinking about future professional careers, and assist him/her in studying various approaches of personal and professional potential development.

A lecturer’s positive behaviour should be manifested as follows (Reffay et al., 2005): commenting that makes a student think of future careers, learning/studies; raising questions for establishing control over a student’s negative and positive competencies and changes by reviewing a range of personal available sources, opportunities; commenting on a student's decision-making, problem-solving strategy; showing confidence in decisions thoroughly considered and made by a student; observing a student's competencies to help him/her foresee his/her professional future; encouraging a student to develop existing skills, abilities, talents, to pursue his/her dreams.

### **Findings**

1. Having conducted an analysis of theoretical insights and basing on results of the empirical research, we can assert that support and assistance provided to learners is not a one-time tool but rather a creative area of activity that helps to change and develop new attitudes and behaviour, invites to review mental maps, perception, cognition, conception, and vision of the world.

2. The study has found that the attitude of lecturers and students toward the support/assistance provided at a university or other institution of higher education often does not match.
3. The study has revealed that a lecturer's support/assistance focused on *development of interpersonal relationships*, according to lecturers and students, is to be improved, since the average of lecturers' estimates is 36.28, students – 21.85 out of 50 (the highest possible sum of estimates).
4. A lecturer's support/assistance focused on *informing* is inadequate, as analysis of the research data shows that the average of lecturers' estimates is 34.71, students' – 18.28 out of 50 (the highest possible sum of estimates).
5. A lecturer's support/assistance, focused on *facilitation of learning/studies*, is basically in line with the requirements for lecturers in providing support/assistance, however, students' estimates – 10.71 out of 30 (the highest possible sum of estimates) – radically contrast the results of the research.
6. A lecturer's support/assistance focused on the *regulation of relations* just partially meets the criteria as the average of lecturers' estimates is 44.57 out of 60 (the highest possible sum of estimates). However, getting deeper into students' estimates (22.00), we may see the very different attitude whereby the students' expectations are not met by lecturers' support/assistance activities.
7. A lecturer's support/assistance focused on the *modelling of learning/study activities and behaviour* highly meets the set criteria as the average of lecturers' estimates is 23.00. However the one of students' estimates – 10.71 out of 30 (the highest possible sum of estimates) – shows that support/assistance focused on the modelling of learning/study activities and behaviour does not meet students' needs.
8. A lecturer's support/assistance focused on the *vision of a student's activities* should be improved as well, for the reason that the average of lecturers' estimates is 38.14, students' – 18.14 out of 55 (the highest possible sum of estimates). The significant difference in lecturers' and students' opinions shows that the field provided for support/assistance is not completely filled by lecturers' appropriate behaviour.

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# PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY OF HIGHER EDUCATION TEACHERS IN SAMPLES OF RIGA AND SMOLENSK

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**Abstract.** *In most studies on professional identity (PI) of teachers, the subject of research is the PI of a school teacher; far less attention is paid to teachers working at higher education institutions (HEI). The aim of this article is to study the model of HEI teachers' professional identity by a general comparative analysis of the indicators of its structural components in samples of Riga and Smolensk. The structural components of the proposed model are philosophy of the profession, professional knowledge, professional roles, professional attitude to work, cooperation with colleagues, professional engagement behaviors. To test the relevance of the model, a questionnaire was created with 60 items, and a survey of university teachers was carried out. In total, 198 teachers were surveyed in Riga and Smolensk. The obtained results show the relevance of the proposed model of teachers' PI and the technique developed to study it. All the components of the model have high average scores and correlate well with each other. The lack of statistically significant differences in both survey samples points out that the PIs of teachers have much in common, regardless of the country of residence and features of the national educational systems. The elaborated technique can be applied as the tool of evaluation/self-evaluation of HEI teachers' PI to improve the educational process.*

**Keywords:** *professional identity (PI), teacher of higher education institution, the model of the of PI, structural components of the model of PI.*

## Introduction

Teacher is a key figure in the implementation of educational reforms. Pedagogical research of the personality of teacher, her/his priority values, self-evaluation, and the way how she/he conceptualizes the profession at an individual level can lead to the most appropriate strategies to manage the educational reforms successfully (Radulescu, 2013). There is "... a simple reason to look at the Self of the teacher..., for as long as we don't know ourselves deeply, we are disconnected from our students, colleagues, the profession and the subject matter we teach" (Bukor, 2011: 126).

The study of the professional identity (PI) of a teacher began relatively recently, in the nineties of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. In most studies on this theme, the subject of research is the PI of a school teacher; far less attention was paid to college and university teachers.

The PI of a teacher of higher education institution (HEI) has become one of the main themes of the international research project “Professional identity of educators”, carried out by a group of scientists of the Riga Teacher Training and Education Management Academy (Latvia) and Smolensk State University (Russia) including the authors of this paper (2014 – 2016, coordinated by A. Špona and N. P. Senchenkov). In the realization of the project a rich empirical material was obtained and a number of analytical articles were published (Шпона et al., 2015; Špona, 2016; Bogdanova, 2016; Silchenkova, 2016; Сильченкова & Ермолаева, 2016).

The aim of this article is to study the model of HEI teachers’ professional identity by a general comparative analysis of the indicators of its structural components in samples of Riga and Smolensk. The model of contents of HEI teachers’ PI was created in the course of the implementation of the above-mentioned project on the basis of analysis and generalization of scientific literature (Emerson, 2010; Beijaard et al., 2004; Healey & Hays, 2011; Woo, 2013). Six main interacting structural components of the PI were identified (see Fig. 1):



Figure 1 The structural components of the HEI teachers’ PI (Шпона et al., 2015)

1. *Philosophy of the profession* – basic professional values and patterns: the belief in the necessity and importance of the work, the goals of professional work, professional ethics.
2. *Professional knowledge* (on the subject taught, in pedagogy, psychology, research, knowledge of foreign languages at the professional level) and *skills* (the ability to apply this knowledge).
3. Implementation of *professional roles* (teacher, curator, researcher, head of the structural unit, etc.).
4. *Professional attitude* to work: engagement and motivation in work, professional honesty and conscientiousness, high demands on themselves, respect for students.
5. *Cooperation with colleagues* in daily work, professional organizations, research projects, publications, etc.
6. *Professional engagement behaviors* – the behavior that is not connected with the implementation of direct professional duties, but corresponds to the philosophy of the profession (adoption of the mission of education, participation in the formulation and solution of social problems containing pedagogical aspects, unselfish professional help to those who need it, etc.) (Шпона et al., 2015).

*Methods and research base.* The methodological base of research has been developed using the Professional Identity Scale in Counseling by H. Woo, which was proposed for the profession of psychologist-counselor (Woo, 2013). This technique has been modified to investigate the contents of higher education teachers' professional identity. As a result, a questionnaire was created with 60 items, and a survey of university teachers was carried out. In total, 198 teachers were surveyed in Riga and Smolensk.

Testing was anonymous. 118 teachers of Riga Teacher Training and Education Management Academy, Latvian Academy of Sport Education, Latvian Academy of Music, Riga Technical University were surveyed in Latvia. In Russia, 80 representatives of the four leading higher education institutions of Smolensk were surveyed: Smolensk State University, Smolensk State Medical University, Smolensk State Agricultural Academy, Smolensk Academy of Physical Culture, Sports and Tourism.

The questionnaire contained 6 blocks, corresponding to 6 main components of the model of the higher education teacher identity. Every block consisted of 10 statements, which can be evaluated by the appropriate rating: from the strong disagreement (1 point) to the complete agreement (6 points).

The reliability of the questionnaire was tested by the method of Cronbach's alpha; the obtained indicator 0.84 suffices to recognize it as reliable.

Using the coefficient of Mann-Whitney, statistically significant differences were identified. Within each block of statements and between the blocks,

Spearman's rank correlations coefficient were defined by means of *Statistica* software. The cases of significant correlation have been analyzed.

## Results

The distribution of participants from Riga and Smolensk samples by gender, age, work experience and presence/absence of a scientific degree are presented in Table 1. In both countries, these data reflect approximately the corresponding distribution of teaching staff in the participating HEI taken together.

Table 1 **Characteristics of Riga and Smolensk samples**

	F/M (%)	Age				Work experience				Sc. degree
		Mean	Up to 35 (%)	36–55 (%)	56 and above (%)	Mean	Up to 5 (%)	6-15 (%)	16 and above (%)	Dr. or candidate / Mg. (%)
Riga	76,3/23,7	52,8	8,5	49,2	42,4	20,0	7,6	28,0	64,4	57,6 /42,4
Smo	76,4/23,6	42,3	26,3	57,5	16,3	14,8	20,0	47,5	32,5	80 / 20

The ratio of women/men is about the same: 76,3/23,7 in Riga and 76,4/23,6 in Smolensk. This ratio indicates that in both countries the profession of university teacher, as well as school teacher, is a predominantly female. However, in these two samples significant differences were detected in distribution by age, work experience and the presence/absence of a scientific degree (Fig. 2). The average age of Smolensk teachers is 11 years less than that of Riga teachers; at the same time their average work experience is only 5 years less than that of teachers in Riga. 64,4 % of Latvian teachers have work experience more than 15 years (in Smolensk this indicator is 32,5 %). In addition, proportion of teachers with a degree in Smolensk (80,00 %) is essentially higher than in Riga (56,7 %). These data suggest the continuity of generations in Smolensk universities teaching staff; they also indicate that younger Smolensk HEI teachers are more active in research activities, successfully defend dissertations and obtain scientific degrees. These differences demonstrate the alarming situation in Riga in the HEI teaching staff structure.

In all the components of PI mean rates, dispersion, standard deviation, statistical mode, and coefficient of variation (CoV) were calculated for both samples of respondents (CoV up to 33 % is considered to be reliable and accurate to draw conclusions). The data are shown in Table 2. The numbers are separated by a slash: **the first, in bold** is an indicator for Riga; *the second in italics* refers to the Smolensk teachers.

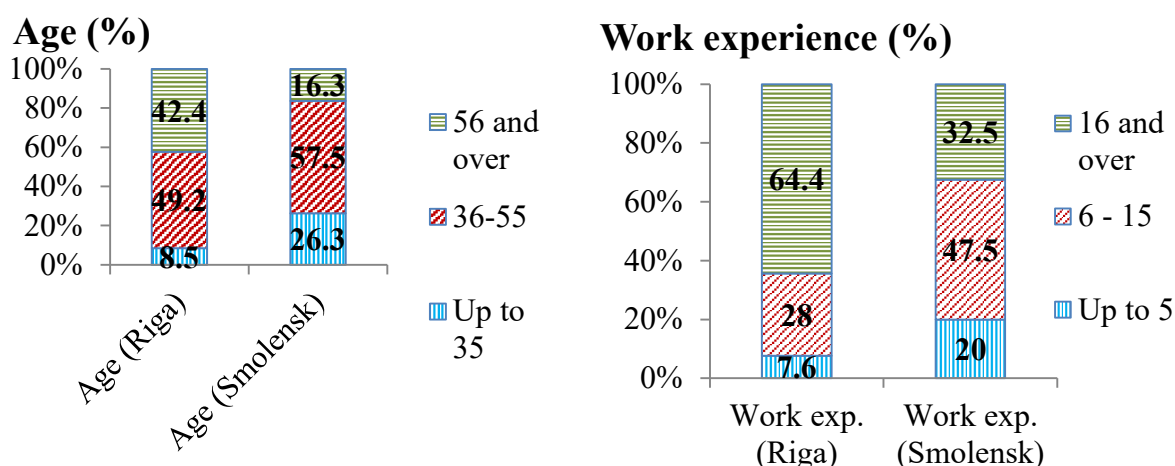


Figure 2 Distribution of participants from Riga and Smolensk samples by age and work experience

Table 2 Statistical indicators of the structural components of PI of HEI teachers (Riga /Smolensk)

Structural components	Mean values	Dispersion	Standard deviation	Coefficients of variation (%)	Mode
1. Philosophy of the profession	5,19 / 5,12	0,97 / 0,99	0,99 / 1,00	19,02 / 19,46	6 / 6
2. Professional knowledge	4,82 / 4,71	1,15 / 1,49	1,07 / 1,22	22,20 / 25,91	5 / 5
3. Professional roles	4,93 / 4,87	1,34 / 1,30	1,16 / 1,14	23,46 / 23,45	6 / 5
4. Professional attitude to work	4,88 / 4,94	1,27 / 1,03	1,13 / 1,05	23,08 / 21,19	5 / 5
5. Cooperation with colleagues	4,49 / 4,07	1,92 / 2,51	1,39 / 1,58	30,93 / 38,92	5 / 5
6. Professional Engagement Behaviors	4,36 / 4,00	2,35 / 2,52	1,53 / 1,59	35,17 / 39,65	6 / 5

The similarity of the results for both samples indicates to the relevance of the proposed model of contents of HEI teachers' PI. High rates of all the 6 components also confirm this (all modes are 5 or 6, which corresponds to "completely agree").

The results show that on the whole the answers of the Russians and Latvians in the questionnaire are fairly well agreed, despite the fact that during last 25 years the two public educational systems developed independently. According to the Mann-Whitney coefficient, the differences between the two samples of respondents are not statistically significant either for the PI taken as coherent whole, or for each component separately. Even for the components "Cooperation

with colleagues” and “Professional engagement behaviors”, where the coefficients of variation in both cities are too high to be reliable, no statistically significant differences between the samples were observed (Table 3).

Table 3 Statistical differences between the variables in Riga and Smolensk samples

Mann-Whitney U-test for variable <i>PI (Smolensk)</i> . The criteria shown are significant for $p < ,05000$										
	Rank Sum 1	Rank Sum 2	U	Z	p-level	Z	p-level	Valid N 1	Valid N 2	
<i>PI (Riga)</i>			0,00	0,00	1,00	0,00	1,00	0	0	
Mann-Whitney U-test for variable <i>Cooperation with colleagues (Smolensk)</i> . The criteria shown are significant for $p < ,05000$										
	Rank Sum 1	Rank Sum 2	U	Z	p-level	Z	p-level	Valid N 1	Valid N 2	2*1 sided exact p
<i>Cooperation with colleagues (Riga)</i>	19,00	9,00	4,00	-0,38	0,69	-0,39	0,69	5	2	0,86
Mann-Whitney U-test for variable <i>Professional engagement behaviors (Smolensk)</i> . The criteria shown are significant for $p < ,05000$										
<i>Professional engagement behaviors (Riga)</i>	Rank Sum 1	Rank Sum 2	U	Z	p-level	Z	p-level	Valid N 1	Valid N 2	
			0,00	0,00	1,00	0,00	1,00	1	2	

High coefficients of variation for these two components indicate that the attitude and behavior of teachers in these professional areas are far more personalized compared to other components. It is noteworthy that this fact does not depend on nationality and the characteristics of national educational space. Cooperation with colleagues is recognized by almost everyone as necessary and useful for the professional (“To improve my qualification I attend professional training sessions and participate in professional associations”, “Participation in research projects helps me to extend my professional competence”, “Every year I participate actively in conferences and seminars”). Nevertheless, a particularly individual style of communication and the situation in the working collective have great influence on this cooperation (the coefficients of variation of answers in the items “In discussions with colleagues, the most important for me is to defend my point of view”, “For my professional development I regularly consult with colleagues and try to find out their opinions on my work” are more than 33 % in both samples). At the same time the data also indicate to certain differences between some trends in the analyzed professional communities of the two countries. Latvians are more experienced in international cooperation than their

Russian colleagues: in Riga, the item “I have experience of academic and research work at foreign universities” has mode 5 and coefficient of variation 30,77 %, while Smolensk answers have mode 1 (“strongly disagree”) and exclusively high coefficient of variation 81,97 %. “The experience of communication with foreign colleagues in foreign languages” obtained mode 5 and CoV 30.77 % in Riga, mode 1 and CoV 61.43 % in Smolensk. On the other hand, the participants of the Smolensk sample on the whole more actively publish scientific and methodical papers (CV 24.43 %), while the publishing activity of the teachers from Riga is to a greater extent an individual parameter (CoV 36.08).

High general variability of responses in the component “Professional engagement behaviors” (in Riga CoV is 35.17 %, in Smolensk 39.65 %) points out that in both countries there are socially active teachers, and there are more passive. On the whole, however, teachers are characterized by the belief that “the teaching profession is unique and valuable for the development of society” (mode 6 and CoV 26.94 % in the total sample). The high degree of consensus and low variability are also fixed in the statements about mission of education, which is necessary to carry out for professional (mode 5 – 6): “I believe that the teacher's duty – to enhance the culture of behavior in the social environment”, “If necessary, I will gladly consult pupils, students and other people who may need my professional help”.

Using correlation analysis, the interdependencies between the structural components and their influences on the general PI were determined. Spearman's rank correlations for each component are shown in the Table 4. The components' correlations with the general PI are underlined.

Table 4 Spearman's rank correlations of components with general PI and with other components (Riga / Smolensk)

	PI	Comp. No. 1	Comp. No. 2	Comp. No. 3	Comp. No. 4	Comp. No. 5	Comp. No.6
PI	1,00	<u>0,69</u> / 0,49	<u>0,69</u> / 0,62	<u>0,80</u> / 0,75	<u>0,75</u> / 0,78	<u>0,84</u> / 0,76	<u>0,88</u> / 0,72
Comp. No. 1	<u>0,69</u> / 0,49	1,00	<u>1,00</u> / 0,15	<u>0,62</u> / 0,34	<u>0,58</u> / 0,45	<u>0,43</u> / 0,33	<u>0,55</u> / 0,23
Comp. No. 2	<u>0,69</u> / 0,62	<u>1,00</u> / 0,15	1,00	<u>0,62</u> / 0,57	<u>0,58</u> / 0,40	<u>0,43</u> / 0,50	<u>0,55</u> / 0,28
Comp. No. 3	<u>0,80</u> / 0,75	<u>0,62</u> / 0,34	<u>0,62</u> / 0,57	1,00	<u>0,70</u> / 0,54	<u>0,57</u> / 0,48	<u>0,59</u> / 0,45
Comp. No. 4	<u>0,75</u> / 0,78	<u>0,58</u> / 0,45	<u>0,58</u> / 0,40	<u>0,70</u> / 0,54	1,00	<u>0,52</u> / 0,50	<u>0,68</u> / 0,47
Comp. No. 5	<u>0,84</u> / 0,76	<u>0,43</u> / 0,33	<u>0,43</u> / 0,50	<u>0,57</u> / 0,48	<u>0,52</u> / 0,50	1,00	<u>0,71</u> / 0,43
Comp. No. 6	<u>0,88</u> / 0,72	<u>0,55</u> / 0,23	<u>0,55</u> / 0,28	<u>0,59</u> / 0,47	<u>0,68</u> / 0,47	<u>0,71</u> / 0,43	1,00

Statistically significant correlations are over 0,3. All the 6 components have moderately strong (over 0,5 and up to 0,7) and strong (over 0,7) correlations with the PI and correlate well with each other. This also indicates to the relevance of the proposed model and the technique developed for studying it. The correlations between the components and the general PI are somewhat stronger in Riga than in Smolensk; the same is true for the interdependencies between the components (15 statistically significant correlations vs. 12, among them moderately strong correlations are 13 vs. 4).

The difference between the numbers of statistically significant correlations in two samples arose due to the following three components: "Philosophy of the profession", "Professional knowledge", "Professional Engagement Behaviors". Unlike the situation in Riga, where the respondents' answers in all components are closely linked with each other, Smolensk teachers' ideas about the philosophy of the profession do not correlate with professional knowledge and professional engagement behaviours. In addition, the "Professional knowledge" does not correlate with the "Professional engagement behaviours". On the whole, for Smolensk teachers the component "Philosophy of the profession" appears the most separated from all other components. Apart from the lack of correlations, it showed very weak interdependencies with the components "Professional roles" (0,34) and "Cooperation with colleagues" (0,33). This component, which in Smolensk sample has the highest mean rate (5.12) with the minimum dispersion (0.99) and the CoV (19.46 %), proved to be, in essence, unsubstantiated. Thus, the respondents most consistently and highly appreciated the value of such assertions as "The teacher should promote a holistic physical, mental and social development of student's personality", "For the teacher, the professional value is the student's intellectual growth in the learning process", "Curriculum is a means for the development of student's personality", "In the pedagogical process, it is important to recognize individual student' achievements", "Effective teaching process is based on equitable cooperation of teacher and student," etc. However, in Smolensk these statements appeared the most separated from living practice and declarative. They did not show any relation with the professional knowledge of teacher or her/his perception of her/his professional mission in the social environment. The revealed negative trend requires further study.

By Spearman rank correlation coefficients, in the total sample of respondents statistically significant interdependencies between the questions in all the components of the contents of HEI teachers' PI have been identified. In all components, except component 4, there appeared to be 4 – 6 moderately strong correlations between questions. Though, 12 such correlations were found in component 4 ("Professional attitude to work"), which implies that the respondents' evaluations of the statements proposed in this block influenced each other stronger than in all other blocs. The core of "professional attitude to work"



consists of two statements: “I think I have good cooperation with students” (5 moderately strong correlations plus 3 statistically significant weak correlations) and “I like to explain simply even complicated things” (5 moderately strong correlations). Thus, according to respondents, in the first place the professionalism of the teacher of HEI is manifested in teaching in cooperation with the students, as well as in the ability to make complicated things simple. It should be noted here that the Smolensk teachers attach more importance to the cooperation with students, subject-subject relationship with them (mean rates of this item in Smolensk and Riga are 5,04 and 4,97 respectively, CoV – 16,24 %/19,33 %), while the respondents from Riga higher appreciate the lecturer’s art (mean values are 5,13 in Riga and 4,93 in Smolensk, CoV 17,21 % / 23,25 %).

Only two statements of the component “Professional attitude to work” do not correlate with the others: “I understand that in my profession one often has to work overtime”, and “My personal life is in balance with my work”. Both samples of respondents showed high agreement with these statements (average scores in Riga and Smolensk are 4.76 and 5.15 respectively for the first statement, 4.35 and 4,39 for the second; CoV in all the cases are in the zone of reliability for the analysis). Nevertheless, the lack of correlations with other items of this block indicates that according to respondents, these statements are not essential features of professionalism. The coherence of private life and the profession is desirable, but it is not a key feature of professionalism, as well as readiness for working overtime is not a guarantee of professionalism or essential factor of professional skills.

## Conclusions

- The obtained results show the relevance of the proposed model of the contents of HEI teachers’ PI and the technique developed to study it. The elaborated technique can be applied as the tool of evaluation/self-evaluation of HEI teachers’ PI to improve the educational process.
- All the proposed components of the model (“Philosophy of the profession”, “Professional knowledge”, “Professional roles”, “Professional attitude to work”, “Cooperation with colleagues”, and “Professional engagement behaviours”) have high average scores and correlate well with each other. All components have a statistically significant impact on the general PI.
- The lack of statistically significant differences in both survey samples points out that the PIs of teachers have much in common, regardless of the country of residence and features of the national educational systems. This fact is the additional significant indicator of the reliability of the model of teachers’ PI.

- Having relatively high mean values, the components “Cooperation with colleagues” and “Professional engagement behaviours” depend on individual and situational factors to a greater extent than other components (the general CoV for the component “Cooperation” is 30,93 % in Riga and more than 33 % in Smolensk, CoV for “Professional engagement behaviours” is more than 33 % in both countries).
- In both samples, the highest number of cross-correlations within one component has been found in the component “Professional attitude to work”. The maximum number of correlations with other questions was found in two items: the statement about the subject-subject relationship with a student (more supported in Smolensk) and the methodical approach “to explain simply complicated things” (more strongly accented by respondents from Riga).
- Compared with Smolensk, the age structure of HEI teachers’ staff in Riga is less balanced, aged teachers prevail. In both countries the profession of university teacher is a predominantly female.
- For Smolensk teachers the component “Philosophy of the profession” is largely declarative and detached from teaching.
- Foreign languages and cooperation with foreign partners is the weak position in the PI of the Smolensk teachers; insufficient publication activity (especially that of young teachers) is the problem area in the PI of their colleagues in Riga.

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## CONTENT BASED INSTRUCTION IN TEACHING TOURISM AND ECONOMICS COURSES

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***Abstract.** Recent years in higher education system of Uzbekistan witnessed deep reforms related with increasing the quality of education, better employment of graduates, improvement of foreign languages competences and strengthening the links in the knowledge triangle. When some universities started offering specialization courses in English or other languages, problem of matching objectives of the courses with the aim of improving English language competence came to agenda. The article depicts the situation at newly created Faculty of Tourism at Bukhara State University and the use of Content-Based Instruction in finding the solution. The new faculty consists of BA and MA degrees in fields related with Tourism, Hospitality, Economics, Fine Arts etc.*

***Keywords:** content-based instruction, foreign languages, teaching methodologies.*

### Introduction

Bukhara State University (BSU), being one of the oldest and biggest universities in Uzbekistan, was founded in 1930 as a higher educational institution aimed at preparation of teaching staff for the schools of the region. Now composed of 8 faculties with nearly 500 academic staff and 6400 students, BSU is among the top universities in the Central Asia with regards to number of European Union's TEMPUS, Erasmus Mundus and Erasmus+ projects, aimed at the development of education sphere, implementing quality assurance initiatives, higher education management etc. Using IT in university management, improvement of foreign language knowledge and internationalization are among the main strategic tasks of the university.

In parallel with governmental reforms in internationalization of the higher education, teaching of 10 courses in English started from 2013-2014 academic year, while there were individual cases before. Now the number of courses offered in English is constantly growing.

With the start of commencing the specialization courses in English, mostly at the Department of Tourism, there was a search for efficient methods in combining field-related competences with the English language competences.

Later, with the creation of separate faculty of Tourism that covered some other degree fields in its structure, led to search for need for methods that would be useful also in other field. Content-Based Instruction (CBI) could serve as a starting point, so it was used in some courses. In our article, we tried to analyze the situation at the Faculty of Tourism, with specific attention to the educational objectives and results.

### **Background of the topic**

With the start of offering specialization courses in English, academic staff of Department of Tourism faced some issues related with combining English competences with specific course aims. There were 4 ways of conducting courses in English.

**1. Teaching the course entirely in English.** The issues of concern were: a) are the students ready for this? b) are the teachers ready for this?

Students of the courses had taken English test as one of the parts of entrance examinations and then continued to English courses, but their competence was more grammar centered, rather than practical use of the language. Although staffs responsible for the selected courses possess well enough English competence, target groups of students would definitely have problems in taking whole courses in English. Thus aim of the course was difficult or almost impossible to reach.

**2. Teaching the course in simplified way.** Simple English could be used for the conduction of the lectures, but the problem was how to cover the study plans of the courses, how to achieve the educational objectives and the expected results.

**3. Teaching some parts of the course in English, some parts in Uzbek.** This method may lead to a problem of assuring continuity of the experiment.

**4. Teaching in native language and explaining important terms in English** would enrich vocabulary knowledge, but not the teaching content and competence of students.

A need for the most effective way of teaching resulted in selection of Content-Based Instruction as the most appropriate methodology.

### **Rationale for Content-Based Instruction (CBI)**

Brinton, Snow and Wesche (2003) have defined some reliable rationale for CBI. Firstly, CBI removes the arbitrary distinction between language and content. The second, it reflects the interests and the needs of the learners. Third, it takes into account the eventual uses of the learners will to make use of the foreign language. It exposes the learners to authentic materials and tasks. Fourth, it offers optimal conditions for second language acquisition by exposing learners to meaningful, cognitively demanding language. Last but not the least, and the most

important in conducting specialization courses, it provides pedagogical accommodation to learner proficiency levels and skills.

Savichuk (2010) underlines that CBI has become increasingly popular as a means of developing linguistic ability in a great variety of educational contexts. The philosophy of this methodological paradigm aims at encouraging students to learn a new language by using it from the first class as a real means of communication.

Using content-based instruction not only in language teaching, but also reversely, in teaching different courses in foreign language focuses on what is being taught through the language. Language becomes the medium through which something new is learned. Students learn the foreign language while using it to learn new content in Tourism, Economics etc. The language being learned and used becomes taught within the context of the content. The theory behind CBI is that when students are engaged with more content, it will promote their motivation. Students will be able to use more advanced thinking skills when learning new information. This approach is very student-centered as it depends entirely on the students' ability to use the language.

Grabe and Stoller (1997) define CBI as a tool to keep students motivated and interested. Motivation and interest are crucial in supporting student success with challenging, informative activities that support success and which help the student learn complex skills. Krapp, Hidi and Renninger (1992) state that when students are motivated and interested in the material they are learning, they make greater connections between topics, elaborations with learning material and can recall information better.

In learner-centered groups students acquire skills and knowledge through doing and they are actively involved in the learning process. Teacher is not the only source of the information. Lee and Van Patten (1995) underline that students assume active, social roles in the classroom that involve interactive learning, negotiation, information gathering and the co-construction of meaning.

### **The Role of Teaching Staff in Using CBI**

According to Stryker and Leaver (1993), teachers play the following role during CBI lessons:

1. They must be knowledgeable in the subject matter and able to elicit that knowledge from their learners.
2. Teachers are responsible for selecting and adapting authentic materials for use in class.
3. Teachers must create truly learner-centred classroom.
4. Teachers must keep context and comprehensibility foremost in their planning and presentation.

5. Teachers must contextualize their lessons by using content as their point of departure.

Teachers should clearly define if their courses will be more language-driven or content-driven. In teaching Tourism and Economics courses, they tend to and should be more content-driven.

Materials used in CBI lessons are very important. Stryker and Leaver (1993) state the characteristics of CBI material as follows:

1. Material must be authentic – like the ones used in native language instructions.
2. Examples must be drawn from realia and real life experience and contemporary issues.

### **Content integration in teaching Tourism and Economics Courses**

In teaching courses in the field of Tourism and Economics in English, there are many things that can be considered as “content”. The most important thing is that what you are teaching or discussing in English must be the course-related, not the language-learning related. Discussions about current news, case-studies, statistical data, indicators all valid “content” options.

There is a need for integration of the content and the foreign language. Stoller (2002) states 8 practices that allow for natural content integration:

1. Extended input, meaningful output, and feedback on language and grasp of content.
2. Information gathering, processing, and reporting.
3. Integrated skills (using reading, writing, speaking and listening in natural classroom activities).
4. Task-based activities and project work, enhanced by cooperative learning principles.
5. Strategy training (to produce more metacognitively aware strategic learners).
6. Visual support (ie. Images, graphic organizers, language ladders etc.).
7. Contextualized grammar instruction.
8. Culminating synthesis activities (knowledge is displayed in writing and orally).

Finkenstein and others (2010) propose the following logic model in content-based economic instruction.

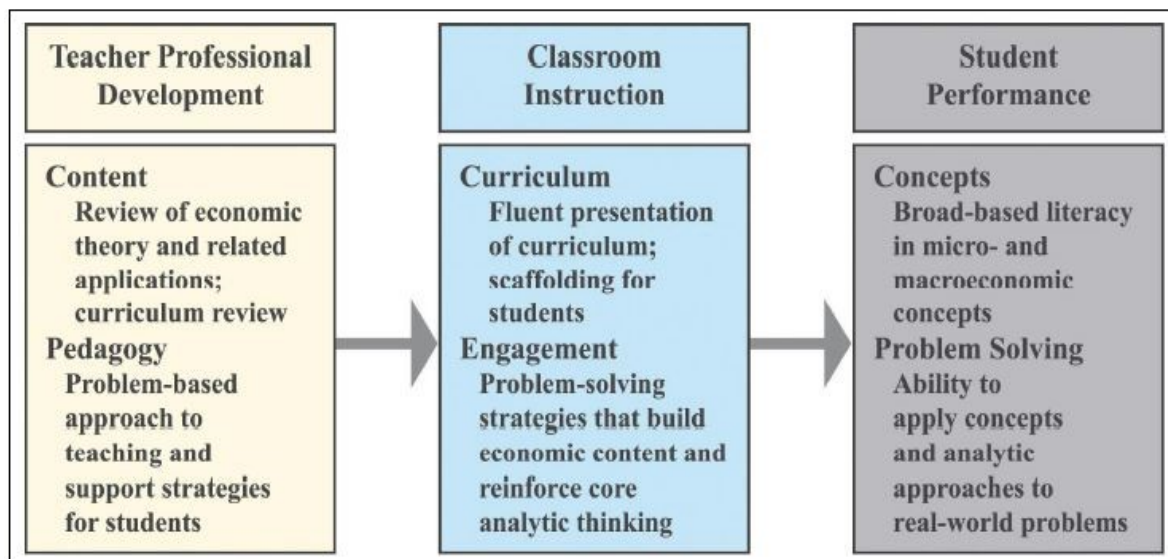


Figure 1 Logic model in content-based economic instruction

### CBI in Faculty of Tourism, BSU

After commencement of some courses in English, like World Economy and International Economic Relations, Tourism Marketing, Economics of Tourism, CBI became a very efficient tool for the teaching staff.

Different methods were used in for instance in the course of World Economy and International Economic Relations, mostly in seminar classes:

1. Students are divided into 3 groups, 6-7 persons in each. 3 ideas for discussion are distributed. For example:
  - Introducing a single currency will lead to economic benefits
  - Protectionism is good for the developing economies
  - Economic crises stimulate innovations.

After 15 minutes, one student per group has to make a speech in English, showing 5 arguments at least, that defend the idea of the discussion. Points are given according to the presentation manners, reliability of arguments, theoretical knowledge, awareness of the current economic situation etc.

2. Latest data on commodities oil, gold, silver, etc. are shown to students, by entering Internet at seminars time. Data is used from [www.nasdaq.com](http://www.nasdaq.com), [www.bloomberg.org](http://www.bloomberg.org), [www.ereport.ru](http://www.ereport.ru), [www.chartsbin.com](http://www.chartsbin.com), etc.

Students are asked to make their predictions, using the information they have about current trends in the world economy. After 2 weeks, new data is derived, compared with the old one, students are asked to explain the reasons of changes.



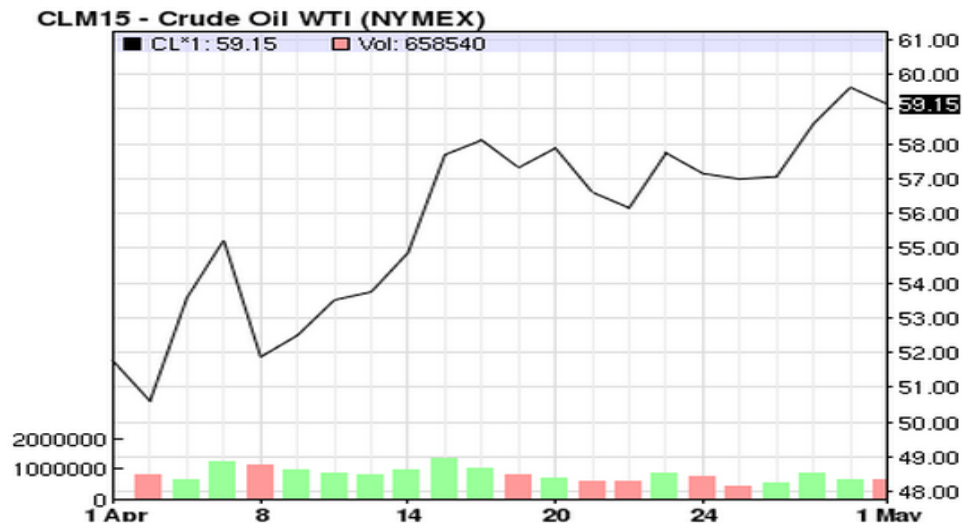


Figure 2 An example of “content” in economic courses

3. Students are divided into 2-4 groups. Latest data on market shares or marketing strategies or new products of 2-4 companies are found from the web. In 2 weeks time, groups will prepare information about activities of one company each and will present their view of the situation, characteristics of company products, measures they would implement to increase the share.

Hottest discussions, as predicted, were between Android – iOS groups, Beeline-Ucell-UMS groups (biggest mobile providers in Uzbekistan), Coca Cola – Pepsi groups, Samsung – Apple groups.

Analyzes in the form of post-course questionnaires and grades at exams showed that using content-based methods in teaching “World Economy and International Economic Relations” course (partly in English, mostly seminars) led to:

- Better coverage of course contents
- Improved English skills
- Improved presentation skills
- Increased motivation of students
- Introduction to latest data
- Improved critical thinking
- Lack of sufficient English could be balanced by active involvement in group works.

A problem to solve appeared in the form of classical issue - differences between “leaders” and “sleeping” students.

## Perspectives of CBI

Together with degree programs in Tourism, Hotel Management, Economics, the Faculty of Tourism also has degree programs in Fine Arts and Crafts. Using CBI in teaching some specialization courses of these programs in English is also predicted to bring benefits.

Degree programs envisage courses in drawing, painting, sculpture, and various crafts-related disciplines (ceramics, metal, etc.). The growth in the number of international tourists arriving to Uzbekistan has created a need for better foreign language knowledge in all fields related with tourism. There is an increasing demand from students of Fine Arts and Crafts programs for English based courses, where CBI can be a very efficient and valuable methodology.

## Conclusions

In our work we made a short overview of rationale and experiment of using CBI in Tourism and Economics courses taught at the Faculty of Tourism, Bukhara State University. In our experience, analysis of the process underlines the most attractive benefits of CBI as following:

1. CBI totally supports both learner and the teacher in delivering the content in the most real-life context;
2. CBI allows learners to proceed forward by acquiring specialized, as well as foreign language competences;
3. Being a learner-centered instruction, CBI brings better communicative skills;
4. Contents stimulate learners for better knowledge, they motivate and create interest, so allow to reach educational aims of the course;
5. Learners can make closer connection with foreign language and economic knowledge.
6. Greater flexibility and adaptability in the curriculum can be deployed as per the learners' interest.
7. Information search and re-evaluation of those resources help learners in developing valuable critical thinking skills;
8. Group works undoubtedly will lead to collaborative skills.

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# IMIGRANTU PILSONISKUMA VEICINĀŠANA LATVIJAS IZGLĪTĪBAS VIDĒ: STUDENTU VIEDOKĻI

## *Immigrant Citizenship Promotion in Latvia's Education Environment: Student Opinions*

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**Abstract.** For Latvia as a European Union member state, the issue of immigrant integration into Latvia's society has become currently actuated. Schools have to be ready to enroll pupils of other nationalities and assist them in earlier inclusion into Latvia's society, by promotion of their citizenship development towards the state where they abode, the EU states and the world society in general. The accomplished researches in Latvia reveal that in education environment, it is especially significant to strive for attitude transformation of Latvia's citizens to the inclusion of the immigrant children into Latvia's education environment. Inter-culture experience involvement into the education programmes provides an important factor for the development of citizenship experience in pupils, for their successful integration into another state's society. The aim of the article is: to analyze the situation in education (the accomplished researches) and student opinions on the citizenship development in immigrant children in Latvia's multi-cultural society. The research has implemented the analyses of scientific literature and documents, questionnaire and interviews. The research has come to the conclusion that in education it is significant to evaluate the bilingual, inter-culture and inclusive education for development of citizenship. Exceptional attention has to be paid to preparing the teachers and development of appropriate methodical aids, carrying out of multiple events that can ensure the immigrant opportunities to enrich the capital of Latvia's culture, economy and social life.

**Keywords:** immigrants, citizenship, citizenship education.

## **Ievads** ***Introduction***

Latvija kļūst arvien pievilcīgāka ārvalstu-gan Eiropas Savienības, gan citu valstu-pilsoniem, kuri izvēlas šeit īslaicīgi vai pastāvīgi apmesties uz dzīvi. Imigrācijas tendences arvien spilgtāk iezīmējas kā Eiropas, tā pasaules kartē, padarot cilvēku kustību pāri robežām par būtisku faktoru gan nacionālās, gan starptautiskās rīcībpolitikas plānošanā. Latvijas iedzīvotāju sadalījums pēc valstiskās piederības (Pilsonības un migrācijas lietu pārvalde (turpmāk PMLP), 2015): Latvijas iedzīvotāju skaits bija 2 180 293, t.sk. 1.823 135-Latvijas pilsoņi (84 %), 282 876-Latvijas nepilsoņi (13 %) un 73963-ārzemnieki (3 %). No 1998. gada līdz 2015. gadam Latvijā starptautisko aizsardzību lūguši 1768 patvēruma meklētāji no Gruzijas, Ukrainas, Irākas, Afganistānas, Sīrijas. Tā kā pēc Latvijas iestāšanās Eiropas Savienībā ir aktualizējies jautājums par imigrantu integrēšanu Latvijas sabiedrībā, skolām ir jābūt gatavām uzņemt visu migrantu grupu skolēnus un palīdzēt viņiem iekļauties mītnes zemes pilsoniskajā sabiedrībā.

Līdz šim veiktie pētījumi Latvijā rāda, ka izglītības jomā īpaši neaizsargāti ir imigrantu bērni, jo jau sākotnēji viņu prasmju un sekmju līmenis ir zemāks nekā uzņemošās valsts skolēniem. Starpkultūru pieredzes ietveršana izglītības programmās, mītnes zemes valodas apguve ir nozīmīgi faktori, lai skolēni spētu sekmīgi integrēties jaunās valsts sociālajā vidē un kultūrsabiedrībā.

Raksta mērķis - analizēt izglītības situāciju (veiktos pētījumus) un studentu viedokļus imigrantu bērnu pilsoniskuma veidošanā Latvijas multikultūru sabiedrībā.

## **Materiāli un metodes** ***Materials and Methods***

Pētījumā izmantota zinātniskās literatūras un dokumentu analīze, anketēšana un intervijas.

Zinātniskie pētījumi rāda, ka jau šobrīd Latvijas skolās mācās vairāk par 500 jauniebraucēju bērni (Kolčanovs et al., 2014, 4).

Analizējot dokumentus un pētījumus par patvēruma meklētāju, bēgļu un personu, kurām piešķirts alternatīvais statuss, iespējām iegūt izglītību Latvijā, ir apzinātas šo personu vajadzības un problēmas sekmēt pilsoniskumu sociālajā vidē. Pētījumā analizēto datu saturs atklāja vairākas problēmas izglītības jomā.

Pirmkārt, sakarā ar to, ka Latvijā ir nepietiekama pieredze imigrantu iekļaušanā izglītībā, nepieciešama šīs mērķgrupas integrācijas politikas pilnveidošana (Lulle et al., 2008).

Otrkārt, kaut gan Latvijas Izglītības likumā ir atzīts pret-diskriminācijas princips un nostiprinātas visu mērķgrupu tiesības uz bezmaksas vispārējo

izglītību, tomēr likumdošana ietver sevī arī nepilnības: mehānismu trūkums to imigrantu piekļuvei vispārējai izglītībai, kuri nav beiguši pamatskolu un ir sasnieguši pilngadību, mācību programmu paraugu un vadlīniju izstrādes nepietiekamība, papildus atbalsta (finansējuma pedagogu atalgojumam un mācību līdzekļu iegādei) trūkums nepilngadīgām personām arī pēc bēgļa vai alternatīvā statusa piešķiršanas un garantiju nodrošināšana patvēruma meklētāju piekļuvei profesionālās izglītības iestādēm (Djačkova et al., 2011, 5).

Treškārt, kopš 2010. gada nepilngadīgie patvēruma meklētāji visbiežāk ir bijuši ievietoti adaptācijas klasēs, lai vēlāk viņus pārceltu vispārējā klasē. Taču līdz šim vēl nav izveidojusies prakse, pēc kādiem vērtēšanas kritērijiem šie bērni pāriet vispārējā klasē. Valodas barjera, pielāgotu mācību programmu, vadlīniju un piemērotu mācību līdzekļu trūkums, pedagogu nepietiekamās prasmes strādāt ar mērķgrupām, rada galvenos šķēršļus imigrantu sekmīgai piekļuvei vispārējai izglītībai (Djačkova et al., 2011, 10).

Ceturtkārt, pētījumos tiek secināts, ka imigrantu iespēja iekļauties Latvijas skolās būtu sekmīgāka, ja attīstītu labvēlīgu vidi, veicinot gan pedagogu, gan sabiedrības vidū pilsoniskumu pret cittautiešiem un veidotu izpratni par imigrantu iespējām iekļauties sociālajā un kultūrvēsturiskajā un viņu potenciāla iespējas tālākai pilsoniskās integrācijas attīstībai Latvijā (PROVIDUS, 2006).

Šajā sakarā jāatzīst, ka Latvijā veiktajos pētījumos tiek atzīts – jauniešiem ir fragmentāras pilsoniskās zināšanas, piemēram, respondenti nevar nosaukt nevienu no Latvijas kultūrvēsturiskām tradīcijām, nevar nosaukt valsts funkcijas, nezina par savas pilsoniskās līdzdalības iespējām (Jurs, 2016, 32).

Kā liecina vairāku autoru veiktās intervijas ar augstskolu studentiem, galvenie šķēršļi imigrantu piekļuvei izglītībai ir valodas barjera (Jurgena et al., 2012). Intervētie studenti atzīst, ka valodas apguve ir visai svarīga skolotāja darbā ar imigrantu bērniem. Tas apgrūtina arī pilsoniskuma veidošanās iespējas.

Multikultūru sabiedrībā pilsoniskuma sekmēšanas uzdevums audzināšanā ir iepazīt un pieņemt daudzveidīgu kultūru eksistēšanu pasaulē kopumā un katrā atsevišķā valstī, sagatavot cilvēku toleranti uztvert citu kultūru, saprast to pārstāvju uzvedības normas, izvairīties no rasisma un ksenofobijas.

Valsts mērogā ar skolu saistītās problēmas un jautājumi dažreiz šķiet maznozīmīgi, jo pasaules kontekstā tos aizēno veselības, sociālās problēmas un dažādi citi problēmjautājumi. Ir skaidrs, ka skolai ir vadošā loma sabiedrībā, tādēļ ir svarīgi atgādināt, ka „skola darbojas tagadnē, bet tās darbības rezultāti ir vērsti uz nākotni” (Targamadze, 2014, 187).

Pilsoniskuma audzināšana multikultūru vidē ir sarežģīts psiholoģisks process, kurā svarīga ir humānas empātijas veicināšana, lai cilvēki multikultūru vidē būtu mobili un spētu izvairīties domāt egocentriski un uzspiest citiem savu gribu, bet tā vietā apgūt prasmi veidot kompromisu (Līduma & Rone, 2008a).

Šobrīd aktualizējas arī atziņa, ka multikultūru sabiedrībā pilsoniskās integrācijas veicināšanā nozīmīga ir skolotāju darbība. Tāpēc mūsdienu Latvijas skolotāju aktuāls uzdevums ir nodrošināt integrētu mācību saturu savas tautas vēstures un kultūras apguvei, kopt latviešu valodu tās kultūrvēsturiskajā telpā. Vienlaicīgi, izzinot etnisko grupu kultūru un cienot to, tiek sekmēta Latvijas iedzīvotāju vienotība un humānas attiecības (MK noteikumi Nr. 480).

Svarīgs skolotāju uzdevums formālajā un neformālajā izglītībā ir mērķtiecīgi darboties integratīvās nodarbībās, lai imigrantu bērniem veidotos priekšstati par sociālajiem procesiem, pilsoniskumu un piederību Latvijas sabiedrībai. Skolotājs ar personisko paraugu māca toleranci un cieņu savstarpējās attiecībās. Pilsoniskuma audzināšana ir sarežģīts process, kurā ar pedagoģisku atbalstu skolēniem pēctecīgi attīstās un realizējas personiski nozīmīga attieksme pret attiecīgās valsts likumos noteiktiem pienākumiem un tiesībām (Lūduma & Rone, 2008a, 102).

Pilsoniskuma audzināšanas nepieciešamība mūsdienu multikulturālajā sabiedrībā un imigrantu bērnu iekļaušanā konkrētas valsts izglītības sistēmā īpaši akcentēta starptautiskajos pētījumos. CiCe (Children's Identity and Citizenship in Europe) starptautiskās organizācijas pētījumos akcentēts:

1. Pilsoniskums ir integratīva emocionāla attieksme pret savu valsti, sabiedrību, cilvēkiem, darbu un kultūru, izpaužas cilvēku humānās savstarpējās attiecībās un darbā cilvēku labklājības pilnveidošanai. Cilvēku pilsoniskuma kvalitātes reāls izpaušmes veids ir apzinīga sabiedrisko uzvedības normu ievērošana un darba vērtības apzināšanās (Lūduma & Rone, 2008a, 102).
2. Personības pilsoniskuma veidošanās īstenojama visos izglītības ieguves līmeņos (Jurgena & Mikainis, 2007; Kroflič, 2012).
3. Augstskolas mūsdienās ir nozīmīga sabiedriskās apziņas veidošanās institūcija un pilsoniskās audzināšanas vide, augstskolu izglītības vide ļauj veidot jauna tipa speciālistu jaunai sociālai realitātei (Jurgena & Mikainis, 2012a; Jurgena et al., 2013; Chistolini et al., 2014).
4. Skolā sociālajās zinībās (7. un 8. klasē), civilizācijās (9. klasē), kultūrvēsturē un vēsturē, ģeogrāfijā un klases stundās tiek iegūta informācija par visiem ar pilsoniskumu saistītiem tematiem. Tādēļ gan skolēni, gan skolotāji uzskata, ka nav nepieciešams vēl papildus kāds atsevišķs mācību priekšmets, kurā mācītu pilsoniskumu (Rone & Lūduma, 2007, 126-128); (Lūduma & Rone, 2008b, 37-39).
5. A. Rosa pētījumā Latvijas, Igaunijas, Lietuvas jaunā paaudze atzīst, ka ir svarīgi kopt tās zemes tradīcijas, kurā cilvēks dzīvo (Ross, 2012, 28-36). Izvērtējot situāciju Baltijas valstīs, viņš konstatē, ka tā nav viennozīmīga, bet, kaut gan jauniešus zināmā mērā ietekmē viņu

vecāku un vecvecāku uzskati, jaunieši ir elastīgi un ar mobilu skatu Eiropas Savienības virzienā (Ross, 2012, 40-43).

Arī pētījumā par triju Baltijas valstu jauniešu attieksmi pret citādo un citiem cilvēkiem, akcentēts, ka mēs katrs esam atšķirīgs, individualitāte, tādēļ katrs atsevišķi esam citādašs citu cilvēku izpratnē (Liduma et al., 2012).

6. Studentu attieksme pret migrāciju kopumā un imigrantiem Baltijas valstīs ir pozitīva. Vispozitīvākā ir Lietuvas studentu attieksme, bet visnegatīvākā ir Latvijas studentu attieksme, Igaunijas studenti ir neitrāli. Salīdzinājumā ar Latvijas un Lietuvas studentiem, Igaunijas studentu skatījumā akcentēts, ka migrācijas process bagātina kultūrvidi (Koiv et al., 2013).

Eiropas Savienības valstu zinātnieku izdotajā grāmatā *Kultūru dažādība klasē* (Cultural diversity in the classroom. A European Comparison, 2012) ir pētījumi par mācību vidi katras valsts skolās. Jāpiezīmē, ka Latvijai bija neliela pieredze šajā jautājumā 2011.-2012. gadā, bet zinātnieki no Lielbritānijas, Vācijas, Ungārijas, Spānijas, Grieķijas, Kipras, Slovēnijas, Portugāles un citām Eiropas valstīm aplūkoja daudzveidīgus risinājumus skolēnu vajadzību nodrošināšanā multikultūru skolā, uzsverot, ka izglītības sistēmā visiem skolēniem nepieciešamas līdztiesīgas iespējas sevi realizēt. Tie ir noderīgi Latvijas praksei.

CiCe organizācijas kolēģu no Itālijas, Portugāles un Polijas pētījumos ir norādīts, ka skolotājiem ir nepieciešamas mobilas sociālas, ētiskas, disciplināras, metodoloģiskas un vērtēšanas kompetences darbā ar skolēniem. Viņu pētījumā atklājās, ka skolēni no skolotājiem sagaida empātiju, kas ar savu personisko paraugu viņiem nodrošinātu iespēju prasmīgāk iesaistīt skolēnus līdztiesīgā pilsoniskuma apgūvē (Chistolini et. al., 2014, 119).

Saskaņā ar vairākiem Latvijas valsts politikas normatīvajiem dokumentiem ir paredzēts īstenot vairākus pasākumus, kuru mērķis ir tiešā veidā uzlabot jauniebraucēju bērnu izglītības kvalitāti-nostiprinot latviešu valodas prasmes jaunajiem imigrantiem, stimulēt skolas ar latviešu mācību valodu uzņemt imigrantu bērnus, atbalstīt papildus apmācības programmas latviešu valodā bērniem, kuriem latviešu valoda nav dzimtā (piemēram, skolotāju palīgi) (Nacionālās identitātes, pilsoniskas sabiedrības un integrācijas pamatnostādnes 2012-2018, 2011).

Atbalsta pasākumus jauniebraucēju bērniem un jauniešiem paredz arī Izglītības un zinātnes ministrijas izstrādātais rīcības plāns, kurā norādīts, ka finansēšanas modelī „nauda seko skolēnam” paredzēts finansiāls atbalsts pamatzglītības un vispārējās izglītības apguves procesā (Rīcības plāns sabiedrības saliedētības sekmēšanai izglītības nozarē 2012.-2014. gadam, 2012). Tāpēc starpkultūru pieredzes ietveršana izglītības programmās un mītnes zemes valodas apguves nepieciešamība ir viens no galvenajiem darbības virzieniem



imigrantu izglītības problēmu risinājumā. Šajā kontekstā, domājot par imigrantu ieplūšanu Latvijas skolās, ir būtiski īstenot bilingvālās izglītības labās prakses piemērus. Šodien bilingvālās izglītības mērķis ir iekļaut skolēnu jaunā sociālā telpā, vienlaikus saglabājot piederību savai kultūrai (Jurgena et al., 2012).

CiCe 2012. gada konferencē Grieķijas zinātnieki uzsver, ka pieaug bilingvālu studentu skaits, jo Grieķijā strauji mainās demogrāfija, tādēļ ir reāla nepieciešamība strādāt skolā bilingvāli. Tas nozīmē, ka skolotājam ir jāapgūst trīs valodas, lai varētu strādāt skolā. Pētījumā uzsvēta skolotāja atbildība komunikācijas nodrošināšanā heterogēnā studiju vidē. Grieķijas kolēģu praksē imigrantu bērni tiek iekļauti vispārīzglītojošā skolā, bet skolotāji tiek gatavoti, lai varētu strādāt ar skolēniem, kuriem ir mācību grūtības (Alevriadou et.al., 2012).

Pjēra Burdjē (Bourdieu) skatījumā, spēja efektīvi lietot valodu palielina „bagātību”, jo ļauj sadarboties ar citiem, dažādos sociālos kontekstos. Ar jēdzienu „sadarbība” cieši saistīts jēdziens „ieciētība”, kas paredz abpusēju sadarbību - pamatnācijai pieņemt imigrantus un būt iecietīgam pret kultūras atšķirību, savukārt imigrantiem pieņemt mītnes zemes nozīmīgas vērtības (Bourdieu, 1991, 107-117).

Autoru veiktajā pētījumā tika noskaidrots, ka Latvijā tiek realizēti vairāki Eiropas Trešo valstu valstspiederīgo integrācijas fonda projekti, kuru mērķis ir izstrādāt izglītības programmu skolotāju starpkultūru izglītības prasmju un komunikācijas attīstībai un noskaidrot, vai skolotāji, kas strādā ar imigrantiem, ir iecietīgi un gatavi sadarbībai. Galvenais akcents imigrantu integrēšanai šajos projektos saistās ar valodu apguvi. Piemēram, projekta „Skolotājs starpkultūru telpā” ietvaros 2011. gadā *Latviešu valodas aģentūrā* tika izveidots mūsdienīgs mācību līdzekļu komplekts „Atvērsim vārtus”, kas paredzēts imigrantu mācīšanai Latvijā. Šis mācību līdzekļu komplekts ir paredzēts 60 mācību stundām, tas ietver mācību programmu un dažādus 13-18 gadus veciem bērniem domātus mācību materiālus valsts valodas pamatprasmju (A1 līmenis), Latvijas ģeogrāfijas, vēstures, kultūras pamatzināšanu apguvei, un, lai palīdzētu pusaudžiem iekļauties jaunajā sabiedrībā, ir izveidots arī e-disks. Mācību līdzekļu komplekta materiālos ir respektēti iecietības veidošanas kritēriji: vienlīdzīgas iespējas, sociālā vienlīdzība, individuālās tiesības, pozitīva attieksme, personai nozīmīgs atbalsts dažādībai, piederības apziņa, dažādības izpratne, līdztiesība, cieņa (Auziņa et al., 2011).

## **Rezultāti un diskusija** ***Results and discussion***

Augstskolas mūsdienās ir nozīmīga sabiedriskās apziņas veidošanās institūcija un pilsoniskās audzināšanas vide, augstskolu izglītības vide ļauj veidot jauna tipa speciālistu jaunai sociālai realitātei (Jurgena & Mikainis, 2007;

Jurgena & Mikainis, 2012a; Jurgena et al., 2013), tāpēc tieši studentu viedokļu izziņāšana ir svarīga, lai apzinātu topošo pedagogu attieksmi pret pilsoniskuma nozīmi imigrantu iekļaušanā Latvijas izglītības sistēmā.

Ar mērķi noskaidrot, ko studenti zina par pilsoniskumu un viņu attieksmi pret imigrantu iekļaušanu izglītībā, izlases veidā tika intervēti 15 respondenti.

Kā liecina studentu atbildes, viņi uzskata, ka pilsoniskās izglītības uzdevums (1. jautājums) ir veidot cilvēku izpratni par to, kā dzīvot demokrātiskā sabiedrībā. Viņuprāt, skolēniem-imigrantiem skolā būtu jāapgūst izpratni par sabiedrības vērtībām un prioritātēm - atbildību par veicamo uzdevumu un tā rezultātu, godīgumu, sadarbību un palīdzību; būtu nepieciešams radīt iespējas indivīdam iegūt zināšanas, prasmes un kompetences, kā arī pieredzi, kas nepieciešama viņa sekmīgai un pilnvērtīgai integrācijai un dzīvei pilsoniskā sabiedrībā, apgūt latviešu valodu (1. respondents) (turpmāk: resp.). Studenti atzīst, ka informācijas (2. jautājums) par pilsoniskumu skolās ir maz, un viņi nezina, kur to varētu meklēt imigrantu bērni. Ticamu informāciju var atrast Valsts izglītības attīstības aģentūras datu bāzē (3. resp.).

Jautāti par to, kā studenti saprot jēdzienu pilsoniskā izglītība (3. jautājums), studenti atbild, ka tas ir: sniegt skolēniem nepieciešamās zināšanas, prasmes un attieksmes sabiedrības attīstības un labklājības veicināšanai (7. resp.). Svarīgs uzdevums ir veicināt skolēnos attieksmes un izpratni par cilvēktiesībām un demokrātiskām vērtībām, par vienlīdzību un taisnīgumu. Intervētie studenti atzīst, ka par pilsonisko izglītību skolā (4. jautājums) tiek runāts maz, jo līdz šim netika lietots šis jēdziens (9., 11. resp.). Informācija vēstures stundās palīdz veidot izpratni par valsts vērtībām. Pilsoniskumu un lepnumu par valsti palīdz veidot mūsu sportistu panākumi, mūziķu izcilie sasniegumi pasaulē (5., 6. resp.). Vairāki intervētie pauž atziņu, ka pilsoniskuma veidošanas saturs ir integrēts kultūras vēsturē, sociālajās zinībās un klases stundās, kur tiek diskutēts par likumiem un dažādām lokālām un globālām problēmām. Studentu atbildēs tika akcentēts, ka svarīga ir skolotāja attieksme pret savu darbu un zemi, imigrācijas problēmām valstī (15. resp.). Tomēr tas ir jauns termins (jaunums) – pieredzes nav, bet cienīt/mīlēt valsti, sevi, apkārtējos iemācīja ģimene (12. resp.).

Studenti atzīst, ka viņiem pilsoniskums ir svarīgs (5. jautājums), jo cilvēkam ir jāprot pieklājīgi palūgt (nevis pieprasīt), jāprot arī otru novērtēt un pateikties. Ir jāmacās mīlēt savu valsti un apkārtējos, jo katrs ir daļa no valsts (14. resp.).

Par attieksmi pret savu valsti (6. jautājums), ir šāda atbilde: “Es dzīvoju Latvijā, esmu daļa no tās, mēs visi esam tie, kuri rada Latviju. Es lepojos ar savu Tēvzemi - mīļa un īpaša” (10. resp.).

Par Eiropas Savienību (ES) un citām valstīm studenti saka, ka attieksme pret ES valstīm, kā arī pret jebkuru citu valsti, ir pozitīva, jo uzskata, ka ar cieņu ir jāizturas pret jebkuras valsts iedzīvotājiem (3. resp.). Ar terminu “labs pilsonis” (7. jautājums) studenti saprot lojalitāti, likumu ievērošanu, dzīvot harmonijā ar

sevi un citiem, cienīt kultūru, tradīcijas, aizstāvēt savu valsti un zināt valodu (1., 3. resp.).

Anketēšanā par studentu pieredzi un attieksmi pret pilsoniskuma veidošanu Latvijas skolās piedalījās 200 respondenti. Jautājumi bija orientēti uz studentu viedokļu izziņāšanu par augstākajā mācību iestādē pieejamo pilsoniskās izglītības saturu, izglītības mērķi un skolā novēroto pieredzi darbā ar imigrantiem un etniskajām minoritātēm.

Studentu atbildēs par uzticēšanos (1. jautājums) savas mācību iestādes informācijai par pilsoniskumu, studenti atbildēja, ka informācija ir noderīga vienmēr (17 %), parasti (55 %), dažreiz (24 %), bet reti (4 %). Tādēļ autori uzskata, ka pilsoniskuma izpratnes sekmēšanai ir aktualizējami MK noteikumi par jauniešu pilsonisko līdzdalību Latvijas skolās, kas nosaka, ka izglītības iestāde ir atbildīga par pilsoniskās audzināšanas mērķa un uzdevumu īstenošanu.

Par trim svarīgākajiem pilsoniskuma veicināšanas tematiem (2. jautājums) kā būtiskāko studenti izvēlas informāciju par cilvēktiesībām (50 %), otrajā vietā diskusijas par taisnīgumu mūsdienu sabiedrībā (30 %), trešajā - pētīt aktuālus sociālus un politiskus jautājumus (20 %), kas sasaucas ar MK noteikumos akcentēto, ka skolotājs, veicinot skolēnu pilsoniskās attieksmes veidošanos, mūsdienu skolā ir profesionāli neatkarīgs un atbildīgs; ir objektīvs, lojāls Latvijas valstij un tās Satversmei; ievēro politisko un reliģisko neitralitāti un neveic aģitāciju; ar savu rīcību un pausto viedokli nediskreditē izglītības iestādi un valsti.

Lielākā daļa studentu atzina, ka Latvijas izglītībā skolās nav priekšmeta pilsoniskā izglītība (4. jautājums), taču pilsoniskuma jautājumus apgūst vairākos citos priekšmetos. Tas sasaucas ar citiem Latvijā veiktajiem pētījumiem par mācību priekšmetiem *Sociālās zinības* un *Latvijas vēsture* (Jurs, 2016, 34-35).

Analizējot atbildes par skolā organizētajiem pasākumiem pilsoniskuma un cilvēktiesību apgūvē (5. jautājums), ieguvām šādus rezultātus: katru dienu (17 %), vienreiz nedēļā (22 %), vienreiz mēnesī 30 %, vienreiz trijos mēnešos 12 %, vienreiz semestrī (7 %), vienreiz gadā (4 %), nekad (9 %). Tas aktualizē MK noteiktos uzdevumus, kas nosaka skolotāju darbībā ikdienā stiprināt skolēna valstiskuma apziņu, veicināt pilsonisko līdzdalību un iniciatīvu, lojalitāti un patriotismu, tajā skaitā organizējot valsts svētku un latviešu tautas tradicionālo svētku svinēšanu, atceres un atzīmējamo dienu ievērošanu un citus pasākumus, kas padziļina izpratni par Latvijas vēsturi, valsts rašanos, valstiskuma atjaunošanu, tautas likteni, brīvības cīņām un valsts aizsardzību, veicina lepnumu par Latvijas valsti un cilvēkiem, popularizēt cilvēku dzīves un darbības piemērus, kas apliecina pašai izglītības iestādei, novadam, pilsētai un informēt par pilsoniskās līdzdalības iespējām (10.5. pants).

Uz jautājumu par imigrantu bērnu klātesamību skolās, kurās viņi mācījušies (6. jautājums), studenti atbild, ka klasē nav bijuši skolēni imigranti (80 %), ir

bijuši: 1-3 skolēni klasē (14 %), 4-6 skolēni (6 %). Tas liecina, ka Latvijas skolās šobrīd vēl nav pietiekama pieredze darbā ar imigrantu bērniem.

Etnisko minoritāšu skolēni klasē (7. jautājums): nav bijuši (58 %), 1-3 skolēni (26 %), 4-6 skolēni (10 %), 7-9 skolēni (4 %), 10 un vairāk skolēni klasē (2 %). Atbildes uz šiem jautājumiem norāda uz nepieciešamību topošajiem skolotājiem studijās gūt izpratni par skolotāja atbildību „ievērot tiesiskumu un vienlīdzību pret visiem skolēniem neatkarīgi no skolēna vai viņa ģimenes locekļu rases, tautības, dzimuma, vecuma, valodas, sociālās izcelsmes, valstspiederības, reliģiskās, politiskās vai citas pārliecības, veselības stāvokļa vai citu apstākļu dēļ (10.1. pants); respektēt katra skolēna attīstības individuālās īpatnības, reliģiskās, lingvistiskās, kultūras un sociāli emocionālās vides atšķirības, dažādās spējas, atšķirīgās izglītības un īpašās vajadzības (10.2. pants).

Izvērtējot anketēšanas rezultātus, tika konstatēts, ka studentiem -topošajiem skolotājiem ir nepietiekama teorētiskā un praktiskā pieredze imigrantu bērnu iekļaušanai skolā, tādēļ augstskolu studiju procesā nepārtraukti jāpilnveido viņu prakse saistībā ar aktuālo pilsoniskuma teoriju.

### **Secinājumi** **Conclusions**

Studenti-topošie skolotāji ir ieinteresēti pilsoniskās izglītības jautājumu risināšanā. Studenti atzīst: lai kļūtu par Latvijas valstij piederīgu pilsoni, ir nepieciešamas prasmes sazināties valsts valodā, apgūt, izprast, pieņemt un cienīt latvisko kultūrvērtības, veicināt pilsonisko integrāciju un pilsonisko līdzdalību valsts dzīvē, izrādīt savu iniciatīvu, būt tolerantam un ar cieņu pieņemt Latvijas valsts vērtības.

Latvijas sabiedrība un skola apgūst jaunu pieredzi imigrantu iekļaušanā izglītībā. Statistikas dati rāda mērķgrupu pārstāvju skaita pieaugumu Latvijā. Valodas barjera, nepietiekamais pielāgotu mācību programmu un mācību līdzekļu klāsts, nepietiekamās latviešu valodas apguves iespējas ierobežo gan bērnu, gan jauniešu strauju iekļaušanos Latvijas izglītības sistēmā.

Izglītībā tiek izvērtēts bilingvālās, starpkultūru un iekļaujošās izglītības potenciāls, īpašu uzmanību veltot skolēnu valodas apguvei, skolotāju sagatavošanai un piemērotu metodisko līdzekļu izveidei, daudzveidīgu pasākumu īstenošanai, lai nodrošinātu imigrantu iespējas bagātināt Latvijas kultūras, ekonomisko un sociālo kapitālu.

Pilsoniskās integrācijas audzināšana multikultūru sabiedrībā ir process, kurā skolēniem veidojas daudz kultūru vērtēšanas pašpiederība, kura atšķiras no viņa paša kultūras, veidojas tolerance un empātija pret citu kultūru pārstāvjiem. Pilsoniskās integrācijas veicināšanai Latvijas skolēnu un imigrantu vajadzībām ir izstrādāta konkrēta izglītojoša programma, kura nodrošina mācību un

audzināšanas saturu, metodes un formas viņu sociālo, psiholoģisko un kultūras vajadzību nodrošināšanai. Pilsoniskuma integratīvā audzināšanā Latvijas skolā un sabiedrībā kopumā aktualizējas pozitīva emocionāla attieksme pret valsti, sabiedrību, cilvēkiem, darbu un kultūru.

### Summary

The students – the emerging teachers are interested in promotion of the citizenship education issues. The students recognize: in order to become a citizen of Latvia's state, one needs the skills to communicate in the state language, explore, understand, accept and respect the Latvian culture environment, promote citizenship integration and citizenship participation into the life of the state, to show one's initiative, to be tolerant and accept Latvia's state values with respect. Latvia's society and school acquire a new experience in immigrant inclusion into education. The statistical data reveal an increase in representatives of the target-groups in Latvia. The language barrier, inadequate supply of adjusted education programmes and teaching aids, insufficiency of opportunities to learn the Latvian language set limits to both children and adolescent accelerated inclusion into Latvia's education system. In education: bilingual, intercultural and inclusive education potential is being assessed, particular attention is being paid to the language acquisition by the pupils, teacher education and development of appropriate methodical aids, implementation of multiple diverse events are being carried out in order to ensure the opportunities of the immigrants to enrich Latvia's culture, economic and social capitals. The implementation of the citizenship integration by educational upbringing in the multicultural society is a process, where the pupils develop self-experience for multi-culture evaluation, which differs from their own cultures, tolerance and empathy to representatives of other cultures is being developed. For promotion of the citizenship integration for the needs of Latvia's pupils and immigrants, a conclusive concrete educational programme has been developed, which ensures education and educational upbringing content, methods and ways for settling their social, psychological and culture needs. A positive emotional attitude is being actuated to the state, society, humans, work and culture by the citizenship integrative educational upbringing at Latvia's school and society in general.

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## МАНИПУЛЯТИВНЫЙ ПОТЕНЦИАЛ ОБРАЩЕНИЙ В ПЕДАГОГИЧЕСКОМ ДИСКУРСЕ

### *Manipulative Potential of Vocatives in Pedagogical Discourse*

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**Abstract.** *Forms of vocatives in a speech define a communicative intention of an utterance, indicating a definite addressee. In the process of communication a vocative is a means of creation a special communicative environment consisting of participants of a conversation. By that it defines a line which connects a sender and a recipient of information as well as being a means of the beginning of the communicative process, keeping it up, changing its course either positively or negatively. Vocatives are actively used in a dialogue to attract attention of an interlocutor as well as for further focus of an utterance. It may be used in different manipulative ways (for example, while communicating with a large number of pupils vocatives may serve as a means to draw attention of a recipient or to single out the personality of a pupil). Vocatives in pedagogical discourse may be expressed by proper names and surnames. A vocative with emotional and evaluative suffixes, evaluative adjectives or nouns, possessive pronouns becomes more expressive. They create a more subjective character while qualifying an addressee and by this they become a source of anthropocentricity, representation of a “humane factor” in the language.*

**Keywords:** *manipulation, vocatives, pedagogical discourse.*

### **Введение**

#### **Introduction**

Обращения «считают одним из главных средств передачи этикетного содержания в речи. Обращением говорящий предлагает адресату определённое распределение ролей, определённый тип общения» (Гольдин, 2009, 73). Для эффективной коммуникации нужно понять адресата, его ценности, установки, где и как он проводит время, какие вопросы его волнуют, что он думает о себе, окружающем мире. Через ответы на эти вопросы создается коммуникативная стратегия, связанная с общим замыслом конечной цели общения, которая в данном случае заключается в воздействии на слушающего. В педагогическом дискурсе, значимость которого заключается в комплексности видов общественной деятельности – в виде обучения учащихся, демонстрирования обучения, распространения



идей и формирования знаний, которые осуществляются с помощью языка – данная коммуникативная стратегия является актуальной. Цель настоящей статьи заключается в попытке рассмотрения манипулятивного потенциала обращений в педагогическом дискурсе.

### **Теоретическая основа темы The theoretical background**

Традиционно под термином «обращение» понимается слово или сочетание слов, обозначающее того, кому адресована речь. В «Словаре лингвистических терминов» О. С. Ахмановой даётся следующее определение: «Обращение – употребление существительных, местоимений, субстантивированных прилагательных или эквивалентных им словосочетаний для называния лиц или предметов, к которым обращена речь» (Ахманова, 2007, 276). В «Лингвистическом энциклопедическом словаре» под редакцией В. Н. Ярцевой обращение определяется как «грамматически независимый и интонационно обособленный компонент предложения или более сложного синтаксического целого, обозначающий лицо или предмет, которому адресована речь» (Кручинина, 1990, 340).

Для корректного употребления обращения в речи, соответствующему правилам этикета принятым в данном обществе, первостепенное значение приобретает правильный выбор формы обращения, таким образом, из различных вариантов, представленных в языковом инвентаре, говорящему необходимо выбрать ту форму, которая наиболее верно соответствует данной речевой ситуации (Кузьмина, 2014). В этом случае первостепенную роль представляет значение элективности, т.е. избирательности, что является первостепенно важным для воплощения интенции говорящего, но не единственным условием реализации закона тождества, т.е. равенства замысла говорящего реальному высказыванию. На этом этапе также происходит идентификация адресата. При употреблении обращения происходит «идентификация образа и человека, являющегося этим образом» (Кошечкина, 2011, 251), что включает отношение адресанта к адресату, выражаемое в положительной, нейтральной либо отрицательной эмоциональной составляющей.

Известно, что говорящий при выборе обращения не просто выражает желание привлечь внимание или выразить своё отношение к собеседнику, но и демонстрирует осведомлённость о правилах этикета? принятых в конкретном обществе. Употребление той или иной формы обращения свидетельствует о коммуникативной компетенции в плане способности говорящего «избирать подходящий код и стиль для конкретной обстановки

и деятельности» (Белл, 1980, 124). Эта компетенция может быть в полном объеме отражена при выборе формы обращения.

Официальная обстановка общения предполагает следование определенным нормам, правилам, характеризуется конвенционально предписанным поведением коммуникантов. Неофициальная обстановка представляет собой обстановку повседневного неформального общения, поведение в которой зависит от ролей и степени знакомства коммуникантов, их восприятия друг друга, их общительности и т.д. (Катермина, 2015).

Изучение педагогического дискурса проводится сегодня в нескольких плоскостях и в соответствии с основными научными парадигмами современной лингвистики, в частности, выделяются структурно-функциональный, лингвокультурологический, коммуникативно-дискурсивный подходы (Zhestkova, 2016a; Zhestkova, 2016b; Ежова, 2006; Карасик, 2002; Леонтьев, 1999; Михальская, 1998; Олешков, 2007 и др.).

Педагогический дискурс – это объективно существующая динамическая система ценностно-смысловой коммуникации субъектов образовательного процесса, функционирующая в образовательной среде.

Она включает в себя участников дискурса, педагогические цели, ценности и содержательную составляющую. Кроме того данный вид коммуникации обеспечивает приобретение обучающимися опережающего опыта в проектировании и оценке любого педагогического или социального явления в соответствии с нормами культуросообразной деятельности. Личностный опыт можно рассматривать как опыт культурного соавторства в совместной творческой деятельности обучающегося и преподавателя по преобразованию социальной и педагогической реальности (Шендрик, 2003).

Цель педагогического дискурса носит, как и цель образования в целом, трехкомпонентный характер: в профессиональной области – формирование ключевых компетентностей участников образовательного процесса, в общественной жизни – полноценная социализация личности в обществе, в личностной сфере – становление самоценной личности. Общая цель педагогического дискурса заключается в создании условий для становления целостного человека во всем многообразии его психофизических, социальных и личностных характеристик.

Вся деятельность учителя, его коммуникативные действия носят воспитательный характер. Учащиеся вольно или невольно воспринимают речь учителя, его манеру общаться как образец. Педагогический дискурс формируется и функционирует в образовательной среде учебного заведения. Создание гуманитарной образовательной среды в школе/вузе предполагает обеспечение определенной морально-психологической обстановки, подкрепленной комплексом мер организационно-управленческого, методического и психологического характера,

обеспечивающих обретение студентами гуманитарной культуры и стимулирующих собственную культуросообразную деятельность студентов.

В настоящее время язык представляет большой интерес не только как самостоятельный феномен, но и как средство коммуникативного общения. В ходе вербального взаимодействия между коммуникантами происходит обмен информацией, а также манипулятивное воздействие, которое является одним из главных составляющих эффективного образовательного процесса. Языковое манипулирование, производимое манипулятором-учителем, способствует улучшению и эффективному преобразованию всех компонентов, двигающих учебный процесс: регулируемое манипулятором позитивное межличностное общение как между учителем и учениками, так и внутри класса; работа с учебным материалом, его последующей презентацией; создание благоприятного рабочего климата на учебном занятии (Дроздова, 2016).

Эффективность педагогического общения находится в прямой зависимости от уровня владения учителем фатическими жанрами (жанр приветствия; призыва к совместной учебной деятельности; с формулами укрупнения адресата; формулой похвалы; шуткой; жанр обращения).

В качестве обращений в общении учителя с учениками могут выступать слова, которые можно назвать одним термином – «наименования», под которыми понимаются и личные имена, и прозвища, заменяющие имена и использующиеся наравне с ними, специфические ласковые и неласковые имена, названия официальных отношений и т.п.

### **Методы, организация и результаты исследования** *Methodology, organization and results of the research*

Материалом для статьи послужили результаты социолингвистических исследований (среднеобразовательные школы и гимназии г. Краснодара [Россия]), посвященных изучению манипулятивных внутренних ресурсов и возможностей обращений в педагогическом дискурсе. В работе использованы следующие методы: описание, наблюдение, интерпретация.

### **Результаты эмпирического исследования** *The results of the empirical research*

Эмпирическая часть исследования заключалась в организации, проведении и интерпретации результатов социолингвистического исследования, проводимого в среднеобразовательных школах и гимназиях

г. Краснодара (Россия) для изучения манипулятивного воздействия обращений в педагогическом дискурсе.

Обращения в педагогическом дискурсе используются чаще всего для привлечения внимания учащихся с целью установления контакта и успешности учебной деятельности. В данном случае особую роль играет тактика «повышения адресата в ранге»: *Коллеги!*

Использование данного обращения не отвечает реальным отношениям между учителем и учениками, оно не соответствует своему лексическому значению [коллега – товарищ по всякой работе, профессии (Ушаков, 1994)]. Мы считаем, что в данном контексте и в данной коммуникативной ситуации речевое воздействие таково, что данное обращение оправдывает себя в виде ролевой игры или общения с старшеклассниками профильного класса, которые обладают специальными знаниями.

Повышение в ранге может быть основано и на интеллектуальной характеристике: *Дорогие математики! Знатоки литературы!*

Данное речевое воздействие достаточно часто встречается среди учителей-предметников, которые с его помощью пытаются показать учащимся важность конкретного предмета, изучаемое направление, а также успехи учеников в усвоении им знаний.

Похвала, которая может быть трансформирована в обращение, имплицитно подчеркивает заслуги учеников и может служить положительным настроем для дальнейшей коммуникации: *Любознательные вы мои! Способные ученики! Молодец, настоящий отличник! Заработал свою пятерку.* Оценка содержит интеллектуальный элемент, но похвала учителя направлена не только на работу учащегося, но и его знания, ментальные способности (Черник, 2002).

Похвала и комплименты могут затрагивать не только учебные способности и научные достижения учащегося, но и его личностные качества, подчеркивающие силу, ум, талант, находчивость и стойкость учащегося-собеседника.

Говоря об оценочной категории, следует отметить, что исследование понятия языковой оценки дает возможность предположить, что познавательно-классифицирующая деятельность человека находит отражение в языковых единицах, в частности, в словах, закрепляющих наряду с результатами познавательной деятельности человека и отношение познающего субъекта к познанной действительности; таким образом, оценочный компонент выступает как обязательный семантический компонент значения слова (Катермина, 2016).

Отношение к ученикам, как к взрослым, также играет свою роль при достижении необходимой учителю цели. Следующее обращение

демонстрирует отношение как к людям, которые осознанно делают свой выбор: *Будущие студенты! Будущие специалисты!*

В данном случае подобным воздействием учитель выражает свое одобрение.

Для создания доверительной атмосферы и отношений между учителем и учеником, обращения также могут играть важную роль. Использование, например, стилистически окрашенной лексики, ведет к данному результату: *Рыбки! Ягодки! Золотки!*

Шутливая тональность может поддерживаться учителем при помощи использования существительных с уменьшительно-ласкательными суффиксами. Данное воздействие не вносит в общение диссонанс (-к- – суффикс субъективной оценки).

Под тональностью в данной статье понимается текстовая категория, в которой находит отражение эмоционально-волевая установка автора при достижении конкретной коммуникативной цели. Это психологическая позиция автора по отношению к излагаемому, а также к адресату и ситуации общения (Кожина, 2003).

Имена собственные (сокращенная форма имени, а также форма имени с уменьшительно-ласкательными суффиксами) также играют большую роль при достижении данной цели: *Ванечка! Леночка! Сережка! Боря! Натуся!*

Следует отметить, что имя собственное является границей, разделяющей бытие и инобытие, универсальное и национально специфическое, даже «точкой», местом, в котором они разделяются и встречаются; имя позволяет в определенной степени представить социальный статус, духовный мир, национальные особенности и т.п. как именуемого, так и именующего (Катермина, 1998).

Для достижения языкового воздействия разговорные формы имен собственных в последнее время стали более часто использоваться в официальном общении между учителем и учениками. Это способствует сближению, развитию более теплой и неформальной рабочей обстановки, привлечению внимания в нестандартных ситуациях общения.

Необходимо, однако, отметить, что использование подобных диминутивов в педагогическом дискурсе может способствовать созданию коммуникативного конфликта между учениками.

Очень часто в педагогическом дискурсе обращение по имени сопровождается притяжательным местоимением и прилагательным, одиночным прилагательным: *Сашенька! Умница моя! Настенька милая!*

Обыгрывание ласкательных форм имен собственных способствует интимизации общения, углубления личностного контакта, что, в свою очередь, ведет к достижению тактики «совместности». Считается, что местоимения «мой/моя» употребляются также для того, чтобы показать

отношение к вызывающим личностную симпатию учителя ученикам и реализуются даже в ситуации замечания.

Обращение по фамилии – своеобразное манипулятивное поздействие. С одной стороны, это стандартная реализация официально-деловых отношений, что, однако, не ведет к установлению эмоционального контакта.

С другой стороны, для привлечения внимания отвлекающегося учащегося учитель может использовать стилистически окрашенное обращение, в котором фамилия адресата усилена такими словами, как «*госпожа / господин*», «*товарищ*», «*сударь и сударыни*». Такое обращение в зависимости от интонации и тембра, может приобретать ироничную тональность.

Следует, однако, отметить, что в ситуации общения между учителем и учениками семантика любого из рассмотренного выше типа обращений зависит не только от ее формы, но и от интонации и тембра и намерений учителя.

### **Обобщение** ***Conclusions***

Таким образом, обращение – самый яркий и употребительный этикетный знак (общаясь, мы называем человека по имени, по его социальному статусу, по каким-либо индивидуальным признакам). Специфика обращения состоит в том, что оно привлекает внимание собеседника, одновременно называя его. Обращение – призыв, побуждение к какому-либо действию, донесение до адресата определенной информации, которая направлена на вызов его реакции.

Педагогический дискурс – взаимодействие, направленное на развитие личности, при этом могут использоваться различные его виды: психологическое, межличностное, социальное, воспитание, воздействие, сотрудничество, влияние, интеракция, общение, поддержка, манипулирование и конфликт. Специфика педагогического взаимодействия заключается в диалогости общения, что определяет выбор стратегий, направленных на достижение гармоничного диалога между участниками педагогического дискурса.

Педагогическое общение можно отнести к сфере общения знакомых друг с другом людей. Обращение в педагогическом дискурсе кроме привлечения внимания отражает и отношение к адресату. Языковые средства, используемые учителем для достижения педагогических целей, могут быть достаточно разнообразными – они могут быть выражены именем или фамилией адресата. Весьма выразительными становятся обращения с эмоционально-оценочными суффиксами, оценочными

прилагательными и существительными, а также притяжательными местоимениями, которые вносят особенно субъективный характер в квалификацию адресата и, таким образом, выступают источником антропоцентричности, представленности «человеческого фактора» в языке.

### **Summary**

Vocatives are considered to be one of the main means of transferring an etiquette meaning in a speech. The speaker imposes a definite role, a special type of communication on an addressee. To communicate effectively one should understand an addressee, where and how they spend time, what questions touch them, what they think about themselves or the world around. By answering these questions a certain communicative strategy is built which is connected with the whole intention of a final aim of communication – the influence on the listener.

An official situation of communication suggests following certain norms or rules; it is characterized by a conventional behavior of communicants. An unofficial situation is a model of a daily informal communication and the behavior here depends on the roles and degrees of acquaintance of interlocutors, their perception of each other, degree of their being sociable and so on.

The study of pedagogical discourse is done in some directions and according to main scientific paradigms of contemporary linguistics: structural-functional, linguaculturological and communicative-discursive approaches.

We consider pedagogical discourse to be an objective dynamic system of an evaluative and meaningful communication between interlocutors of an educational process. This system mainly functions in an educational environment.

Nowadays a language presents a great interest not only as an independent phenomenon but also as a means of communication. In the course of a verbal communication between interlocutors there is an exchange of information as well as a manipulative influence. The latter is one of the main elements of an effective educational process.

We believe that a verbal manipulation made by a teacher-manipulator promotes improvement and an effective transformation of all the components moving an educational process forward. It regulates a positive interpersonal communication between a teacher and a pupil as well as within the class; it influences the work with the educational material and its further presentation; it creates a favourable working atmosphere during the lesson.

Effectiveness of a pedagogical communication is in the direct dependence from the level of teacher's knowledge of contact genres (genres of greeting, call to mutual educational activities, formulae of consolidation of addressees, praise, joke, genre of vocatives).

As forms of vocatives during the communication between a teacher and the pupils there may be the words which can be called by one term only – nominations. Proper

names, surnames, nicknames, special hypocoristic names, names of official relations and so on.

So we suppose that the problem of manipulative internal verbal resources of vocatives is actual which requires a comprehensive analysis and further study. The results can lead to the bettering of teacher-pupil's relations and improvement of knowledge in the realms of pedagogical discourse.

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## **BUILDING STUDENT ENGAGEMENT IN TEACHING AND LEARNING: AREAS FOR ENHANCEMENT**

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**Abstract.** *The paper analyses the engagement of students and teachers in developing a community of practice and the role of the institution in the process. Our research is based on surveys of students and teachers conducted in 2016 as part of the EU-funded Erasmus+ research project Internationalisation and Modernisation of Education and Processes in the Higher Education of Uzbekistan (IMEP). The questionnaires, developed by the project team of researchers, aimed to identify the areas of successful student engagement and where students did not engage actively in teaching, learning and other university and extracurricular activities. Our surveys of students and teachers provided us with the necessary information in order to establish the reasons for successful and less pro-active engagement of students. The results of the surveys also showed some differences in the level of engagement of teachers and students in the process of teaching and learning and how both groups viewed their involvement and the role of the institution. Two case studies presented by students selected for this project showcase their positive experience and confirm the results of our study. While the article deals with concrete data collected and analysed as part of the research, it addresses wider issues of student engagement, the provision of feedback and analyses the role of the main players in the process of teaching and learning enhancement.*

**Keywords:** *student engagement, Student Academic Representative (StAR), provision of feedback, enhancement of teaching and learning.*

### **Introduction**

Student engagement in the Higher Education has been central in the research of many scholars (Astin, 1993; Bryson, 2014; Fredricks et al., 2004; Gibbs, 2014; Kahu, 2013; Nygaard et al., 2013; Pascarella & Ternzini, 2005). The term ‘student engagement’ is often substituted by other two seemingly close synonyms: ‘involvement’ and ‘participation’. However, the term ‘engagement’ semantically incorporates more; on top of activity it requires feelings and sense-making (Harper & Quaye, 2009: 5). The analysis of various definitions of the wide-ranging term ‘student engagement’ and how various authors approached it was provided by Trowler (2010). Apart from defining this multifaceted term, she aims to establish why we need student engagement, who benefits from it and what are critical success factors. Harrington et al. (2016) offer further development and

rethinking of the term as a “process that enables students to experience this more collaborative, complex and nuanced version of education, which at its heart is about engagement as learning, and learning as becoming” (107).

Many authors agree that this is a complex process where a variety of factors and circumstances may have an impact on the way students engage in teaching and learning, university life, employers, professional organisations and wider community (Bryson, 2014; Kahu, 2013). However complex the process of engagement may be, the behaviours of students and teaching staff and their diversity play crucial part in the way they all engage and interact in teaching and learning (Harrington et al., 2016).

HE institutions play a key role in the creation of environment and building a culture which would encourage students to engage with all actors in the process of teaching and learning and achieve success (Coates, 2005; Kuh, 2007; Harrington et al., 2016). The role of institutions has become even greater in view of considerable shifts in the UK HE funding policy. Student engagement is usually defined and communicated via relevant policies in the Quality Manual, the Student Charter, the university mission or strategic plan. These documents set out institutional responsibilities to provide a suitable learning environment and a comprehensive range of support services for its students, and to involve students in decision making processes. It is worth mentioning that some UK institutions even developed more specific student engagement strategies, e.g. Student Engagement Strategy 2015-19 at Leeds Trinity University (<http://www.leedstrinity.ac.uk/Key%20Documents/Student%20Engagement%20Strategy.pdf>). It is therefore, one of the goals of our IMEP Project has been to identify the role of universities in encouraging and facilitating student engagement and propose guidance to HE institutions across Uzbekistan.

The engagement of major players and their motivation and attitudes were central in our research which aims to establish how students and academic staff view their engagement in teaching and learning, university activities and wider community, and what role the institution plays in this process, how it supports the main actors and emphasises the importance of various activities.

The above mentioned factors, the changing environment of the Higher Education and the need to assess the current level of student engagement led us to undertake this research and enabled us to formulate the main objectives. Apart from establishing how the major players view the role of the institution, the research also addresses the issues related to the provision of feedback by students and teaching staff and whether their feedback triggers any changes. It specifically aims to consider the frequency of feedback and topics covered. The analysed data will enable us to identify whether there is reliable interaction between major actors in the process of teaching and learning and how HE institutions and academic staff can enhance the culture of student engagement.

## **Methods**

### **Participants**

A total of 144 university students and 33 teachers volunteered to participate in this study. Most students were female – 75 %. They studied at the following levels of study: Bachelor degree (junior year) – 41 %, Bachelor degree (senior year) – 36.1 %, Master degree – 16 %, and those who already graduated represented 6.9 %. The students involved in the study represented all age groups from 18 years to over 50 years old. The students spread more or less equally across all age groups which reflected the diversity of students at London Metropolitan University. The student group of 20 – 30 years old was the largest group in our study – 43.9 % while the rest of students were equally spread between 30-40 and 40-50 groups respondents. Students representing a variety of subjects taught at the university participated in the survey: Business, Health, Psychology, Applied Languages, Education, International Relations, Youth Work, and Criminology. However, the majority of students were from Social Sciences and Social Professions.

33 teachers were involved in the survey from Business & Management, Art & Architecture, Social Sciences and Social Professions, Applied Languages, Media and Communications. They had various teaching experience from 1 to 28 years, however the biggest groups were with experience of 5 years – 15.2 % and 25 years – also 15.2 %. 66.6 % of participants were female teachers.

### **Questionnaires**

Questionnaires for students and academic staff were developed by a group of researchers as part of Erasmus+ IMEP Project with an aim to contribute to the internationalisation and further enhancement of Quality Assurance System in the Higher Education of Uzbekistan through the development of continuous professional development, student and employer engagement in teaching and learning.

The questionnaires consisted of three parts: introduction, questions on employer engagement and student engagement, and were designed to assess how well students were prepared for their future careers and how actively they were involved in the life of their university. The information provided by students and academic staff will be compared with other partner universities in Greece, Latvia and Uzbekistan at the next stage of the Project and will assist in the development of guidelines for employer and student engagement. This paper, however, only considers the results of student and academic staff surveys at London Metropolitan University.

The Questionnaire for students addresses the issues of institutional role in supporting student engagement in various aspects of university life, how often and by what means students provide feedback, what areas they cover, whether they

see any changes after the feedback is given, and in what activities students are involved during their academic year. In total, there were 7 groups of questions.

The Questionnaire for academic staff in a way mirrored the questions addressed to students and asked about the institution supporting various activities related to student engagement, how often and the way the feedback is provided, what areas are covered in the feedback and whether members of academic staff see any changes after the feedback is given.

In a nutshell, our research aimed to analyse how HE institutions support student engagement, whether students and academic staff are given opportunities for the provision of feedback and whether the provided feedback leads to any changes. In addition, we explored the issues of student and staff engagement in university life and wider community.

### **Procedure**

Recruitment of participants was carried out by academic staff involved in the IMEP Project. Each participant agreed on an informed consent stating that the participation was voluntary, that individual answers will be reviewed only by members of the research team directly involved in the project, that no personal information that could be used to identify the participants would be asked during the survey. Participants were also assured that the results of the survey will be presented only as an aggregated statistical analysis.

The results of the survey were analysed by two teams of researchers working on employability and student engagement. Since there was a combination of numerical data and comments from respondents, the research involved quantitative and qualitative data analysis. In order to clarify and confirm the results of the surveys two students were selected for the provision of case studies of good practice and their views on the issues of student engagement at the next stage of the research.

## **Results and discussion**

The role of institutions and the HE system as a whole is central in creating the culture and environment of student and teacher active engagement in teaching and learning. This role is becoming even greater in view of the changing landscape in the Higher Education and the growing consumerist approaches when engaging with learning (Kandiko & Mawer, 2013). These changes call for rethinking engagement types proposed by Pike and Kuh (2005) and developing new fit-for-purpose strategies.

Our research addressed the question as to how the institution empowers student engagement. As shown in Figure 1, 80 % of students agreed that the university ensures that they take full responsibility for their learning. This empowerment of students is important for encouraging the use of a variety of

methods and approaches in shaping the culture of student engagement thus enabling flexibility in view of student diversity. Lower figures in the other two questions about developing a sense of belonging and encouraging students to make active decisions about how you study as well as the answers to questions about being part of the community may require some enhancement procedures and actions at institutional level. However, the results of the survey may not be conclusive enough since many Bachelor degree students (junior year) participated in the survey who might not have had the time to engage either at the course or university level. Senior year and Master degree students showed higher results in their replies to questions in this part of the survey, thus clearly indicating a more pro-active engagement in most areas.

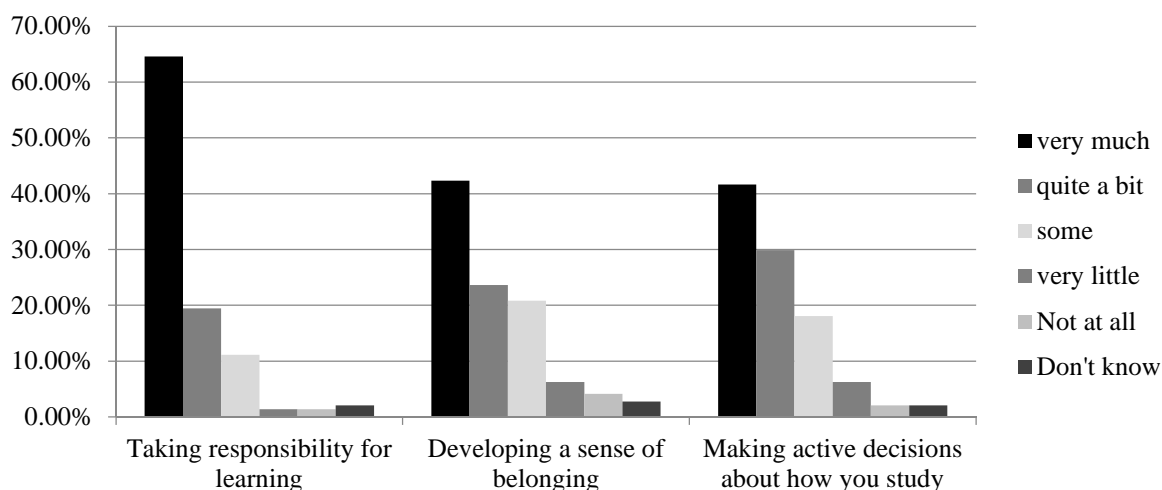
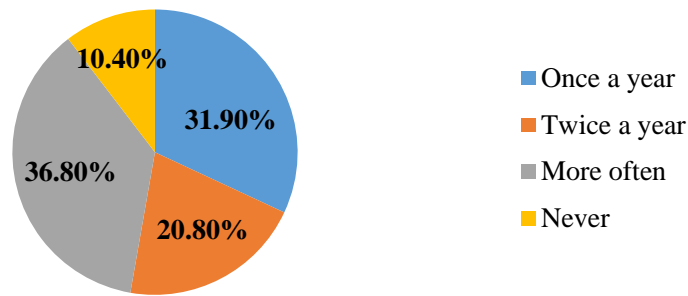


Figure 1 Students replies to the question “How much did your institution emphasise the following activities?”

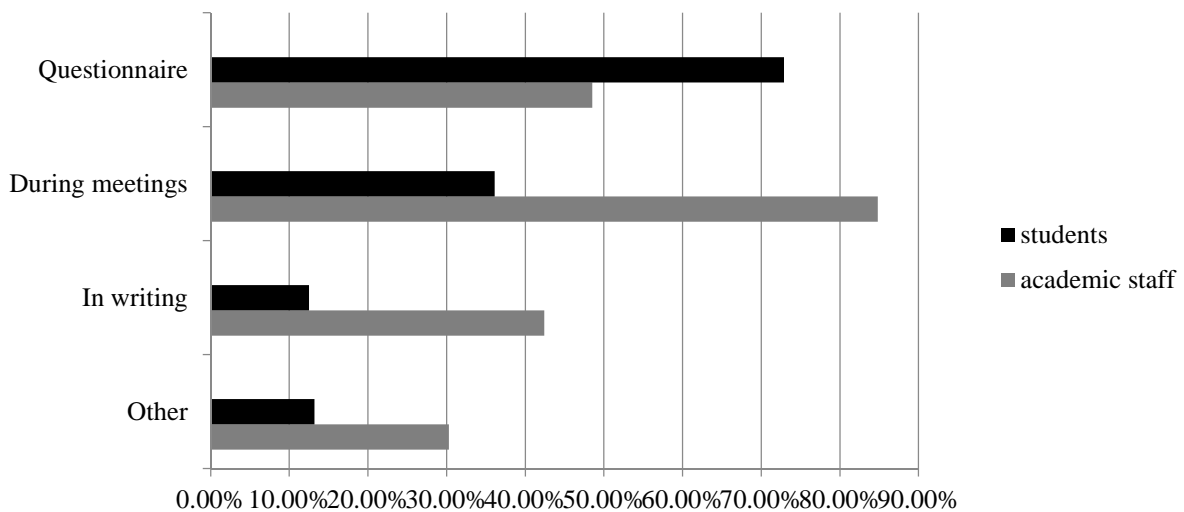
The role of feedback has been identified as crucial in achieving teaching and learning goals and objectives. It is therefore, there are four questions targeting the issue of feedback to students and academic staff. The questions specifically address the frequency and the format of feedback, what aspects are usually covered in the feedback, and whether respondents see any changes after the feedback is provided. If 84.8 % of academic staff replies show that they provide feedback twice or more per year, only 57.6 % of students think they provide feedback twice a year or more regularly – see Figure 2. One of the reasons could be that many junior year Bachelor students participated in the survey who did not have an opportunity of providing feedback at the beginning of their course. Some of them provided additional explanations in their questionnaires that they had not had an opportunity of providing feedback yet. At the same time, it should be noted that 89.6 % of students confirmed that they provided feedback at least once a year.

**Frequency of feedback**



**Figure 2 Student survey: How often are you asked to provide feedback during the academic year?**

The results of our research showed that 72.9 % of students specifically pointed out that they provided the feedback through questionnaires and over a third of student-respondents (36.1 %) mentioned feedback meetings through a group of representatives, while 12.5 % provided feedback by writing to academic and administrative staff and 13.2 % of respondents put ‘other’ in their replies – see Figure 2 for more details. In marked contrast to students, 84.8 % of academic staff provided feedback through the meetings and only 48.5 % mentioned questionnaires. It looks that academic staff provide their feedback through more channels to both students and senior managers and administrators at the university. 42.4 % of academic staff provided feedback in writing and 30.3 % used other channels of communication. These findings show some inconsistencies especially since the selected students for our project specifically mentioned the importance of meetings with student representatives for providing comprehensive feedback on various issues related to their teaching and learning.



**Figure 3 How the feedback is provided during the academic year?**

As shown in Figure 4, 72.9 % of students identified teaching as the main topic in their feedback, other important issues included the following: assessment (67.4 %), facilities (43.8 %), administration (42.4 %), library (35.4 %) and IT (28.5 %). It is interesting that teaching (96.9 %) and assessment (87.5 %) made the major part of feedback given by the academic staff. However, our research acknowledges that administration is also important in the feedback provided by teachers – 75 %. Overall, academic staff provide more holistic feedback and tend to include other aspects which have an impact on teaching and learning: facilities (68.8 %), IT (62.5 %), library (56.3 %) due to their role in the process of teaching and learning.

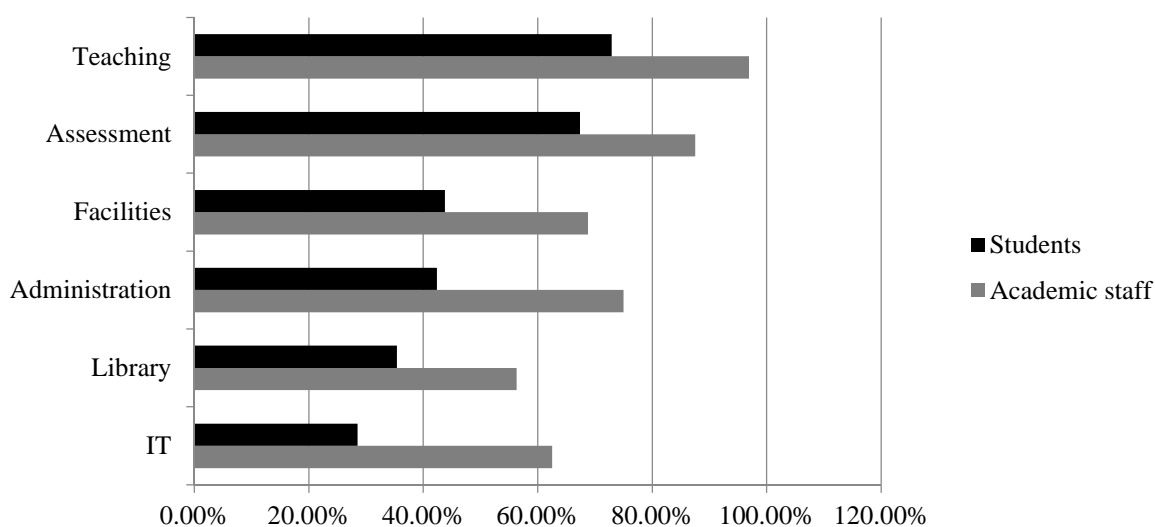


Figure 4 Aspects covered in feedback by students and academic staff

With regards to changes after the feedback was provided, 66.4 % of students and 75.9 % of staff replied that they saw changes. Somewhat lower figure for students can be explained by the number of junior students who participated in the survey and may not have had enough experience in university life.

In the last part of the questionnaires, students and academic staff were asked about their engagement in various university activities. Students were asked about developing a joint community of students and teachers, their contribution to course improvement and helping other students, involvement in other university activities, participation in extra-curricular and co-curricular activities, community-based projects, contribution or a presentation at an event. If academic staff showed active participation in almost all activities, students were more active in contributing to joint community of teachers and students (61 respondents) and helping other students (55 respondents) – see Figure 5 for more details.



## Students

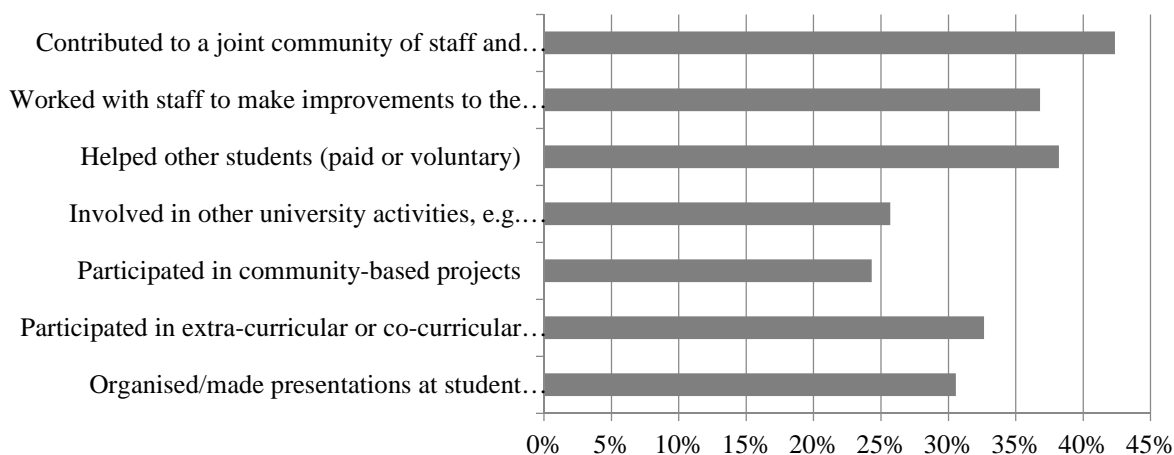


Figure 5 **Involvement of students in various activities at the university**

Survey results showed that there is room for enhancement in some areas directly or indirectly linked to student engagement. Students could involve more actively in community-based projects and numerous university activities which would enhance their learning and ensure better understanding of a wider context.

### **Feedback from selected students**

As part of our IMEP Project and in order to support our findings based on the analysis of surveys, two students were selected and asked to present two case studies showcasing positive experience of student engagement at the university. In consultations with their peers they produced two case studies of good practice in student engagement.

One of their case studies covered the system of Student Academic Representatives (StARs). Students on each course elect their StAR who makes a difference to the lives of London Metropolitan University students by raising issues around specific course-related areas such as tutor feedback, IT issues, accommodation, library resources or anything else which may have an impact on teaching and learning. Each StAR is responsible for gathering the views of their classmates, identifying and formulating the main issues and presenting them to the course team or course committee at the university which consists of academic staff involved in the teaching the course, IT and Library representatives. StARs present issues on behalf of all students and together with the academic staff and other colleagues discuss possible ways to rectify the current situation. They report back to classmates about the decisions of the course team/committee, share information and work closely with the course leader. This is an opportunity to

work closely with staff, university management, the Students' Union and the National Union of Students (NUS).

Another case study of good practice dealt with the participation in the Student Council which is the main representative body of the Students' Union. It is made up of around 89 students who represent a number of constituencies from across the university. The Student Council is there to discuss and debate issues which are of interest or concerns to students. It can raise its concerns to and be consulted by the university.

It is important to note that these case studies illustrated our data gathered during the survey. They showed that these activities offer further development of skills which enhance their learning and further employment opportunities. Among the skills they developed, students particularly stressed the importance of communication, interpersonal, teamwork skills which "will benefit students in transformative and sustainable ways" (Harrington et al., 2016: 115). Active involvement in these activities provides them with valuable experience for their learning and future employment.

## **Conclusions**

Our research analysed only some factors or rather actors in creating the culture of student engagement. The analysis of the data confirmed Trowler's argument that "it does not happen by magic" but requires certain prerequisites which ensure active engagement in teaching and learning (2010: 36). Institutions, academic staff and students need to work closely together in order to create the fertile ground for students to engage and maximise the effectiveness of teaching and learning.

One of the main findings of this research is that both students and teachers responded positively to the work of the institution to enhance communication and engage actively in teaching and learning. Both groups were actively involved in the provision of feedback to each other on a number of issues, while teaching and assessment were identified as the main topics in the surveys conducted by us.

The research confirms that the university sufficiently emphasises the importance of students' responsibility for their learning, however our data also shows that there is a scope for enhancement in certain aspects of shaping the community of staff and students and creating the atmosphere of being part of the community. The idea of creating an inclusive environment for engagement with teaching and learning was developed by scholars in the field of education (Kuh, 2005; Markwell, 2007), and students would like to see more active involvement. The university has to enhance the environment, relevant strategies and offer new opportunities in the changing landscape of the Higher Education in the UK. Even

small enhancement will make a big difference to all parties involved in the process of teaching and learning.

Our survey showed that students engage with feedback and understand its importance for continuous enhancement of their teaching and learning. 89.6 % of student respondents provided feedback at least once during the academic year. This figure could be even higher provided the survey covered only Master degree and Bachelor degree senior students. While the majority of student-respondents provided feedback through questionnaires and during meetings, academic staff respondents pointed out that the feedback was mostly given during the meetings – over 80 %. Both academic staff and students consider that teaching and assessment constitute key areas of feedback.

The analysis of the surveys and the case studies prepared by selected students show that the feedback channelled via StARs is effective, especially since student representatives have an opportunity to discuss issues with staff and establish ways for improvement during course committee meetings. This approach empowers students and enables them to contribute to the continuous enhancement of teaching and learning and engage creatively in various activities together with academic staff and colleagues working across the university.

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# ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНАЯ ПОДГОТОВКА БУДУЩИХ УЧИТЕЛЕЙ ТЕХНОЛОГИЙ НА ЭТАПЕ ВХОЖДЕНИЯ УКРАИНЫ В ЕВРОПЕЙСКОЕ ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНОЕ ПРОСТРАНСТВО

*Future Technology Teachers' Professional Training in Terms of  
Ukraine's Integration into the European Educational Space*

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**Abstract.** *The peculiarities and tendencies of educational space development in countries of Europe were characterized in the process of studying the European experience of future specialists' professional training. The current state of future Technology teachers' professional training in Ukraine was analyzed. The congruence of the Ukrainian educational system to the requirements of the European educational space was established. The ways of improving the professional staff training for the purpose of European integration are defined.*

**Keywords:** *professional training, Technology teacher, educational space, euro-integration, Bologna process, educational standards.*

## **Введение**

### ***Introduction***

В последнее время существенно активизируются процессы глобализации и культурно-образовательной интеграции народов. В таких условиях отдельные страны не могут работать и развиваться без единых подходов. Решить проблему может создание «европейского пространства», в частности в сфере образования. Базовые моменты данной идеи изложены в Болонской декларации.

Подготовка будущих профессионалов в различных сферах деятельности вообще и будущих учителей технологий в частности не возможна без ориентации на базовые требования единого образовательного пространства. Формирование такого пространства охватывает ряд этапов, которые многие европейские страны уже прошли: выработка единой структуры и уровней

системы высшего образования; одинаковый подход к измерению трудозатрат при освоении образовательных программ; создание единой системы оценивания результатов обучения. Вхождение Украины в единое образовательное пространство предполагает внесение изменений в систему подготовки учителей технологий.

**Цель статьи** состоит в обосновании путей профессиональной подготовки будущих учителей технологий с учетом требований европейского образовательного пространства.

**Объект исследования:** процесс профессиональной подготовки будущих специалистов в области образования.

**Предмет исследования:** содержание профессиональной подготовки будущих учителей технологий на этапе вхождения Украины в европейское образовательное пространство.

**Гипотеза исследования:** совершенствование содержания подготовки будущих учителей технологий с учетом европейского опыта ускорит вхождение Украины в образовательное пространство Европы.

### **Методы исследования** *Research methods*

Изучение нормативных документов, научной, научно-педагогической, учебной литературы по проблеме исследования, анализ, систематизация, обобщение.

### **Результаты исследования** *Results of research*

Проблемы профессионализации высшего педагогического образования пребывают в поле зрения зарубежных ученых Дж. Равена (2002), М. Трова (2001), А. Хуторского (2017), и др. Среди украинских ученых данной проблемой занимаются В. Кремень (2004), Н. Ничкало (2008) и др.

Стратегия интеграции Украины в Европейский союз обозначила основные направления культурно-образовательного и научно-технического внедрения европейских норм и стандартов в образование, науку и технику, репрезентации и распространения собственных культурных и научно-технических достижений в ЕС. Эти вопросы нашли отражение в нормативных документах в области развития национального высшего образования, в частности: Национальной стратегии развития образования в Украине на период до 2021 года (2013 г.), Законе Украины «О высшем образовании» (2014 г.) и др.

Анализируя состояние высшего образования в Украине, М. З. Згуровский, ректор НТУУ «КПИ», академик НАН Украины отмечает, что государство должно устранить существенные диспропорции системы высшего образования. К главным из них он относит: отсутствие соответствия образовательно-квалификационных уровней бакалавра и магистра требованиям работодателей, неопределенность места этих уровней на рынке труда, избыточное количество направлений, специальностей и специализаций высшей школы. Как отмечает автор, в Украине существует 76 направлений подготовки специалистов и 584 специальности, по которым эта подготовка осуществляется. Это в 2–2,5 раза превышает аналогичные показатели в США, Англии, Японии (Zhurovs'ky, 2009).

Подписание Украиной Болонской декларации, направленной на структурное реформирование национальных систем высшего образования и создание единого европейского научно-образовательного пространства, открывает одно из направлений интеграции Украины в Европу. Ей предоставляется реальная возможность получить равноправный статус в европейском образовательном пространстве, который определяет развитие страны на целое поколение вперед. Политика украинского правительства в начале XXI века и присоединение к Болонскому процессу определили реформаторские шаги Украины к европейской интеграции в сфере высшего образования. Это прежде всего новая философия образовательной деятельности, новые принципы организации учебного процесса, новый тип отношений между преподавателем и студентом, это, в конце концов, новые технологии освоения знаний и полная прозрачность учебного процесса.

Постепенно Украина движется к выполнению болонских соглашений и в соответствии с ними в стране воплощается в жизнь высших учебных заведений ряд реформаторских шагов. Это введение кредитно-модульной системы обучения, что позволяет максимально качественно усваивать учебный материал за минимальный срок, используя структурно-логическое изложение сложных и важнейших теоретических положений логическими частями – модулями; осознание значения планированию своего времени и формирование соответствующих умений; повышение интереса и углубление знаний по направлениям, которые наиболее востребованы в будущей практической деятельности; усиление роли самостоятельной работы в профессиональной подготовке специалиста, формирование навыков самостоятельного приобретения новых знаний и умений; возможность систематического контроля знаний студентов.

Одним из требований европейского образовательного пространства является прозрачность и легкость для понимания дипломов, степеней и квалификаций; ориентация преимущественно на двухступенчатую структуру

высшего образования (бакалавр, магистр) как условие повышения конкурентоспособности специалистов.

Какая же ситуация по этому вопросу в нашей стране? В соответствии с Положением об образовательно-квалификационных уровнях (ступенчатое образование) ОКУ «бакалавр» считается базовым, то есть неполным высшим образованием, и предусматривает продление обучения по программе специалиста или магистра. Самостоятельность бакалаврской программы достаточно относительна. Трудоустройство бакалавров является проблематичным, поскольку потребности рынка труда в бакалаврах еще не сформированы. Обычно требуются специалисты с высшим образованием без указания степени. Такие выражения, как «нужны бакалавры» или «нужны магистры» не употребляются.

В обществе еще не выработался дифференцированный подход к различным уровням образования как в моральном, так и материальном планах. Механизм востребованности работников высокого профессионального уровня не работает: лицу, получившему квалификацию магистра, не предоставляются официально узаконенные преференции в виде отдельных начальных должностей, высокой заработной платы и тому подобное (Desiatov, 2014).

Законом Украины «О высшем образовании» (2014 г.) предусмотрено разграничение следующих уровней высшего образования: начального (короткого цикла) высшего образования; первого (бакалаврского); второго (магистерского); третьего (образовательно-научного и научного). Получение высшего образования на каждом уровне предусматривает успешное выполнение студентом соответствующей образовательной (образовательно-профессиональной или образовательно-научной) или научной программы и является основанием для присуждения соответствующей степени высшего образования: младший бакалавр, бакалавр, магистр, доктор философии, доктор наук.

Подготовка будущего учителя технологий до сих пор в высших учебных заведениях Украины осуществляется по четырем уровням высшего образования, а именно: младший специалист, бакалавр, специалист и магистр.

Базовым государственным нормативным документом для каждого уровня образования является Государственный стандарт высшего образования. До сих пор он включал Образовательно-квалификационную характеристику и Образовательно-профессиональную программу.

Образовательно-квалификационная характеристика (ОКХ) отражает социальный заказ на учителя и устанавливает отраслевые квалификационные требования к социально-производственной деятельности выпускника высшего учебного заведения. В ней обобщаются требования в соответствии



с основными целями, которые формируют содержание его образования, то есть требования к компетентности (знания, умения), мировоззрению, общественным и профессиональным качествам. ОКХ содержит перечень нормативных документов, на которые делаются ссылки; производственных функций, типичных задач педагогической деятельности и умений по их решению; способностей решать проблемы и задачи социальной деятельности и умений, которые являются отражением наличия этих способностей; требований к профессиональному отбору; требований к государственной аттестации выпускников высших учебных заведений. Таким образом, в ее основу положено знаниево-понятийный подход. Проведенный анализ действующих Образовательно-квалификационных характеристик подготовки будущих учителей технологий на разных образовательных уровнях показал, что они недостаточно учитывают потребности современной школы, социальной и культурной сфер общества. Вследствие этого возникло несоответствие между созданной моделью учителя технологий и реальными требованиями к нему, что является одной из существенных причин некомпетентности его на рабочем месте.

Образовательно-профессиональная программа подготовки учителя технологий соответствующего уровня высшего образования является государственным нормативным документом, в котором устанавливаются требования к содержанию, объему и уровню образовательной и профессиональной подготовки. Она используется при разработке и корректировке соответствующих учебных планов и программ учебных дисциплин; разработке средств диагностики уровня качества образовательно-профессиональной подготовки учителя; определении содержания обучения как базы для овладения новыми специальностями, квалификациями; определении содержания обучения в системе переподготовки и повышения квалификации. Анализ действующих в Украине Образовательно-профессиональных программ, по которым осуществляется подготовка будущих учителей технологий, показал, что они недостаточно учитывают особенности практической деятельности современного учителя технологий, а значит, обеспечивают недостаточную его подготовку. В то же время участие высшего образования Украины в болонских преобразованиях должно быть направлено на его перспективное развитие и приобретение новых европейских признаков, среди которых важное место принадлежит максимальному приближению содержания подготовки учителя технологий к его будущей практической деятельности с учетом ее специфических особенностей и требований.

Какого же учителя ждет украинская школа сегодня? Ответ на этот вопрос должны дать нормативные документы, по которым работает школа сегодня и которые определяют направления ее развития в будущем.

Сегодня в Украине общеобразовательные учебные заведения II и III ступеней работают в соответствии с положениями Государственного стандарта базового и полного общего среднего образования (2011), которые определяют требования к образованности учащихся основной и старшей школ. Государственный стандарт основывается на принципах личностно ориентированного, компетентностного и деятельностного подходов, которые реализуются в образовательных областях и отражаются в результативных составляющих содержания базового и полного общего среднего образования. При этом личностно ориентированный подход к обучению должен обеспечивать развитие академических, социокультурных, социально-психологических и других способностей учащихся. Компетентностный подход способствует формированию ключевых и предметных компетентностей (Ministry of Education, 2011).

К ключевым компетентностям относят: умение учиться, общаться на государственном, родном и иностранном языках, математическую и базовые компетентности в области естествознания и техники, информационно-коммуникационную, социальную, гражданскую, общекультурную, предпринимательскую и здоровьесберегающую компетентности, а в предметных (отраслевых) – коммуникативную, литературную, художественную, межпредметную эстетическую, естественно-научную и математическую, проектно-технологическую и информационно-коммуникационную, обществоведческую, историческую и здоровьесберегающую компетентности (Ministry of Education, 2016).

Предметные компетентности определяют содержание конкретной образовательной области или предмета, и для их описания используются такие ключевые понятия: «знает и понимает», «умеет и применяет», «выявляет отношение и оценивает» и другие (Ministry of Education, 2011).

Будущий учитель технологий должен обеспечивать образовательную область «Технологии». Ее целью является формирование и развитие проектно-технологической и информационно-коммуникационной компетентностей, необходимых для реализации творческого потенциала учащихся и их социализации в обществе.

Образовательная область состоит из информационно-коммуникационного и технологического компонентов. Содержание каждой образовательной области структурируется и реализуется учебными предметами и курсами. Так, содержательным наполнением образовательной области «Технологии» являются следующие общеобразовательные предметы: трудовое обучение, черчение, информатика, факультативы, курсы за выбором, кружки технологического профиля (базовое среднее образование), а также учебный предмет «технологии», специализации профильного обучения и специальности профессионального обучения в

рамках профильного обучения в пределах технологического профиля (профильное среднее образование).

Содержание предметов образовательной области «Технологии» имеет четко выраженную прикладную направленность и реализуется преимущественно путем применения практических методов и форм организации занятий (Ministry of Education, 2011).

Основным условием реализации технологического компонента является технологическая и информационная деятельность, осуществляемая от появления творческого замысла до реализации его в готовом продукте.

Задачами обучения технологиям являются: формирование целостного представления о развитии материального производства; роль техники, проектирования и технологий в развитии общества; ознакомление учащихся с производственной средой, традиционными, современными и перспективными технологиями обработки материалов, декоративно-прикладным искусством; реализация способностей и интересов учащихся в сфере технологической деятельности; создание условий для самореализации, развития предприимчивости и профессионального самоопределения каждого ученика; овладение умениями оценивать собственные результаты предметно-преобразовательной деятельности и уровень сформированности ключевых и предметных компетенций (Ministry of Education, 2011).

Реформа общеобразовательной школы в Украине продолжается и сегодня. В результате общественно-политического диалога продолжительностью около трех лет были разработаны и вынесены на всеобщее обсуждение концептуальные основы реформирования средней школы «Новая украинская школа». После широкого обсуждения общественностью, учета предложений граждан, общественных организаций, отдельных педагогов и коллективов учебных заведений, департаментов образования местных органов власти была утверждена Концепция новой украинской школы решением коллегии МОН (октябрь 2016 г.).

В основу Концепции заложено девять ключевых компонентов новой школы, а именно: новое содержание; мотивированный учитель; сквозной процесс воспитания; децентрализация и эффективное управление; педагогика, в основе которой лежит партнерство между учеником, учителем и родителями; ориентация на потребности ученика в образовательном процессе; новая структура школы; справедливое распределение публичных средств и современная образовательная среда (Ministry of Education, 2016). В Концепции выделено десять ключевых компетентностей: общение на государственном, родном и иностранных языках; математическая компетентность; основные компетентности в естественных науках и технологиях; информационно-цифровая компетентность; умения учиться на протяжении всей жизни; инициативность и предприимчивость; социальная и

общественная компетентности; осведомленность и самовыражение в сфере культуры; экономическая грамотность и здоровый образ жизни (Ministry of Education, 2016).

Министр образования Украины Л. Гриневич отмечает, что новые образовательные стандарты, которые разрабатываются в соответствии с Концепцией, будут основываться на «Рекомендациях европейского парламента и совета Европы относительно формирования ключевых компетентностей образования на протяжении всей жизни» (Ministry of Education, 2016).

Большая часть указанных в Концепции компетентностей формируется, совершенствуется или используется в процессе технологического образования, то есть на уроках трудового обучения, технологий, на факультативах, курсах по выбору, кружках технологического профиля.

Указанные в Концепции компетентности можно формировать только в специально созданном в школе образовательном пространстве. Эта задача под силу только учителям новой формации, с новым стилем мышления, иной теоретической и практической подготовкой. Чтобы выпускники высших учебных заведений, обеспечивающих подготовку учителя технологий, и их дипломы были конкурентоспособными, необходима разработка и внедрение в жизнь образовательных стандартов нового поколения, в которых системообразующим ядром станет набор компетентностей, которыми должен обладать выпускник вуза, то есть внедрение компетентностного подхода в систему высшего образования. Указанная проблема стала предметом исследования многих ученых, среди которых: С. Гончаренко (2005), Н. Ничкало (2008) и др. Опыт проектирования образовательных стандартов в других странах изучали Л. Даниленко (2003), В. Кремень (2004) и др.

Однако уровень внедрения компетентностного подхода в стандарты высшего образования стран ЕС остается разным. На данный момент Украина до сих пор находится на этапе разработки новых стандартов для подготовки педагогических работников в целом и учителей технологий в частности.

Вынесенный на широкое обсуждение ведущих ученых Украины вариант стандарта подготовки учителей технологий предлагает в качестве базовых компетентностей выделить следующие: интегральную, общие и специальные (профессиональные, предметные).

Успешное освоение определенных дисциплин должно формировать у будущих учителей технологий соответствующие компетенции: общенаучные, общекультурные, социально-личностные, инструментальные и профессиональные.

Компетентностный же подход предполагает выделение профессиональных компетенций, необходимых будущему учителю

технологий и на их основе построение ОПП. Практическая подготовка специалистов является обязательным компонентом образовательной программы и предусматривает различные формы: приобретение опыта педагогической деятельности во время прохождения педагогических практик разного вида; привлечение студентов к исследованиям преподавателей и их участие в комплексных исследованиях, результатами которых должны стать курсовые, дипломные или магистерские работы; производственное обучение; стажировки; волонтерство; привлечение студентов к деятельности внешкольных учреждений и т.д.

Следующим шагом должны стать методические новшества, направленные на обновление содержания образования. Повышение качества обучения будущего учителя технологий осуществляется на основе пересмотра традиционных форм и методов обучения, индивидуализации и дифференциации обучения, широкого применения информационного обеспечения. Учебно-воспитательный процесс в университете предполагает использование различных форм организации учебной деятельности студентов: лекции разных видов, семинарские, практические, лабораторные занятия с использованием активных и интерактивных методов обучения, проблемное обучение, дистанционное обучение, использование метода проектов в процессе изучения дисциплин профессиональной и практической подготовки и т.д.

Для успешной реализации цели профессиональной подготовки будущих учителей технологий используют систему традиционных и инновационных методов стимулирования и мотивации студентов к познавательной деятельности, добиваются обеспечения эффективной обратной связи.

### **Выводы** *Conclusions*

Проведенное исследование показывает, что Украина уже сделала ряд шагов на пути вхождения в европейское образовательное пространство, в частности, были выполнены требования Болонской декларации, а именно: внедрены новая философия образовательной деятельности, новые принципы организации учебного процесса, новый тип отношений между преподавателем и студентом, в конце концов, новые технологии освоения знаний и полная прозрачность учебного процесса.

В то же время предстоит большая работа в направлении согласования с европейским сообществом образовательных ступеней, специальностей, специализаций, национальной рамки квалификаций, разработки новых подходов к организации и методике осуществления образовательного процесса с сохранением прогрессивных национальных особенностей.

Украина находится на стадии создания новых стандартов образования в соответствии с «Рекомендациями Европейского Парламента и Совета Европы относительно формирования ключевых компетентностей образования на протяжении всей жизни» (2006).

### **Summary**

Integration in all spheres of social activity, especially in education, became the priority tendency of modern development. Therefore, creating a single European educational space is recognized as an urgent problem. This idea is based on such two fundamental principles as the generality of educational professional levels and the requirements for the qualifications. And this causes the educational systems reforming in all aspects.

Ukraine's steps to meeting the requirements of the Bologna Declaration were analysed in the research. Among them are: new philosophy of educational activity, new principles of educational process organizing, new type of relationship between the teacher and the student, new technologies of mastering knowledge and full transparency of the educational process, which were implemented.

At the same time coordinating with the European community educational levels, specialties, specializations, the national framework of qualifications as well as developing new approaches to the educational process organizing and its methodology taking into account and preserving progressive national peculiarities is necessary.

Ukraine is in the process of creating new standards of education in accordance with the "Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council on key competences for lifelong learning" (2006).

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## CHANGE OF LECTURERS' ROLE IN APPLYING PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING IN UNIVERSITY STUDIES

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**Abstract.** *The article deals with the change in lecturers' role that takes place when traditional study process is being replaced by problem-based learning. In problem-based learning a lecturer becomes a facilitator not authoritatively transferring knowledge to students but contributing to the construction of social knowledge, in which an important role is given to students' knowledge conditioned by their unique experience, learners' interaction, their relations with various subjects of social environment. Together with lecturer's changing role problem-based learning also provokes the transformation of power relations in university studies. Facilitation that makes up the basis of a lecturer's role in problem-based learning causes quite many challenges because it is an unstructured process requiring lecturer's ability to flexibly respond to students' learning needs, provide them adequate support in a right way and time, etc.*

**Keywords:** *lecturers' role, problem-based learning, university studies.*

### Introduction

Problem-based learning (PBL) strategy implies specific transformation of the conventional lecture-based learning process. Transformation involves the shift from teacher-centred to learner-centred study process (Dole et al., 2016). Roles performed by lecturers shift accordingly. In a conventional learning process, a lecturer is the person who manages and conveys knowledge, while students form a large passive audience. The lecturer provides references to learning sources, acts as a curriculum expert and assesses the learning outcomes. In PBL, a lecturer is assigned with the role of a facilitator, consultant. The lecturer's function of control over the study process is replaced by the main function of providing favourable conditions enabling students to demonstrate critical thinking, find appropriate sources for problem analysis and solving, create knowledge rather than consume the knowledge discovered by another person and furnished to them. PBL involves student learning in groups that often gather without the lecturer's knowledge or intervention. As a result, the lecturer



is no longer responsible for the entire learning process and is not capable of assessing students' achievements on his/her own.

Problem-based learning features change in lecturer-student relations. The two parties become able to learn from each other, cooperate in problem analysis and solving. The former power relationship is deformed and new trends of the relationship emerge. Under the experience-based learning approach (see Andresen et al., 1999), students' social experience becomes empowered, and students' accounts of their living world, relations with their surrounding social environment become important for the learning process, which is not given credit in the conventional lecture-based study process.

Nonetheless, lecturers are often reluctant to let go of their traditional roles and, as soon as faced with certain difficulties in the PBL process, are inclined to return to conventional teaching and learning methods (Dolmans et al., 2001). Challenges emerging in the PBL process often prompt lecturers to apply it in a fragmented way, often returning to conventional roles and not covering the entire rationale behind PBL that demonstrates its true potential only if applied consistently throughout the study process. Lecturers have been noted to apply mixed-type problem-based learning (Lenkauskaitė & Mažeikienė, 2012), where the role of a facilitator is combined with the conventional role of lecture delivery and curriculum conveyance.

Relevance of the topic is implied by the demand for student-centred learning, which could be met by application of PBL. Lecturer's roles that largely determine the process and outcomes of PBL should also be considered in a more comprehensive manner as part of the attempt to validate the PBL effectiveness. Emphasis on the importance of students' active involvement, their team work, weakening of the lecturer's role of the epistemic authority that conveys knowledge does not mean that the lecturer "does not do anything" or becomes less important. Research shows that curriculum change is closely related to lecturers' belief (Wilkie, 2004). Roles performed by the lecturer in the PBL process are fairly unconventional if viewed from the conventional standpoint on the university studies. The emerging challenges, fragmented application of the role of a facilitator signal the need for more comprehensive analysis of the lecturer's roles that are subject to transformation in the PBL process.

The research aim is to analyse the transformation of lecturer's roles and the associated challenges in application of problem-based learning in university studies.

The paper follows the method of scientific literature analysis.

## **The Role of a Facilitator in Problem-Based Learning**

Analysis of student-lecturer interaction on the curriculum level implies that a lecturer traditionally is the authority figure and source of information, while in PBL, as students take over the learning initiative, the lecturer becomes a facilitator who provides feedback (Azer, 2008). Control-associated lecturer's role in the PBL process could be noticed to diminish, while the importance of the role related to self-directed learning empowerment of students increases.

Transformation of the lecturer's role could be identified throughout the study process. His/her role primarily manifests itself in adoption of the appropriate ill-structured problem, which would encourage discussions among students, raise a cognitive conflict (see Piaget, 1972) and provoke their learning process. During PBL, a lecturer performs the role of a facilitator (Savin-Baden, 2007) who provides assistance to the PBL student team to ensure collective work and progress in problem analysis and solving.

A lecturer who strives to perform the facilitator's role properly needs to let go of the conventional roles of being an expert, delivering a lecture, presenting the entire curriculum, information and sources available to him/her. In PBL, other actors may emerge next to the lecturer and become new learning sources. Besides the students who act as teachers to themselves and to each other, other lecturers, visiting practitioners, other staff members of the school of higher education, e.g., librarians, may as well join the learning process (see Eldredge, 2004).

PBL is associated with real-life problem solving, and participants of the social world related to the problems analysed and solved by the students, in one way or another, often become involved in the process of university studies. For this reason, the lecturer is no longer capable of controlling the entire knowledge flow, but may support students in understanding the importance of certain information, make valuable input into development of the discussions. Participants of the PBL process face the postdisciplinarity phenomenon (Savin-Baden & Wilkie, 2004), where real-life problem analysis requires multidisciplinary knowledge, and problem solving no longer resorts to an academic setting only, but may also take place in schools, communities, business companies, etc.

The PBL process involves considerable share of time spend by students in their heterogeneous teams formed of students with diverse experiences and accumulating diverse information from various learning sources. It is important that the lecturer listens attentively to the team discussions, asks appropriate questions that activate the available knowledge and provoke new knowledge in order to facilitate students' learning and problem analysis. Lecturer's assistance should be consistent with the issues faced by the team. Different situation

require different assistance in PBL (Savin-Baden & Major, 2004). A. J. Neville (1999), who has analysed lecturer's role in PBL processes, has arrived at the conclusion that lecturer's role cannot be the same for all PBL situations. The role varies depending on the students' level, study programme.

Facilitation may cross different levels until students are able to demonstrate self-directed learning. Certain authors refer to this process as *scaffolding* (e.g., Salonen & Vauras, 2006), which literally means temporary support in the process of building a structure. In educational context, this metaphor for support also means temporary structure employed by educators to assist learners in problem analysis and solving. This assistance may, however, diminish gradually. It is important to employ an appropriate method of assistance to students and use it not because it is conventional and more simple, but because it is timely and may provide the best support to students in learning, analysing and solving the existing and future problems that may arise not only during the studies, but in their professional activity as well. It is therefore important that lecturers are positive towards students' self-guided learning and put effort in approaching this process. Proper facilitation manifests itself on the level of knowledge, abilities and attitudes (Pourshafie & Murray-Harvey, 2013).

It is important that the facilitator in the PBL process asks appropriate questions, is open to various questions from students and ready to participate in the discussions (Chan, 2016). Authors analysing PBL have noted that the success of facilitation is related to proper communication that implies minimum intervention, maintenance of mutual relations, recognition of differences between individual students, assistance in achieving the expected learning outcomes, etc. (Chan, 2016). It is important to pay attention not only to verbal, but also nonverbal communication (Savin-Baden & Major, 2004), which may contribute to successful development of discussions, create an inviting learning environment. Lecturers' role has been noted to change in terms of understanding the importance of dialogue in the learning process, not only between the facilitator and an individual student, but between the students as well (Wilkie, 2004). All the efforts for the purpose of promoting successful interaction and communication between lecturers and students as recommended by the authors analysing PBL suggest that their roles in the study process are subject to transformation, with the lecturer becoming a fully-fledged participant in problem analysis and decision making.

Assessment of students' achievements in PBL is no longer the prerogative of a lecturer only. The function of a facilitator is, however, important in terms of feedback provision. PBL puts emphasis on formative assessment throughout the study process that may make significant contribution to successful outcomes of the PBL. Feedback provided by the facilitator to students should be informal and not abstract (Savin-Baden & Major, 2004). It has been emphasized that the

lecturer should provide feedback through his/her own prism, specifying his/her opinion and reasoning, rather than referring to some aspects *to be corrected* in PBL. Hence, it is also the lecturer's rhetoric in PBL that should be oriented towards discussions and search for a consensus rather than simply verbalising declarative statements and demonstrating positions of the epistemic authority.

### **Transformation of Power Relations along with Change of Lecturer's Role in PBL**

Lecturers' role in the conventional study process as of the epistemic authorities who passively convey the curriculum to student audience emphasizes unequal relations of the study process participants. Pursuant to the theory behind power relations by M. Foucault (see Volkers, 2008), traditional education receives criticism for instrumentalizing lecturer-student relations and putting all efforts into creating conditions for knowledge conveyance.

PBL is based on transition to creation of the knowledge that empowers students' active involvement. Supporting student-centred learning process is an integral part of lecturer's role in creation of positive, friendly, open mutual relations with students in view of their diversity and need to develop the applicable knowledge (Ching et al., 2002). The altered relations between lecturers and students have positive effect on micro-climate inside the classroom (Dole et al., 2016), which leads to better quality of studies, encourages students to ask questions of interest and engage in discussions.

Researchers have been noting more democratic social relations in a successful PBL process compared to conventional classes (Barrett, 2004). Democratic relations in PBL imply diversity of opinions, opportunity to express own position, hear different stakeholders related to the problem analysed. Hence, the "truth" in the study process does not belong to an epistemic authority, but is rather the most promising interpretation discovered by consensus (Gordon, 2009).

Nonetheless, researchers analysing PBL (e.g., Wilkie, 2004) have noted that the shift from lecturer-centred to student-centred learning is not immediate, as both the emotional and cognitive domains of participants in the study process should change gradually. It has been noted that PBL discussions are sometimes focused on facilitators rather than empower the students. This means that the teaching and learning methods applied are not a guarantee of equal relations or expected students' active involvement.

One of the most apparent methods of establishing long-standing power relations in education is assurance of control. The term *panopticon* employed by M. Foucault (1975) could be used in analysing the control important to university studies. Panopticon is an architectural form featuring a central tower

occupied by a watchman (in this case – a lecturer) and cells, where individuals (who may be the students) may be placed, one in each cell. A person is perfectly individualized and always visible, but the side walls prevent him from establishing any contact with the occupants of neighbouring cells. He/she becomes an object of information, but never a subject of communication. The system of panopticon secures order, the power of an external authority, separation of learners from each other. This prevents them from cooperating and denies any possibility for manifestation of epistemic diversity.

Examination is another tool clearly reflecting power relations in university studies. Conventional examination involves a student reproducing, repeating what has been presented to him/her by the lecturer. The student is required to prove that he/she has successfully mastered the information. The lecturer demonstrates his/her power at the examination by combining the technique of hierarchical observation and normalizing sanction (Foucault, 1975). In conventional studies, examination serves largely to separate students from each other and apply a sanction according to the level of detail that the students have succeeded in demonstrating while reproducing the curriculum. Hardly would the role of a lecturer who applies sanctions, oversees order be consistent with the student-centred PBL and his/her empowerment in the study process.

In the process of change of university studies, and with more emphasis being put on the importance of identification and solution of real-life problems during the studies, the role of a lecturer is also subject to considerable transformation. In the PBL process, the system of panopticon is replaced by open and active cooperation between all participants of the study process, discussions that destroy hierarchical relations and establish equal, democratic relations. In PBL, examination is also subject to essential transformation. It no longer performs the function of sanctioning, a lecturer is no longer an all-knowing expert or a supervisor who controls the entire study process. In this case, students' achievements are assessed not only by the lecturer, but also by the students, other participants of the PBL process.

While performing the function of an assistant, the lecturer needs to trust students more and delegate a great share of responsibility to them, thus considerably restricting own power. This becomes particularly evident in larger groups of students, where lecturers find it difficult to assist, control all students, observe their team dynamics, etc. In this case, the lecturer may assign students to be his/her assistants in handling PBL functions in teams and inform the lecturer on important aspects of problem analysis. B. J. Duch (2001) has referred to this principle as the peer tutor model and, in its description, has noted that a student who has already completed the course could become such a mediator who assists the participants of university studies.

Analysis of lecturer's role often shows that mechanisms of power are rather subtle in the practice of education and difficult to recognize. As a result, such mechanisms often succeed in avoiding critical transformation. Having analysed the links between the theory of power relations and issues in education, A. Volkers (2008) asserts that more reflexive thinking would be desirable in attempts to identify power relation in the process of (self-)education. He believes that practicing educators rarely view their activity as implementation of power. In shifting their focus on equal, democratic relations in university studies, lecturers should make critical assessment of own role an integral part of their activity.

### **Challenges of the Lecturer's Changing Role**

With the conventional study process transforming into PBL, lecturers face various challenges that may provoke concern or even hostility towards PBL. Participants of the study process often have concerns that their regular work model might be ruined, find it difficult to understand and accept new roles, duties, worry whether the learning outcomes will be measured clearly and assessed properly or not (Margetson, 1997; Hung et al., 2008).

For PBL to encompass the entire study process rather than remain a fragmented technique, the essential transformation in understanding of what teaching and learning are must take place. This is particularly challenging for lecturers whose previous activity has involved lecture delivery and instruction (Hmelo-Silver, 2004). Hence, a lecturer must prepare himself/herself for PBL application by both upgrading own abilities in empowerment of students in the study process and changing own attitudes towards the lecturer's role.

Initially, lecturers who start applying PBL often find it difficult to let go of the control they used to enjoy and learn to share the responsibility. They habitually make attempt to ask PBL teams specific questions that may show a very clear path towards solution of a problem rather than encourage students to find this path themselves (Savin-Baden & Wilkie, 2004). In provision of information to the maximum extent possible, lecturers try to keep the control, as they are convinced that students will not gain the necessary knowledge in any other way. Understanding facilitation theoretically often turns into giving instructions to students in practice. Lecturer's attempts to become an equal member of a PBL team may also be challenging. In this case, it is important to be aware of the possibility for the lecturer's word to become decisive in analysing and solving problems.

Concern about the loss of control in the PBL process is quite often replaced by educators' astonishment that the learners are capable of controlling their learning (Dole et al., 2016). Hence, the first step in the transformation of

educators' role – letting go of the control functions – may become the prerequisite for students' self-guided learning.

It should be noted that a considerable share of challenges is faced by lectures not only at the stage of preparation for PBL or its beginning, but also in the course of PBL, during students' team work. A PBL facilitator must be prepared for the possibility of disputes and conflicts, negative group dynamics in student teams (Hmelo-Silver, 2004). Students often become disappointed in team work, if not all group members contribute equally to problem analysis and solving, some of the students are even inclined to not attend the PBL sessions or do not study individually at the designated time and are incapable of demonstrating effective support to discussion (Dolmans et al., 2001).

Preventing students from feeling disappointment in PBL team work or helping them improve their team work is not always an easy task for lecturers. One of the reasons is that lecturers tend to address difficulties emerging in PBL from the lecturer-centred perspective. Authors analysing PBL (Dolmans et al., 2001) have noted that, having faced inadequate preparation for team work, lecturer sometimes decides to deliver lecture on the topic that the students have been expected to study individually and discuss in the team.

Lecturers, however, should change their role and empower students more, even in more complicated situations. For example, lecturers are recommended to encourage students to explain information using own words, convey it to each other, apply the information received to various situations, etc. This stimulates students' sense of responsibility for own learning and is in line with the principles of PBL – the student-centred learning approach. The issue of non-attendance of a PBL session could be solved by application of formative assessment throughout the study process, empowerment of students to assess other student's and own contribution into problem analysis.

Uncertainty in the notion of facilitation, necessity to align own actions with the unique learning context present considerable challenge to lecturers who apply PBL: “good facilitation is not about methods, but about possessing an astute awareness of the unique learning situations in the classroom, and being able to respond appropriately to each situation such that possibilities for learning are created” (Goh, 2014, p. 160). Avoidance of uncertainty, fear of losing control, concern about insufficiently conveyed curriculum are the signs of the period of transition from conventional study process to PBL that reflect the necessity for change of the lecturer's role.

A lecturer has to be fully aware that students' learning depends on a number of components, such as motivation, aptitude, self-perception, socialisation, gender, cultural, social background, etc. (Weber, 2007). More complex situation emerges where non-conventional social actors become involved in the study process. The lecturer is therefore required to be able to

control this diversity and motivate the students to recognize the attributes of this diversity and make use of it as of the potential in the studies rather than view it as an obstacle towards PBL goals.

### **Conclusions**

Problem-based learning as a student-centred educational strategy implies transformation of conventional studies, including the lecturer's role. Lecturer's role in PBL is best defined by the concept "facilitator", meaning that a lecturer becomes a person who facilitates students' activity in problem analysis and solving, creates favourable conditions for students to engage in self-guided learning.

Lecturer's changing role implies new student-lecturer power relations. The control mechanisms, expression of the epistemic authority, sanctioning examination techniques prevailing in conventional studies are replaced by discussions between students and lecturers on equal terms, empowerment of new study actors in PBL. The change of power relations is only possible if the hegemonic power is recognized and acknowledged as unacceptable. Lecturer's reflexive self-assessment of his/her role and positive attitude towards the change may help identify and eliminate the power mechanisms manifesting themselves in a subtle way in the educational discourse.

Ill-structured problem, new actors in the study process, various sources, learners' varying experiences make the PBL process quite complex. Lecturers' roles determined by the PBL specifics, unstructured facilitator's activity, requirement to adapt to various situations in a flexible manner present plenty of challenges, in particular, where lecturer's previous experience has been related predominately to delivery of conventional lectures, summative assessment, and student instruction. Nonetheless, lecturers' desire to master the new roles, overcome the emerging challenges may stimulate rich discussions, expression of diverse attitudes, students' self-guided learning, discovery of innovative, creative problem analysis paths and solutions, which corresponds to the essence behind PBL.

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# CONCEPTUALISATION OF CULTURE PHENOMENA BY PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

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**Abstract.** *Cultural awareness has become the centre of modern language education that reflects a greater understanding of the inseparability of language and culture, as well as the need to train students for intercultural communication in the globalised world. Realising it or not, language teachers cannot avoid conveying impressions of another culture: language cannot be separated from the culture in which it is embedded. Therefore, while training a future teacher of a foreign language it is essential to develop his/her cultural awareness, i.e. the knowledge and understanding of the conventions, customs and beliefs of another culture, as well as abilities to interpret, relate and provide critical judgement of one's native and foreign cultures. Hence, the current article focuses on the conceptualisation of culture phenomena of pre-service teachers of foreign languages. It presents the results of a questionnaire survey conducted at five universities of Lithuania in 2014. The research sample involved 504 pre-service teachers of foreign languages (English, German, French, Polish and Russian), who completed a questionnaire survey consisting of both closed-ended and open-ended questions. The future teachers' conceptualisation of culture was analysed as twofold: perception and awareness of culture forms of the countries of the native and target languages, as well as their involvement in cultural activity.*

**Keywords:** *Culture, culture form, culture phenomenon, conceptualisation, pre-service teachers of foreign languages.*

## Introduction

Over thousands of years, the humanity has created and developed a large number of culture forms, each of which is closely related to its creator – a human being, nation, society – in terms of space and time. The development and functioning of culture forms defines the social ways of human activity that embraces material objects (things, articles, works, etc. created by humans) and spiritual aspects (systems of values, behaviour norms, ideals, beliefs and others) (Andrijauskas, 2006; Giddens et al., 2014; Halloran & Kashima, 2011; Thanasoulas, 2001 and others). It is hardly surprising that due to the versatility of its meanings, the conception of culture has become one of the most complicated in the system of different sciences.

The multidimensionality of the culture concept was first revealed in the works of American anthropologists A. L. Kroeber (1989) and C. Kluckhohn (1962). They provided over 300 different definitions of culture. Consequently, it is possible to speak about 300 different interpretations of the concept of culture. Generally speaking, culture is perceived as an indicator of an individual's maturity, the area of the expression and implementation of his/her creative and spiritual powers, as well as an individual sphere of human life and activity. Moreover, culture is also viewed as an aggregate of the achievements of the society that is manifested and evaluated in all the spheres of social life (Mazlaveckienė, 2015).

However, the rapid processes of globalisation, as well as its resulting consequences, such as mass migration and diversity of political, economic, cultural, linguistic, educational and other processes pose numerous challenges on humanity. Exploring the consequences of globalisation on the development of humanity, researchers of Lithuania and the world focus on cultural changes in particular (Andrijauskas, 2006; Bauman, 2007; Gudykunst, 2002; Kundrotas, 2009; Kuzmickas, 2003; Lang & Lang, 2009 and others). Due to the establishment of the notion *globalisation*, the culture concept also undergoes major changes: over the past few decades such terms as *global culture*, *interculture*, *cross-culture*, *one-world culture*, *multiculturalism* and others have been used. All of them refer to cultural equality opt out of geographical, historical and national differences and permit all nations to perform on the international arena on an equal basis. In the last decades of the 20th century, national cultures were perceived as individual islands, whereas the world was considered as a mosaic of those islands. However, globalisation processes have revealed that homogeneous culture groups do not exist any longer; they have been changed by heterogeneous groups: 'Culture in this sense is perceived not as a static, hermetically sealed system, but as a current of ever changing meanings' (Deardorff, 2004, p. 6). Hence, culture is a dynamic process, which embraces norms, values and lifestyles, which are globally intertwined.

Such a changed approach to the conceptualisation of culture sets new objectives to teaching and learning of foreign languages. In Lithuania, the regulatory documents on Education highlight the following aims: to develop life-long cultural competence and creativity of a human being (Guidelines for Cultural Policy of Lithuania, 2010), to strive that every person shall become a member of the national and global community, advanced economy and a particular national culture (State Education Strategy for 2013-2020, 2012), to develop cultural awareness and expression (Education and Training 2020), to convey to a person the basics of national and ethnic culture, the traditions and values of the humanistic culture of Europe and of the world, to foster the maturation of a person's national identity, moral, aesthetic and scientific culture as well as

personal outlook; to guarantee the continuity of ethnic and national culture, the preservation of its identity and continuous renewal of its values; to promote the country's openness and inclination for dialogue (Law on Education of RL, 2011) and others.

The topicality of cultural education is strengthened in the *National Description of Teacher Competences* (2007), where the common cultural competence is distinguished and defined as "knowledge, skills, abilities, value-based provisions and other personal qualities determining human activity in specific cultures" (National Description of Teacher Competences, 2007, p. 1). Teachers form a community of lifelong learners that are expected to continuously expand their subject-specific knowledge, participate in cultural and political life, broaden their general cultural world outlook, as well as "help the learners acquire cultural knowledge and awareness, develop abilities and attitudes essential to understand, acknowledge, respect and participate in transferring the cultural values of different persons, nations and races, as well as to develop own skills of cultural expression" (Integrated Programme of Cultural Awareness, 2008). Hence, a teacher's position undergoes certain changes as well. The teacher, especially the one of foreign languages, becomes a 'teacher of culture' and is ascribed new tasks: his/her attention should focus on the development of students' attitudes, skills and critical cultural awareness rather than mere transfer of subject knowledge. In other words, a teacher of a foreign language is expected to develop students' cultural awareness, which would encourage them to link and compare own cultural values, attitudes and behaviour with other cultures.

Hence, **the problem of the research** is formulated as a question: *How do pre-service teachers of foreign languages conceptualise the phenomena of the native and target cultures?*

The **object of the research** is the conceptualisation of culture phenomena of pre-service teachers of foreign languages.

The **aim of the research** is to disclose the ways of how pre-service teachers of foreign languages conceptualise the cultural phenomena of their native and target cultures.

The **objectives of the research** are as follows:

- 1) To determine the ways of how pre-service teachers of foreign languages perceive the types and specific phenomena of culture;
- 2) To reveal their culture-related experience and attitudes;
- 3) To evaluate the level of their cultural awareness of the native culture and the culture of the studies foreign language.

## Methodology

The following **research methods** were employed in the current research:

*Theoretical:* analysis of scientific literature on culture and cultural education;

*Empirical methods:* a questionnaire survey, including open-ended and closed-ended questions, which helped to reveal the level of the conceptualisation of culture phenomena by pre-service teachers of foreign languages;

*Statistical methods:* the research data were processed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 17.0.

**The research sample.** The research was conducted as a part of doctoral research in spring-autumn 2014 and involved 504 pre-service teachers of foreign languages (English, German, French, Polish and Russian) of the five largest Lithuanian universities: Lithuanian University of Educational Sciences, Vilnius University, Šiauliai University, Vytautas Magnus University and Klaipėda University. The sample was considered to be reliable. According to the data provided by the Department of Statistics of the Republic of Lithuania, 1622 students studied in the study programmes of foreign language philology, seeking for the qualification of a foreign language (English, German, French, Russian or Polish) teacher. The confidence interval being 5 %, the confidence level is 95 % (Paniotto & Maksimenko, 2003). Hence, the research sample should have involved 320 respondents.

The total sample included 83.5 % of females (n=421) and 16.5 % of males (n=81). Such a big discrepancy occurred due to the study preferences of the youth: languages are mostly preferred by females rather than by males.

According to the distribution of the year of studies, the sample split fairly equally: 30.8 % of first-year students (n=155), 25.6 % of second-year students (n=129), 26.8 % of third-year students (n=135) and 16.9 % of fourth-year students (n=85) that intended to become teachers of foreign languages. The number of fourth-year respondents was smaller than the remaining three groups of the sample, which was conditioned by a larger number of drop-outs incurred in the previous three years of studies.

**Research tool.** Seeking to explore how pre-service teachers of foreign languages conceptualised culture phenomena, a questionnaire embracing closed-ended and open-ended questions was designed. It covered items related to pre-service teachers' awareness of the forms of culture and specific culture phenomena, involvement in culture-related activities, reflection of the gained cultural experience, as well as demographical data of the respondents. The paper versions of the questionnaire were distributed to future teachers of foreign languages of five Lithuanian universities personally by the author of the article.

## Research Findings

Culture is a very broad concept, so to get to know a given culture means to gain extensive knowledge and awareness of it. Hence, seeking to explore pre-service teachers' *awareness of cultural phenomena*, four main types of culture and their main properties were distinguished: elite (or high culture), ethnic, popular culture and subcultures.

Elite (high) culture is often attributed to aristocracy or upper social class, which is characterised as the ruling culture, which should be observed by every person, or a privileged culture marked by peculiar spiritual, economic, political and other properties (The Europe of Elites, 2012). On the other hand, elite (or high) culture embraces world-famous and acknowledged works of art, as well as achievements in sports and science (Andrijauskas, 2006; Gaižutis, 2008; Lang & Lang, 2009).

Ethnic culture comprises a wide variety of aspects, many of which are interconnected, including attitudes, assumptions, beliefs, perceptions, norms and values, social relationships, customs, celebrations, rituals, politeness conventions, patterns of interaction and discourse organisation, the use of time in communication and other aspects characteristic of a particular nation or country. This form of culture involves such phenomena as folk myths, rituals, customs, oral, musical and visual heritage, which are determined by common history, territory, race and language (Andrijauskas, 2006; Bukraba-Rylska, 2002; Fiske, 2008).

Popular culture largely concentrates on the stereotypes of mass consciousness, seeking to imitate celebrities, satisfy hedonistic needs, conform to the changing conditions and abandon own individuality and distinction. Consumer art, fashion and entertainment are attributed to this type of culture (Andrijauskas, 2006; Brooks, 2014; Fiske, 2008).

Moreover, modern society breaks down into individual groups that have a peculiar culture, repudiate the prevailing norms and create alternative approaches to different aspects of life, including identity, religion, society and others. Subcultures involve independently functioning groups, which choose different stylistic forms to express their individuality and distinctness. They are often defined as either a highly educated part of society formed as a result of professional differentiation, or a completely uneducated marginal group (Andrijauskas, 2006; Ramanauskaitė, 2004).

Seeking to explore the level of the awareness, the pre-service teachers of foreign languages were supplied with a list of randomly ordered culture phenomena and asked to attribute them to an appropriate type of culture. The frequency of the replies of the respondents is presented in Table 1.

Table 1 **Distribution of the respondents' replies according to their recognition of the phenomena of main culture types**

Type of culture Phenomenon	Elite	Ethnic	Popular	Subculture
	<i>Correct answers (%)</i>	<i>Correct answers (%)</i>	<i>Correct answers (%)</i>	<i>Correct answers (%)</i>
Phenomenon 1	63.1	67.3	14.1	18.1
Phenomenon 2	37.1	81.0	67.7	<b>68.8</b>
Phenomenon 3	76.6	81.7	68.5	54.6
Phenomenon 4	<b>89.1</b>	<b>89.7</b>	56.7	62.7
Phenomenon 5	32.5	52.6	<b>77.4</b>	58.9
<b>The mean:</b>	<b>59.68</b>	<b>74.46</b>	<b>56.88</b>	<b>52.58</b>

The evaluation of the respondents' replies was based on the following ranking: 76-100 % of the correctly attributed phenomena showed that the pre-service teachers demonstrated high level of the awareness of culture phenomena; 51-75 % of correctly attributed phenomena were considered as above the average level; 26-50 % and 0-25 % were regarded as average and low levels of awareness respectively.

The analysis of the research data revealed that the respondents' level of the awareness of culture phenomena was above average, since they managed to attribute more than 50 % of all the phenomena to appropriate culture types. It appeared that the pre-service teachers were best aware of ethnic culture (they succeeded in attributing nearly three quarters (74.46 %) of the outlined phenomena correctly). The respondents demonstrated the poorest awareness of subcultures (they correctly attributed 52,58 % of the outlined phenomena).

In order to assess the level of the respondents' conceptualisation of culture phenomena, they were asked to choose two types of culture and define them by distinguishing their main properties. The frequency of their choice is presented in Figure 1.



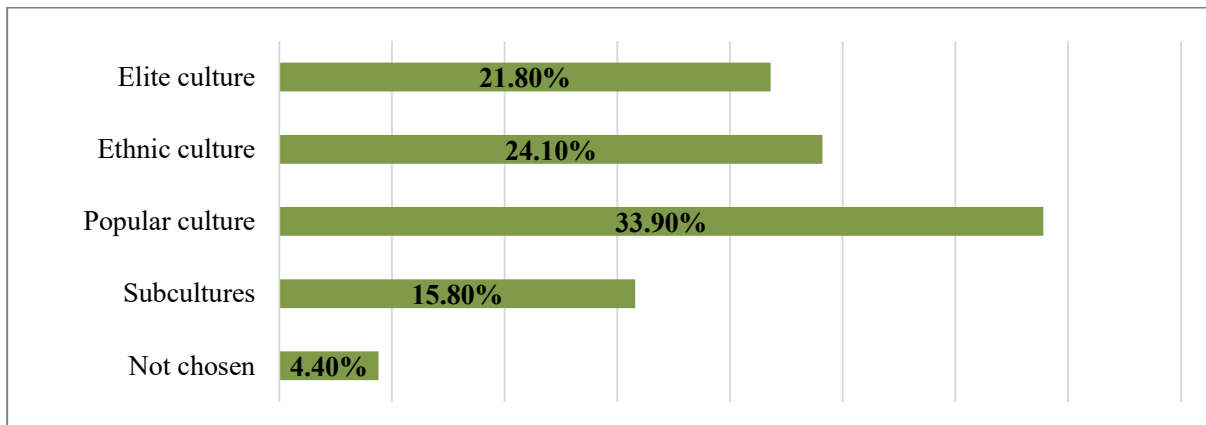


Figure 1 Distribution of the respondents according to the choice of a culture form

The comparative analysis of the obtained data demonstrated that the respondents most often selected those culture types, which they managed to recognise by attributing the outlined culture phenomena. Hence, the pre-service teachers of foreign languages most frequently chose to define popular (over a third of the respondents) and ethnic (about a quarter of the respondents) culture types. The rarest choice was made for subcultures: only 15.8 % of the respondents preferred defining it. It is obvious that the pre-service teachers of foreign languages believed that they were best aware of popular culture.

Moreover, the level of the conceptualisation of culture phenomena was also evaluated by analysing the quality of the provided definitions. They were assessed in terms of four ranks: 1) the respondents distinguished 4-5 characteristic properties of the selected type of culture that revealed their good awareness of the selected culture phenomena; 2) the respondents distinguished 2-3 properties which revealed their sufficient awareness of the selected type of culture; 3) the provided definition did not comply or only partially complied with the selected culture type, which showed superficial awareness of culture phenomena; 4) no definition was provided, which was considered as a lack of awareness of the culture types. The frequency of the choice is provided in Fig. 2.

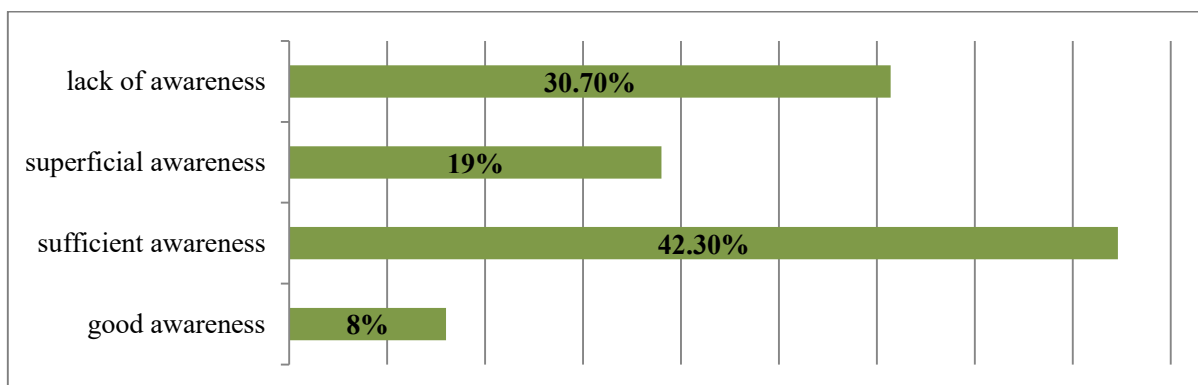


Figure 2 Distribution of the respondents in terms of the quality of the provided definitions of a selected culture form

As it is seen from Figure 2, the pre-service teachers of foreign languages tended to define the selected culture forms by distinguishing 2-3 minor properties of the selected culture form (42.3 % of the respondents). It is noteworthy that approximately a third of the respondents (30.7 %) demonstrated their inability to conceptualise a culture type, whereas a fifth provided definitions incompliant with the selected type of culture. It should be pointed out that the pre-service teachers succeeded in conceptualising popular culture best of all. According to them, popular culture is mostly related to consumerism, imitation, the power of the media, as well as popular music, literature and film, which are considered as key properties of popular culture (Fiske, 2008).

According to some researchers (Helmke, 2012; Jakubė & Juozaitis, 2012; Petty, 2008; Pollard, 2002), reflection of own attitudes and experience create preconditions for a person to construct and try out new models of behaviour in new situations; therefore, experience should bear personal meaning to the learners themselves. Only then will it encourage them for further development. Hence, in order to determine the level of the conceptualisation of culture-related experience, attempts were made to discover what factors were considered by the pre-service teachers of foreign languages as having the greatest impact on their cultural development. The obtained results are presented in Figure 3.

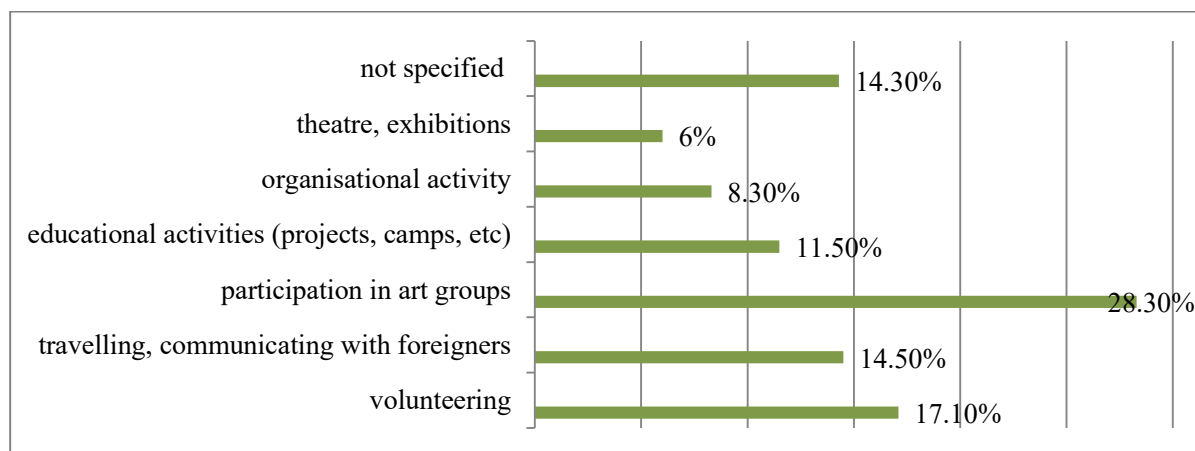


Figure 3 **Distribution of the respondents in terms of the experience gained in culture-related activities**

The data analysis revealed that 14.3 % of the respondents did not specify any activities significant for the acquisition of experience, or these activities were not culture-related. The most significant activities that were indicated by the pre-service teachers of foreign languages included participation in art groups (28.3 %), volunteering (17.1 %), and travelling and communication with representatives of other cultures (14.5 %). Among the groups of art, the pre-service teachers of foreign languages (80 % of the ones who chose this option) most frequently

indicated folk music and dance ensembles, which showed that a great part of the respondents actualised their cultural self-expression in the context of ethnic culture. It is noteworthy that the manifestations of elite culture (attending art exhibitions, theatre, museums, etc.) was not conceptualised by the pre-service teachers of foreign languages as significant activities developing their cultural experience (only 6 % of the respondents considered this aspect as an important culture-related activity).

The significance of cultural activity is closely related to the attitudes that accompany the activity, which transform the perception of the activity itself and relate it to former knowledge and information (Bubnys & Žydžiūnaitė, 2012). Therefore, the pre-service teachers of foreign languages were asked to describe the attitudes that they related to the afore-said experience of being involved in culture-related activities. Their attitudes were grouped into positive, negative and indifferent (see Figure 4).

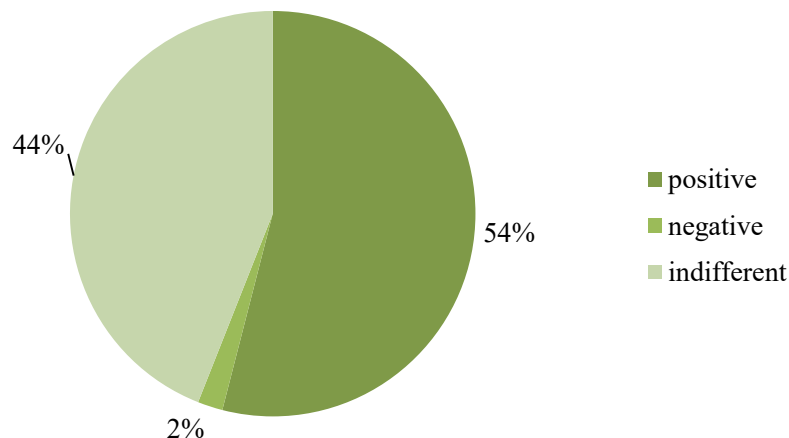


Figure 4 **Distribution of the respondents according to the attitudes related to cultural experience**

The data analysis revealed that more than a half of the respondents had a positive attitude to their cultural experience. It should be noted that 2 % of the pre-service teachers indicated a negative attitude, whereas as far as 44 % did not conceptualise their attitudes at all. A deeper analysis demonstrated that the positive attitudes were mostly associated with the feelings of joy and happiness (34 % of the respondents), responsibility for own activity (27.8 %) and pride in own achievements (14.6 %). The negative ones were most often related to the feeling of shame, which occurred due to the lack of awareness of how to behave in a particular situation (2 %).

Summing up, it can be stated that the level of the respondents' conceptualisation of culture-related experience is not high: a relatively big part of future teachers of foreign languages (14.3 %) were unable to evaluate their

cultural experience as having an impact on their cultural development. Moreover, almost a half of the respondents (44 %) could not conceptualise their attitudes towards the gained cultural experience.

### **Discussion**

The analysis of the research works conducted by Lithuanian and foreign authors (Deardorff, 2004; Kohli et al., 2010 and others) reveals that an important precondition for teaching/learning a foreign language is the awareness of the target culture, its values and characteristic phenomena. Therefore, seeking to train specialists of foreign languages, it is important to develop their cultural awareness. In our research, we employed the provisions of the afore-said authors to explore the cultural awareness of pre-service teachers of foreign languages and their ability to conceptualise the phenomena of the target culture as compared to their native culture.

Analysing the intercultural competence of future social workers (Kohli et al., 2010), students in higher education and school management (Deardorff, 2004), the researchers determined that cultural behaviour was directly dependent on the knowledge and awareness of the target culture and its specific phenomena. The findings of the current research demonstrated that the level of the awareness of cultural phenomena of pre-service teachers of foreign languages was slightly above average. Moreover, the respondents experienced relative difficulty in conceptualising their culture-related experience and attitudes. It is assumed that the lack of knowledge and awareness of the types of culture and their characteristic phenomena results in their poor ability to conceptualise their culture-related experience and attitudes.

It has also been proved that students develop their cultural awareness when they are constantly encouraged to reflect on own experience. This way, they learn to assume responsibility for own behaviour and its consequences in different culture-related situations (Bubnys & Žydžiūnaitė, 2012; Helmke, 2012; Pollard, 2002; Railienė, 2010; Riel, 2010). The findings of our research lead to the assumption that pre-service teachers of foreign languages are not used to reflecting on own culture-specific knowledge, experience and attitudes.

### **Conclusions**

On the basis of the conducted research, it can be stated that the level of the conceptualisation of culture phenomena of pre-service teachers of foreign languages rather average. Only a half of the respondents are able to distinguish and conceptualise main culture types by identifying their key properties. The best known and conceptualised culture form is ethnic culture (74.46 %), which is

largely related to mother tongue, traditional customs and traditions, feasts and rituals. Another culture forms that is conceptualised by the respondents is popular culture (56.88 %), which is associated with popular music, cinema, media, consumerism and imitation.

As far as the conceptualisation of culture-related experience is concerned, it appears that, similarly to the conceptualisation of culture forms, it is of mediocre level. 14.3 % of the pre-service teachers of foreign languages are hardly able to conceptualise own cultural experience. The data analysis demonstrates that volunteering, participation in the activity of art groups (mainly folk music and dance ensembles), as well as travelling and communicating with representatives of other cultures are considered as the most significant activities actualising the respondents' cultural self-expression. However, it turns out that only 46 % the future teachers of foreign languages are able to conceptualise their attitudes related to this experience.

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# INTEGRATION OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP INTO HIGHER EDUCATION (EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES) IN LITHUANIA AND LATVIA: FOCUS ON MODERN PEDAGOGICAL APPROACHES

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***Abstract.** The purpose of this article is to highlight the aspects of integration of entrepreneurship into higher education (Educational sciences) in Lithuania and Latvia. The article examines the nature of challenges for entrepreneurial teaching and explains how experience-based pedagogies can develop learning environments that replicate aspects of entrepreneurship. The article describes the empiric study, which explored 32 student and 16 university lectures' opinion on entrepreneurship in Educational sciences. The implications of the article could be useful for university educators, who seek to educate students most effectively with a real intention to become entrepreneurs.*

***Keywords:** Educational sciences, entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship pedagogies, higher education.*

## Introduction

Nowadays entrepreneurship is considered to be the effective strategy for development and growth of societies since it leads to technical and innovative changes and causes economic growth as well as converts the new knowledge to modern products and services. That is very important for Lithuania and Latvia, who are currently moving towards innovation driven society model. According to Lisbon strategy for growth and employment, the important role of higher education in promoting entrepreneurial skills is now widely recognised. The article is based on the working definition provided by Gibb et al. (2013, p. 94): “Entrepreneurship in higher education is designed to empower staff and students to demonstrate enterprise, innovation and creativity in research, teaching and studying as well as pursuit use of knowledge across boundaries”.

The idea of the integration of entrepreneurship into higher education is especially relevant for Baltic countries, which have the similar historical background, transition period and traditions in higher education, and are currently seeking to re-arrange their educational systems. Moreover, the process of rapid economic convergence of European Union countries forces the higher education in Baltic countries to be competitive not only on local market but on international market as well. That means that universities in Lithuania and Latvia have to re-think their models of the preparation of the graduates, as well as of organising the study process and research work. The tendency stressed by comparative research data (Entrepreneurship in Latvia and other Baltic Countries, 2013; Entrepreneurship in Education in Baltic Sea Region, 2015) is that Lithuania and Latvia's universities and higher education system on the whole should take steps toward changing their classic role, which was merely producing knowledge towards entrepreneurship universities, which produce knowledge and create ideas and also transfer them to action in alignment with process of local, regional and international economic development.

However, it is pointed that Lithuania still lacks a clear strategy of entrepreneurship integration into higher education. The same problem has been identified in Latvia's higher education system (Entrepreneurship in higher education, especially within non-business studies. Final report of expert group, 2008). The context analysis of Baltic countries' higher education systems shows that the overall situation with the spread of entrepreneurship in higher education is generally very weak. The overall teaching of entrepreneurship in higher education is quite poor, especially within non-business and non-economic courses. In Lithuania noteworthy entrepreneurship teaching examples can be found, however higher education curricula even in business studies often lack coaching on how to start one's own business and acquire relevant skills. In Latvia entrepreneurship courses are missing in non-economic fields of study, and more generally inter-disciplinary approaches are rare. The low level of entrepreneurship-related abilities, knowledge and skills in the Lithuania and Latvia's universities has prompted the idea of current research.

The current research is focused on the integration of entrepreneurship into Educational sciences and covers various aspects of the issue (Melnikova et al, 2015; Melnikova & Zascerinska, 2016a; Melnikova & Zascerinska, 2016b). In many countries entrepreneurship in non-business studies is a very new issue. In Lithuania and Latvia Educational sciences like many other social sciences and humanities traditionally are considered as less practical and applied (Dombrovsky & Ieva, 2005). Entrepreneurship subjects and creating business on them are considered less important in spite of their strong base in developing ideas. However, as recent piece of research (Melnikova & Zascerinska, 2015) reveals, Educational sciences in Lithuania and Latvia are presently under pressure: on the



one hand, Educational sciences are particularly conservative due their traditional mission; on the other – Educational sciences have to equally compete with other branches of science in the fields of academic achievements, research recognition and outcomes, skills of graduates, etc. In the context of Educational sciences the concept of social entrepreneurship has been emerged.

Gibbs et al. (2013) moves towards a broader societal model of entrepreneurship, which is especially important for Educational sciences. Social entrepreneurship can be classified in one of three ways: as for-profit organisations, which use their resources to creatively address social issues; as not-for-profit organisations, which help individuals establish their own small, for-profit businesses or, as not-for-profit ventures which create economic value to fund their own programmes or to create employment and training opportunities for their client populations. The model places emphasis on the values of entrepreneurship and developing entrepreneurial behaviours, attributes and skills encompassing concepts such as emotional intelligence, vision, holistic management and the ability to build trusting relationships. This scenario translates into a need to equip students with personal entrepreneurial competencies in order to design organisations of all kinds, public, private and NGO (non-governmental organisations) and to support effective entrepreneurial behaviour. Therefore the new challenge for entrepreneurship education is that it needs to address a number of personal, organisational and societal competencies. This in turns challenges educators to develop modes of teaching and learning that support the development of these competencies.

The focus of this paper is on the development of new pedagogies of entrepreneurship in Educational sciences. In order to answer the question more specifically, from educational and higher education perspectives, the empiric study on students and university teachers' opinion has to be carried out. Therefore the article seeks to answer the question - what is students and university educators' opinion on teaching of entrepreneurship in Educational sciences? The generalised tendencies in students and university teachers' samples in Latvia and Lithuania are provided. Hence the implications of the article could be useful for university educators, who seek to educate students most effectively with a real intention to become entrepreneurs. The methods used in the article are: analysis of scientific literature, analysis of empiric study data.

### **Methodological principles of the empirical study**

The present empirical study has involved 32 students (Educational sciences, Education Management) from two universities in Lithuania (N=14) and Latvia (N=18) as well as 16 university teachers from same two universities in Lithuania (N=7) and Latvia (N=9). The informants samples were selected by means of the

method of purposeful selection, when a researcher begins with specific perspectives in mind that he or she wishes to examine and then seeks out research participants, who cover that full range of perspectives.

The phenomenological approach to research modelling was applied. Students and teachers' cultural and educational experience was emphasized as significant for each research question (Luka et al., 2009) within the present empirical study. The group of research participants (field of study and work, etc.) was considered to be homogeneous.

The empiric study guiding question was as follows: what is students and university educators' opinion on teaching of entrepreneurship in Educational sciences?

The group discussion was selected as a method for qualitative data collection in students' sample of informants. The students' group discussion questionnaire included the following key questions:

- How do you understand the concept of entrepreneurship?
- How do you understand entrepreneurship in the field of education?
- How can entrepreneurship be taught in Educational sciences (within your study programme)?

The open question interview was selected as a method for qualitative data collection in university educators' sample of informants. The university teachers' questionnaire included the following questions:

- What is the most important field in your academic activity?
- Do you think entrepreneurial competencies are important for today's students?
- Do you integrate some pedagogical approaches and methods in order to develop entrepreneurship competencies of your students?
- Which problems do you face when seeking to integrate entrepreneurship aspects into subjects you teach?
- Provide your recommendations on teaching entrepreneurship in Educational Sciences.

The interpretive paradigm was used in the empirical study. The interpretive paradigm aims to understand other cultures, from the inside through the use of ethnographic methods such as informal interviewing and participant observation, and establishment of ethically sound relationships (Taylor & Medina, 2013). The interpretative paradigm creates an environment for the development of any individual and helps them to develop their potential (Luka et al, 2009, 52). The core of this paradigm is human experience, people's mutual everyday interaction that tends to understand the subjectivity of human experience (Luka, 2007, 104). The paradigm is aimed at understanding people's activity, how a certain activity is exposed in a certain environment, time, conditions, i.e., how it is exposed in a certain socio-cultural context (Luka, 2007, 104). Thus, the interpretative

paradigm is oriented towards one's conscious activity, and it is future-oriented (Luka, 2007, 104). Interpretative paradigm is characterized by the researcher's practical interest in the research question (Cohen et al., 2003). The researcher is the interpreter. The most popular informants' answers were generalized and presented in tables on order to show the main tendencies and visualize the information.

### Students opinion on teaching of entrepreneurship in Educational sciences

Having generalized students informants' answers the following tendencies were disclosed (see table 1).

Table 1 Students' group discussion results

Question	Lithuania	Latvia
1. How do you understand the concept of entrepreneurship?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Capacity to start own business (12)</li> <li>- Earning money and making profit of any activity (11)</li> <li>- Career challenges (8)</li> <li>- Ability to manage a new venture (8)</li> <li>- Personal competitiveness on the labour market (5)</li> <li>- Creating personal financing security (5)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Capacity to start own business (18)</li> <li>- Capacity to generate ideas for new ventures (16)</li> <li>- Capacity to make profit (16)</li> <li>- Ability to respond to change (10)</li> <li>- Capacity to make personal career changes (7)</li> </ul>
2. How do you understand entrepreneurship in the field of education (social entrepreneurship)?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Starting new venture (non-profit) (14)</li> <li>- Managing social enterprises (12)</li> <li>- Tackling some social issue (7)</li> <li>- Advance in career (6)</li> <li>- Project-based activity (6)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Starting new venture (for profit or non-profit) (18)</li> <li>- Project activity (17)</li> <li>- Providing services for community (12)</li> <li>- Recognition of social problems and tackling them (11)</li> </ul>
3. How can entrepreneurship be taught in Educational sciences (within your study programme)?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Lectures by entrepreneurs (14)</li> <li>- Discussions with business development experts (13)</li> <li>- Support from academic staff (10)</li> <li>- Visits to companies (10)</li> <li>- Creating business plans (10)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Discussions with entrepreneurs (18)</li> <li>- Consultations of business development experts (18)</li> <li>- Visits to companies (17)</li> <li>- Internship in companies (11)</li> <li>- Coaching on business management issues (9)</li> </ul>

Both Lithuanian and Latvian students understand the concept of entrepreneurship, its importance in nowadays world. Research participants emphasized that entrepreneurship is first of all about starting new venture and developing personal business. Entrepreneurship, according to informants' mind, is needed for career goals and changes in career path. As Lithuanian as Latvian students pointed that entrepreneurship is related to financial income and profit.

Both Lithuanian and Latvian students would like to get more information about entrepreneurship in the field of education and social entrepreneurship in general. Nevertheless, informants stressed that in the field of education there are a lot of opportunities to start own venture. However, research participants stressed that they lack knowledge on how to establish organisation (for profit or non-profit and what is the difference between them), how to manage its activity. Therefore respondents wished to have consultations with business development experts on the issues of establishment of organisation, budget management, administration etc. Moreover, students expressed the demand for project management competences.

Both Lithuanian and Latvian research participants emphasized that entrepreneurship is not being developed sufficiently during their studies. They expressed a wish for more practice-oriented teaching methods. Moreover, students wished to be given lectures by successful local entrepreneurs, i.e. owners of for-profit or non-profit public organisations as well as enterprise development experts (lawyers, financial managers, etc.). Respondents mentioned that visits to start up companies would be very useful. They would like to take part in seminars organized by Business incubators, Science and technology parks etc. Research participants emphasized that during the study process they would be interested in creating business plans with the support of academic staff and successful entrepreneurs. They would like to get comments on their business plans from practising business development experts in order to make their plans more feasible. They would also like to get practical experience and tools for starting their own business. Creating a business plan would have resulted in students being enthusiastic and highly motivated. Practice-based pedagogies would give them the empowering experience needed for developing entrepreneurial skills.

*Research participants demonstrated high interested in the issue of entrepreneurship. Both Lithuanian and Latvian students expressed a certain need for more information about entrepreneurship in general and social entrepreneurship in particular. Informants stressed that they would like to learn more about the opportunities to start own ventures (no matter for-profit or non-profit) in the field of education. Therefore during the study process they would like to get practical experience and tools for starting their own business. The most valuable approaches – lectures by experiences entrepreneurs, consultations by business development experts – were mentioned as in Lithuania as in Latvia.*

## **University teachers' opinion on teaching of entrepreneurship in Educational sciences**

The results of university educators' interview answers are presented in table 2.

**Table 2 University teachers' interview results**

<b>Question</b>	<b>Lithuania</b>	<b>Latvia</b>
1. What is the most important field in your academic activity?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Organizational issues of the educational process (preparing programmes and materials, giving lectures and working with students, etc.)” (6)</li> <li>- Management of the educational process (planning of teaching hours, consultations, assessment system etc.) (5)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Organization of the educational process (planning, organizing, leading and assessing) (8)</li> <li>- Preparation of methodical material (8)</li> <li>- Preparation and improvement of educational programmes;</li> <li>- Implementation of assessment system (6)</li> </ul>
2. Do you think entrepreneurial competencies are important for today's students?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Very important (7)</li> <li>- Should be a part of any subject or course (6)</li> <li>- Will attract more students (6)</li> <li>- Will promote better employment (6)</li> <li>- Will increase the satisfaction with studies (5)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Of a major importance (9)</li> <li>- Would raise the attraction of study programmes (8)</li> <li>- Will equip students with today relevant and necessary competencies (7)</li> <li>- Will increase the satisfaction with studies (7)</li> <li>- Will bridge the needs of labour markets with university programmes (7)</li> </ul>
3. Do you integrate some pedagogical approaches and methods in order to develop entrepreneurship competencies of your students?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Include some active-learning methods (6)</li> <li>- Apply project activity (6)</li> <li>- Foster collaboration and group work (6)</li> <li>- Arrange visits to organizations</li> <li>- Invite practitioners from organizations to share experience (5)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Foster project activity (6)</li> <li>- Organize visits to institutions (6)</li> <li>- Cooperate with schools, community partners (5)</li> <li>- Improve study modules with newest pedagogies and technologies (5)</li> </ul>
4. Which problems do you face when seeking to integrate entrepreneurship aspects into subjects you teach?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Lack of modern knowledge (6)</li> <li>- Lack of methodological support (6)</li> <li>- Need for trainings and competence development in</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Lack of competencies how to teach entrepreneurship (6)</li> <li>- Lack of knowledge how to assess students' competencies in entrepreneurship (6)</li> </ul>

	the field of entrepreneurship (6)	
5. Provide your recommendations on teaching entrepreneurship in Educational Sciences.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Carry out research on university academic staff needs (5)</li> <li>- Arrange training sessions (4)</li> <li>- Invite experienced lecturers (4)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Organize training events on how to teach entrepreneurship in non-business studies (5)</li> </ul>

University teachers in Lithuania identified the field of organization and management of the educational process as the most important in their professional activity. Latvian educators named organization of the educational process, preparation of educational programs, and preparation of methodological materials as the most important professional activities. When describing their professional activity informants mentioned that they face various problems in it. Some problems are presupposed by the complex factors that are presently affecting higher education as a system nationwide (decreasing number of students, low salaries, etc.). Other problems are more methodical, daily, resulting in professional activities (students' low motivation to study, poor attendance rates, lack of technological support, etc.).

Both Lithuanian and Latvian university teachers, who took part in the interview, argued that entrepreneurship should be integrated into study subjects in order to develop students' entrepreneurial competencies. In their opinion, integration of entrepreneurship would make studies more attractive and possibly more beneficial for students. Study participants argued, that modern young people are focused more on pragmatic issues (such as: opportunities to earn money, create some venture etc.) than on academic knowledge. Therefore, to their mind, universities should advertise themselves widely as being entrepreneurial and inform all the stakeholders that entrepreneurship competencies are highly rated and emphasized during the study process. That would attract more students to enter universities on the whole and Educational Sciences in particular.

However, study participants also pointed out that they face some important problems when they seek to integrate entrepreneurship competencies development methods and pedagogies in to subjects they teach. Lithuanian informants argued that they lack methodological support and updated methodological tools in integrating entrepreneurship into educational process. They also noted that when working with different learning needs they feel the lack of knowledge of the methods outlined. Latvian educators recognized the lack of their own knowledge on how to effectively develop students' entrepreneurial competencies because they have not had any trainings on that that. In addition, the research participants mentioned that in the activity of modern university educators has undergone a lot of changes recently, they have to face new

challenges such as: entrepreneurship itself, satisfaction of stakeholders' needs, empowerment of learners', application of modern technological tools and so on. This requires new knowledge and skills. In this context, it is important to have relevant methodological source of support, and the latest source of modern knowledge, theories and experiences. Because of the fact that respondents', who took part in the study, age is more than 50 years, it could have had some effect on the outcomes of the study. Such an assumption is made on the basis of PIAAC survey results, which shows that skills of problem solving using technology in this age group are lower than those of younger adults.

Study participants both from Latvia and Lithuania have provided some recommendations on effective integration of entrepreneurship into Educational Sciences. First, they emphasized the need for coherent and continuous research on university educators' needs and demands as well as competencies in order to provide them opportunities for self-education, professional support, assistance tools, etc. thus solving the problem of insufficient professional support. Secondly, having in mind some special needs of some specific groups of university educators (e.g. technology skills, foreign languages, management, cross-cultural cooperation, change management and other competence) it is appropriate to provide certain information, educational and organizational assistance to them. For this reason, it is reasonable to organize training for different groups of university educators with respects to their certain needs. Moreover, it is recommended to invite experienced adult education lecturers to these seminars, who can share their experiences how to teach entrepreneurship especially in non-business studies.

*Summarizing the interview results it could be said the university teachers both in Latvia and Lithuania recognize the demand for integration of entrepreneurship into study process. The development of students; entrepreneurship competencies should become a priority when organizing and managing educational process. That would help to improve the quality of studies as well as to raise students' satisfaction with the studies. However educators themselves feel the need for relevant knowledge and professional support on how to apply entrepreneurship development methods especially in non-business studies. Therefore there is a need for courses and seminars for university academic staff in Latvia and Lithuania.*

### **Implications**

Lithuania and Latvia need a coherent model of integration of entrepreneurship into Education sciences, however, the model cannot be just copied from some other European Union country due to: Baltic countries have certain traditions in higher education that are presupposed by historical

background and transition period; entrepreneurship in non-business studies, especially in Education sciences is a new issue for all European Union countries; in Baltic countries Education sciences are currently under pressure and are forced to change their conservative purpose and compete with other branches of science in research, preparation of graduates, arrangement of study process etc.

Experiential learning has risen to the forefront of entrepreneurship education, as universities respond to research that encourages both real-world projects and extracurricular learning activities to better teach entrepreneurship, such as internships, business plan competitions etc. Therefore the methods of experiential learning could become a basis for developing entrepreneurship teaching pedagogies in Educational sciences. Education for and in enterprise provides students with a learning environment that would support them in their endeavour.

Research participants demonstrated high interested in the issue of entrepreneurship. Both Lithuanian and Latvian students expressed a certain need for more information about entrepreneurship in general and social entrepreneurship in particular. Informants stressed that they would like to learn more about the opportunities to start own ventures (no matter for-profit or non-profit) in the field of education. Therefore during the study process they would like to get practical experience and tools for starting their own business. The most valuable approaches – lectures by experiences entrepreneurs, consultations by business development experts – were mentioned as in Lithuania as in Latvia.

Summarizing the interview results it could be said the university teachers both in Latvia and Lithuania recognize the demand for integration of entrepreneurship into study process. The development of students; entrepreneurship competencies should become a priority when organizing and managing educational process. That would help to improve the quality of studies as well as to raise students' satisfaction with the studies. However educators themselves feel the need for relevant knowledge and professional support on how to apply entrepreneurship development methods especially in non-business studies. Therefore there is a need for courses and seminars for university academic staff in Latvia and Lithuania.

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# A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF EDUCATORS' VIEWS ON ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF OPEN EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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**Abstract.** *The aim of the contribution is to analyze advantages and disadvantages of open educational resources (OER) in higher education underpinning elaboration of a new research question. Comparative study was applied. The study was carried out in February 2016. Data was collected via semi-structured interviews. The sample included seven educators from different countries. The data were processed via structuring and summarizing content analysis. The respondents' views are homogeneous. A new research question is formulated. Directions of further research are proposed.*

**Keywords:** *advantages, comparative study, disadvantages, educators' view, higher education, open educational resources.*

## **Introduction**

The paradigm in higher education changes from e-learning to open learning. Open learning is centred on open educational resources (OER). Open educational resources (OER) ensure educational environment in higher education for closer inter-connections between students, educators, researchers and other participants. Open educational resources (OER) have attracted a lot of research interest. Advantages and disadvantages of open educational resources (OER) are widely discussed. On the one hand, Open Educational Resources (OER) are the right way which enables free and accessible education to everyone and access to knowledge as public good via cherishing the culture of participation, collaboration and sharing and with an open access to scientific information it brings a notable contribution in knowledge society development (Kurelovic, 2016). On the other hand, small countries which use a non-English language, have limited resources and support to customize and create Open Educational Resources (OER), their educational practice is founded on traditional teaching methods with occasional use of digital contents and ICT (Kurelovic, 2016). However, little attention has been paid to a comparative study of educators' views on open educational resources (OER). Such a lacuna in higher education has to be filled in. The research question is as follows: What are advantages and disadvantages of open educational resources (OER) in higher education? The aim of the research is to analyze advantages and disadvantages of open educational resources (OER) in higher education underpinning elaboration of a new research question on use of open educational resources (OER) in higher education. The present research involves a process of analysing the meaning of such key concepts as *open educational resources* (OER) and *view*. Moreover, the study demonstrates how the key concepts are related to the idea of *higher education*. The study presents how the steps of the process are related: open educational resources (OER) → empirical study within multicultural environments → conclusions. The methodological foundation of the present research is formed by the System-Constructivist Theory. The System-Constructivist Theory and, consequently, System-Constructivist Approach to learning introduced by Reich (Reich, 2005) emphasizes that human being's point of view depends on the subjective aspect (Maslo, 2007) as experience plays the central role in the knowledge construction process (Maslo, 2007). Therein, the subjective aspect of human being's point of view is applicable to the present research. Exploratory research was employed in the present research (Phillips, 2006). Exploratory research is aimed at developing hypotheses, which can be tested for generality in following empirical studies (Mayring, 2007). The exploratory methodology proceeds from exploration in Phase 1 through analysis in Phase 2 to hypothesis development in Phase 3.

## Conceptual Framework

The present part of the contribution provides a conceptual framework on advantages and disadvantages of open educational resources (OER) in higher education. A framework means the specific viewpoint (Ahrens & Zaščerinska, 2014) on a phenomenon. In research, frameworks are differentiated into theoretical and conceptual. A theoretical framework includes the combination of concepts together with their definitions as well as existing theory applied to a particular study. A concept is defined to be a verbal abstraction drawn from observation of a number of specific cases (Watt & van den Berg, 2002). Hence, a conceptual framework means the unity of concepts that are used for a particular study (Ahrens & Zaščerinska, 2014). Concepts can be expressed in a variety of forms such as a term, image, etc. In the present contribution, *term* means a word or a combination of words used to describe a phenomenon. Further on, the term *definition* is considered as the statement of the phenomenon notion, elements and process (Ahrens, Zaščerinska, & Andreeva, 2013).

By open educational resources (OER), „teaching, learning and research materials in any medium, digital or otherwise, that reside in the public domain or have been released under an open license that permits no-cost access, use, adaptation and redistribution by others with no or limited restrictions” (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), 2002) is meant. Advantages are identified as any trait, feature or aspect that gives an individual, entity or any other thing a more favorable opportunity for success (Business Dictionary, 2016a). In contrast, disadvantages are identified as any trait, feature or aspect that does not give an individual, entity or any other thing a more favorable opportunity for success (Business Dictionary, 2016b). Open Educational Resources (OER) are favourable for A) reducing the gap between different strata of society and between countries, improve the quality of education, accelerate the knowledge flow and increase the number of people involved in the educational process (mostly informal and lifelong), B) Open Educational Resources (OER) using, reusing, editing, remixing and re-purposing without restrictions, C) personalised learning, D) promoting equity by increasing the availability of knowledge as individuals may learn anytime, anywhere, with the support of anyone, using any device, E) individualized learning in accordance with learners’ learning style, F) learners’ more active participation in educational process through a collaboration in virtual communities of learning, G) teachers’ comparison of their own teaching materials with other teachers all around the world, they can learn how to release their work under an open license and to improve quality of teaching practice and encourage pedagogical innovation (Kurelovic, 2016), and H) reducing the cost of accessing educational materials (McGreal, Kinuthia, & Marshall, 2013). Open Educational Resources (OER)

require such more efforts in (Kurelovic, 2016) increase of recognisability of the Open Educational Resources (OER) repositories, ensuring quality of content and development of online collaborative communities, use of suitable licences for teaching materials exchange at the global level and through formal channels, an uncertainty regarding the copyright on educational content and sharing of Open Educational Resources (OER) across languages and cultures.

Individual's view is based on awareness and attitudes (Beļickis, Blūma, Koķe, Markus, Skujiņa, & Šalme, 2000). Analysis of this definition allows identifying such a new definition of view as individual's view on a phenomenon is based on his/her knowledge, skills and attitudes (Ahrens, Zaščerinska, Hariharan, & Andreeva, 2016). As educators' view is based on educators' knowledge, skills and attitudes, educators' competence serves as an indicator of educators' view on open educational resources (OER) in higher education. Competence consists of knowledge, skills and attitudes. The elements of competence, namely knowledge, skills and attitude, are inter-related (Ahrens & Zaščerinska, 2015). Educators' negative attitude fails to promote the increase in the level of learners' knowledge and skills as well as competence, in general (Ahrens & Zaščerinska, 2015). In contrast, educators' positive attitude ensures the enrichment of the level of learners' knowledge and skills as well as competence (Ahrens & Zaščerinska, 2015). It should be noted that knowledge is presented by concepts (Žogla, 2001). Skill is an ability to act in accordance with the required quality and volume (Beļickis, Blūma, Koķe, Markus, Skujiņa, & Šalme, 2000). Attitude is defined as an individual combination of evaluative judgments about a phenomenon (Ahrens & Zaščerinska, 2015). In pedagogy, the terms *competence* and *experience* are used synonymously (Ahrens & Zaščerinska, 2015). As experience plays the central role in a knowledge construction process on open educational resources (OER) in higher education, the subjective aspect of human being's point of view highlighted by the System-Constructivist Theory is considered within the present research.

## **Empirical Results**

The present part of the contribution demonstrates the design of the empirical study, results of the empirical study and findings of the study.

The design of the empirical study comprises the purpose and question, sample and methodology of the present empirical study. The guiding research question is as follows: what are educators' views on open educational resources (OER)? The purpose of the empirical study is to analyze educators' views on open educational resources (OER). The sample of the present empirical study carried out in February 2016 was composed of seven educators from seven different countries, namely Lithuania, Latvia, Germany, India, Romania, Poland and

Russian Federation. All the respondents are educators in different sciences such as philology, sociology, pedagogy, management and engineering. As the respondents with different cultural backgrounds and diverse educational approaches were chosen, the sample was multicultural. Educators' different cultural backgrounds and diverse educational approaches emphasize the significance of each educator's contribution to the analysis (Luka, Ludborza, & Maslo, 2009) of open educational resources (OER) in higher education. All the seven participants had received extensive teaching and training experience in higher education. Thus, the group (age, field of study and work, mother tongue, etc.) is heterogeneous.

The sample of seven respondents involved one educator from Lithuania, one educator from Latvia, one educator from Germany, one educator from India, one educator from Romania, one educator from Poland, and one educator from Russian Federation. In order to save the information of the present research confidential, the respondents' names and surnames were coded as follows: the educator from Lithuania was given the code R1 (Respondent 1), the educator from Latvia was pointed as R2 (Respondent 2), the educator from Germany was coded as R3 (Respondent 3), the educator from India was identified as R4 (Respondent 4), the educator from Romania was shown as R5 (Respondent 5), the educator from Poland had the code R6 (Respondent 6), and the educator from Russian Federation was indicated as R7 (Respondent 7).

The interpretive paradigm was used in the empirical study. The interpretive paradigm aims to understand other cultures, from the inside through the use of ethnographic methods such as informal interviewing and participant observation, and establishment of ethically sound relationships (Taylor & Medina, 2013). Interpretative paradigm is characterized by the researcher's practical interest in the research question (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). The researcher is the interpreter.

Comparative study as a qualitative research design has been employed (Flick, 2004). The exploratory type of the comparative study has been applied (Phillips, 2006). The exploratory type of the comparative study aims to generate new hypotheses and questions (Phillips, 2006). The exploratory methodology proceeds as follows (Phillips, 2006): 'conceptualisation' in Phase 1, detailed description of educational phenomena in the countries to be investigated, with full attention paid to the local context in terms of its historical, geographical, cultural, political, religious, and linguistic (etc.) features in Phase 2, the data collection in Phase 3, explanation through the development of hypotheses in Phase 4, re-consideration of the initial questions and application of the findings to other situations in Phase 5. The qualitatively oriented empirical study allows the construction of only few cases (Mayring, 2004). Moreover, the cases themselves are not of interest, only the conclusions and transfers we can draw from these

respondents (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Selecting the cases for the case study comprises use of information-oriented sampling, as opposed to random sampling (Flyvbjerg, 2006). This is because an average case is often not the richest in information. In addition, it is often more important to clarify the deeper causes behind a given problem and its consequences than to describe the symptoms of the problem and how frequently they occur (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Random samples emphasizing representativeness will seldom be able to produce this kind of insight; it is more appropriate to select some few cases chosen for their validity. Semi-structured interviews served as a means of data collection. Semi-structured interviews were used as the researchers had obtained the initial knowledge on the research field (Kroplijs & Raševka, 2004). The semi-structured interviews implied the following question: What are advantages and disadvantages of open educational resources (OER) in higher education? The collected data were processed via structuring content analysis focused on identifying advantages and disadvantages of open educational resources (OER). Table 1 summarizes the results of the semi-structured interviews.

**Table 1 Summary of the semi-structured interviews**

<b>Respondent</b>	<b>Advantages of open educational resources (OER)</b>	<b>Disadvantages of open educational resources (OER)</b>
<b>1</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– OER is</li> <li>– Opportunity for educators to get concentrated information, relevant materials, methodic support etc.</li> <li>– Opportunity to share the knowledge and expertise on local, national and international level;</li> <li>– Opportunity to develop professional competences, self-education;</li> <li>– Opportunity to disseminate information;</li> <li>– Opportunity to collaborate with partners.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– OER does not</li> <li>– Provide tools for users' communication on various topics;</li> <li>– Ensure possibility to vote for best materials;</li> <li>– Create users' friendly environment and technical tools.</li> </ul>
<b>2</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– OER ensures a variety of teaching and learning materials</li> <li>– Teacher can re-use OER for other groups of learners</li> <li>– Learners can access OER any time and any location where the Internet is available</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– No a possibility of immediate discussion on the OER interpretation with other participants (peers and teacher) of the educational process</li> <li>– Mostly learner' self-interpretation of OER that can differ from the</li> </ul>

		<p>others' interpretation that, in turn, sometimes delays the implementation of a task.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Learners' time management</li> </ul>
<b>3</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Reusable materials,</li> <li>- Access anytime from anywhere,</li> <li>- Possibility to combine studies with other activities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- No direct access to the tutor,</li> <li>- No direct access to other students in order to share their experience,</li> <li>- Time Management</li> </ul>
<b>4</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Providing learning materials for professional programmes such as Bachelor's and Master's degree programmes in library and information sciences,</li> <li>- Production of a portal for the educational community to share information, course content, and make accessible quality distance education learning products and services,</li> <li>- Using existing resources, develop reusable learning objects as „cognitive Bricks between the institutions”,</li> <li>- Developing collections of science experiments and processes, and the resources of art galleries and historical archives,</li> <li>- Developing the international intellectual resource that is constituted by scientists and professors who are currently under-used in their present national infrastructure,</li> <li>- Developing courses in the field of continuing education,</li> <li>- Collaborating with other countries in the development of case studies in international business (including health education), for example in the transition from traditional to modern business structures,</li> <li>- Provide a test/evaluation environment for open courseware</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Not surprisingly, the access limitations most commonly reported are lack of adequate bandwidth, a shortage of computers, and the need for training in ICT. Inadequate local telecommunication infrastructure, sometimes including regulatory policy that has the effect of keeping costs high and access limited, is also a recurring issue.</li> <li>- In some institutions computer access is limited to faculty and graduate students, and often it is inadequate even for this relatively small group of users.</li> <li>- Language can also be a constraint. Sometimes the language of instruction is not the language of the Web.</li> <li>- Multilingualism: It functions as a limiting factor [since] institutions feel that it is inappropriate and improper to be present on the web only in Tamil or Telugu, so they spend a lot of energy and resources trying to have the materials in their mother tongue.</li> <li>- For some, there is a reported „non-readiness” to use resources like Open Educational Resources (OER).</li> </ul>



	<p>programmes,</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Publish links to pages created by faculty worldwide who are using the Web to deliver course materials in different languages</li> </ul>	
<b>5</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Learners and teachers can access e-tools in any location and conditions,</li> <li>– Teachers can use and re-use all materials from time to time,</li> <li>– Possible to use for team-teaching and team-learners</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– is not a direct &amp; affective communication,</li> <li>– planning a time slot for learning is difficult,</li> <li>– has no an affective feed-back in real time.</li> </ul>
<b>6</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) we can learn from everybody all over the world,</li> <li>b) we can find even every needed information just from a computer via a web site</li> <li>c) teacher can offer students much more materials, books, video etc.</li> <li>d) it can help in learning and teaching</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) quality - in open resources, especially international - we sometimes know nothing about quality, authors' experience; without guide/leader it is very difficult to work with OER,</li> <li>b) wi-fi and other technical difficulties,</li> <li>c) too much data causes discouragement and decline in motivation,</li> <li>d) problem of copyright - authors sometimes do not want „to open” his work, book, etc. People working not at university or school in fact do not want to show even presentations or articles because of copyright</li> </ul>
<b>7</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Easy access to varied on-line data;</li> <li>– Latest developments in medical sciences and research results available on-line help in training better specialists for the sphere of public health;</li> <li>– Accessibility of research results on-line can promote professional collaboration among students, thus contributing to better qualification.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Questionable reliability of sources and materials at times;</li> <li>– The issue of copyright;</li> <li>– Poor guidance through some resources</li> </ul>

The collected data were processed via structuring and summarizing content analysis. The structuring content analysis (Mayring, 2004) of the data demonstrates that the educators' views on advantages and disadvantages of open educational resources (OER) have similarities. The respondents outlined the advantages of open educational resources (OER) such as re-use of open educational resources (OER), use of open educational resources (OER) at any time and use of open educational resources (OER) at any location where the Internet is available. The respondents identified such disadvantages of open educational resources (OER) as technical difficulties to reach OER due to limitations of open educational resources (OER) access, Internet access and computer access; limited open educational resources (OER) interpretation, open educational resources (OER) availability in a native language as well as quality of open educational resources (OER). Summarizing content analysis (Mayring, 2004) of the data reveals that the respondents' views on open educational resources (OER) are homogeneous.

### **Conclusions**

The empirical findings of the research allow drawing the conclusions on educators' homogeneous view on open educational resources (OER) in higher education. A new research question has been formulated: What are criteria of qualitative open educational resources (OER) in higher education?

The present research has *limitations*. The inter-connections between open education resources (OER), advantages and disadvantages, view, educators and higher education have been set. Another limitation is the empirical study conducted by involving educators only.

Further research tends to focus on empirical studies to compare teacher trainers' and educators' views on open educational resources (OER). The search for relevant methods for evaluation of advantages and disadvantages of open educational resources (OER) in higher education is proposed. Empirical studies to compare students and educators' opinions on educational resources (OER) in higher education are emphasized. And a comparative research of more countries could be carried out, too.

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## ПРОБЛЕМЫ ПСИХОДИДАКТИКИ ВЫСШЕЙ ШКОЛЫ И ВОЗМОЖНЫЕ ПУТИ ИХ РЕШЕНИЯ

### *Problems of Psycho Didactics in University and Possible Ways of Their Solution*

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**Abstract.** *This article is devoted to the study of two main problems – whom and how to teach in a university. Theoretical analysis substantiated the thesis that the inefficiency of teaching students is connected directly with the lack of teachers' knowledge about psychological peculiarities of modern student community. Accordingly, the research shows the contrariety between this age and forms of its appearance as one of students' specifics. One of main consequences of those problems is the genesis and development of student infantilism, which has such essential characteristics: ambivalence, motivational stimulating force, behavioral form, protracted nature of infantilism and its extending, possibility of its overcoming and correction. The particular research set effective algorithm and the program of psychological correction of student's infantilism while obtaining higher education.*

*The second problem is devoted to the necessity of using teaching psycho didactical methods to create conditions for personal cognitive development. Theoretical analysis and empiric research identified the method system to develop cognitive process: for memory – enlarging didactic units as factors for systematizing learning materials and students' knowledge; attention – improving individual controlled work of students; information representation – text manipulation and multimedia didactics; feelings – emotional and willful control, decision taking ability logic development; imagination – didactical games.*

**Keywords:** *an university, age related peculiarities of students, an university teacher, psycho didactics, the development of cognitive personal sphere and students.*

### **Введение** **Introduction**

Психодидактика как сопредельный раздел психологии и педагогики формировался во второй половине XX века как в рамках отечественной, так и зарубежной науки. Выводы о важности психодидактики могут найти свое подтверждение в советских концепциях развития и обучения А. В. Брушлинского, Л. С. Выготского, П. Я. Гальперина, В. В. Давыдова,

З. И. Калмыковой, Н. А. Менчинской, С. Л. Рубинштейна, М. А. Холодной, И. С. Якиманской, а также в когнитивной психологии – Дж. Брунер, Б. М. Величковский, С. Герберт, Дж. Миллер, У. Найссер, А. Ньюэлл, К. Прибрам, Р. Солсо, Дж. Сперлинг, в границах теорий психосоциальных, личностных типологий, взаимодействия личности и среды и др.

Отметим, что не только перечисленные авторы обращались к проблематике психодидактики, но и многие другие, кто ставил перед собой проблему эффективности обучения на любом этапе развития личности в онтогенезе.

Особую *актуальность* психодидактическая проблематика приобретает в первой четверти XXI века, так как человек обучающийся и те, кто его обучают сталкиваются с большими проблемами структуризацией увеличивающейся информацией, ограничениями в ее усвоении человеком как на ранних, так и на последующих этапах онтогенеза.

Данная проблематика приобретает новые смысл и злободневность в период получения личностью высшего профессионального образования по нескольким причинам: переход в формат Единый государственный экзамен в среднем (школьном) образовании, сокращение учебного времени и аудиторных занятий (переход в формат бакалавриата и магистратуры), внедрением как в учебную, так и повседневную жизнь общества новых информационных и компьютерных технологий, всемирная система объединённых компьютерных сетей для хранения и передачи информации (Internet) и др.

В исследовании ставится *цель* - выявить некоторые главные проблемы современного этапа психодидактики высшей школы и предложить возможные пути их решения.

*Задачами исследования* являются: анализ психологических особенностей современного студенчества, разработка и внедрение системы психодидактических приемов для создания условий развития когнитивной сферы личности.

*Предметом исследования* служит потенциал психодидактики как активного субъекта и мотиватора решения задач высшей школы.

Важнейшими *методами исследования* выступили: сравнительный анализ организации этого вида деятельности в российских вузах, включенное наблюдение за студентами и преподавателями, контент-анализ курсовых и выпускных квалификационных работ и магистерских диссертаций, опросы, интервью, анкетирование и самоописания преподавателей, студентов и магистрантов вузов, проективные методики «Идеальный преподаватель современной высшей школы», «Идеальный современный студент» и др.

## Содержание Content

**Первой проблемой высшей школы**, которая может быть поставлена для решения в рамках психодидактики высшей школы выступает *анализ и учет современных психологических особенностей студенческого возраста*.

Исторически сложилось, что в Древнем Риме, позже в средние века студентом именовалось лицо, которое было занято процессом познания (в начале и сам преподаватель), и только к XII веку только тот, кто обучался. Отметим, что во многих языках термин «студент» берет начало от латинского *Studens (studentis)* и интерпретируется как усердно и упорно работающий, делающий, занимающийся, жаждущий знаний, овладевающий ими, изучающий науку.

В современном социуме «студенчество» означает студентов как особую социально-демографическую группу, имеющую следующие характеристики: специфичная группа людей, организационно объединенных институтом высшего образования; обладает определенной численностью, поло-возрастной структуры, территориальным распределением, определенным общественным положением, ролью и статусом; особой фазой, стадией социализации (студенческие годы).

О. С. Анисимова, Л. С. Николаева (Анисимова & Николаева, 2013), В. В. Галкин (Галкин, 2012), Е. В. Дёмкина (Дёмкина, 2012), И. В. Жуланова А. М. Медведев (Жуланова & Медведев, 2014), Г. Ю. Любимова (Любимова, 2005), Т. А. Назаров (Назаров, 2015, 2015а), Р. В. Сергеев (Сергеев, 2010), Р. Баркер, Г. Виткин, Д. Колб, У. Колберг, Г. А. Ляукина (Ляукина, 1999), И. Майерс-Бриггс, Дж. Марсиа, Э. Паскарелла, В. Тинто, У. Пери, Д. Хит, А. Чикеринг, А. Эстин при анализе студентов первой характеристикой называют занятие саморазвитием как всей личности, так и интеллектуальной сферы с целью подготовки к будущей профессиональной деятельности в обществе.

Однако анализ современного российского студенчества демонстрирует первой характеристикой *противоречивость* данного возраста, проявляющейся в следующем:

- с одной стороны, данный возраст выступает как возраст, относящийся к взрослому по данным возрастной психологии и физиологии (Д. Бромлей, Ш. Бюлер, О. Б. Дарвиш, Г. Крайг, В. Е. Ключко, В. Н. Коллюцкий, И. С. Кон, И. Ю. Кулагина, Т. Д. Марцинковская, Т. М. Марютина, Х. Ремшмидт, Т. Г. Стефаненко, Э. Эрикссон), с другой стороны, в студенческом возрасте личность психологически и социально остается в

позиции «ученика», экономически, юридически и морально зависит от родителей;

- студент только получает свое профессиональное образование, находится на первой стадии профессионализации, а с другой студент - это определенный «зародыш» будущего работника, он пытается начать свою трудовую деятельность, часто не по специальности, получаемой в вузе;
- в студенческом возрасте может иметь место нарушение триады: потребность - деятельность - мотив (предмет потребности) (по А. Н. Леонтьеву), переключаясь в схему «деятельность – мотив – потребность», при этом мотив может выступать не как часть внешней среды, и не как «опредмеченная потребность»; нарушается в силу небольшого объема знаний у студентов тезис о том, что развитие человеческого сознания обусловлено развитием системы знаний и выработкой морально-нравственных представлений и норм.

На противоречивость студенческого возраста указывают Н. Е. Беляева (Беляева, 2009), Ю. А. Самарин (Цит. по Москаленко, 2015в) в следующих планах: *социально-психологическом* - между расцветом интеллектуальных и физических сил студента и жестоким лимитом времени, экономических возможностей для удовлетворения возросших потребностей; *организационно-дидактическом* - между стремлением к самостоятельности в отборе знаний и довольно жесткими формами и методами подготовки специалиста определенного профиля; *информационном* - огромное количество информации, поступающее через различные каналы, расширяет знания студентов и вместе с тем обилие этой информации при отсутствии достаточного времени, а подчас и желания на ее мысленную переработку может вести к известной поверхности в знаниях и мышления и требует специальной работы преподавателей по углублению как знаний, так и умений и интересов студентов в целом.

*Противоречивость* студенческого возраста в XXI веке доказывается и исследованиями М. Тейлора (Тейлор, 2010), который вслед за Н. Хау и У. Страусс объявил современную молодежь «людьми нового тысячелетия», выделяя его главными характеристиками:

- стремление к хорошим оценкам и успеваемости, с одной стороны, но с другой наименьший вклад усердия, это самые равнодушные к учебе и недисциплинированные студенты, они крайне мало времени проводят за учебниками, испытывают скуку от учения и часто опаздывают на занятия;



- уважение к общественным нормам и институтам, с одной стороны, а с другой - не только не отличается гражданской лояльностью и корректностью поведения, но ее неучтивость и рекордно низкие показатели гражданской активности свидетельствуют о невысоком уровне гражданского сознания, плохом знакомстве с правилами общественного поведения, а также о слабых связях с традиционными структурами общества;
- с одной стороны - активно участвует во внеаудиторной деятельности, а с другой – падение высокой вовлеченности в подобную работу после поступления в вуз по сравнению со старшеклассниками;
- с одной стороны требует создания безопасной, регламентированной среды обучения, но с другой - нынешние студенты подвержены стрессам, живут в условиях ухудшающейся экологии и нередко находятся на грани нервного срыва, при этом ужесточение мер безопасности и внутреннего распорядка могут наложить ограничения на собственное поведение студентов и стеснить личную свободу;
- сложности во взаимопонимании с родителями;
- более склоны к новым технологиям;
- присущи - этническая пестрота, искушенность в технике, количественное преобладание женского студенческого контингента, постмодернистский тип поведения, прямое порождение изменяющихся социальных условий, в совокупности образующих явление постмодерна, поэтому более склонны к пессимизму, провозглашению того, что «истина» для каждого своя, ставят личное мнение и предпочтение выше истины, а личный опыт - выше науки и разума и не признает авторитетов, потребительское отношение к образованию, ориентация на развлечение (гедонизм) и приоритет права потребителя и своей личности над социумом; склонность торговаться; неверие в традиционные ценности; несдержанность желаний и жизненная близорукость; приспособляемость и прагматизм; высокая самооценка; скептицизм и цинизм;
- подвержены сильному стрессу и испытывают недостаток воспитанности и отзывчивости, интеллектуальное равнодушие, резиньяцию, избирательную склонность к риску.
- У российских студентов О. С. Анисимова, Л. С. Николаева, Е. В. Демкина, Г. А. Ляукина выделили характеристики студенческой молодежи: проблемность и противоречивость,

высокая чувствительность к переменам, переходность в социализации, активность в развитии интеллектуальных, нравственных и эстетических характеристик, становления и стабилизации характера, овладение полным комплексом социальных функций взрослого человека, включая гражданские, общественно-политические и профессионально-трудовые; продление периода «детства» еще на 5-6 лет и др.

Т. А. Назаров, О. В. Москаленко (Москаленко & Назаров, 2015; Назаров, 2015а) изучили студенчество XXI века и пришли к выводу, что противоречивость студенческого возраста приводит к формированию студенческого инфантилизма, которой обладает сущностными характеристиками:

- *амбивалентностью*, проявляющейся как в традиционном смысле – негативная оценка инфантилизма, так и в нетрадиционном – позитивная его оценка;
- *мотивационно-побудительной силой*, которая зависит от наличия или отсутствия учебно-профессиональной мотивации, желания получить новые профессиональные умения и навыки, новый социальный статус;
- *поведенческой*, или формы и направления проявления студенческого инфантилизма;
- *затяжным характером инфантилизма и пролонгированием* его на следующие возрастные этапы;
- *возможностью преодоления и коррекции* студенческого инфантилизма.

Т. А. Назаров (Назаров, 2015) в своем исследовании показал решение данной проблемы через психологическую коррекцию, направленную на реконструкцию психических новообразований студентов, их личностного роста, воссоздание гармоничных и адекватных возрасту отношений студентов с окружающей средой в общем виде, ослабление действия психотравмирующих факторов, приводящих к инфантилизму, оптимизацию психологического климата в коллективе вуза в целом и личностно-профессионального развития студентов.

В названном исследовании разработан и апробирован алгоритм и программа реализации психологической коррекции студенческого инфантилизма в процессе получения высшего образования, который содержит следующие этапы: *первый* – *установление доверительного контакта* со студентами, *демонстрация и обязательность конфиденциальности* информации, полученной от студентов по проблемам их личностно-профессионального развития; *второй* – *разработка методов*

*и форм* психологической коррекции студенческого инфантилизма в процессе получения высшего образования, информирование и показ их студентам - консультативных бесед, тренингов, упражнений (например, переосмысления и осознания своей позиции) и т.д., и т.п.; *третий – выбор групповой и индивидуальной стратегии и тактики* психологической коррекции студенческого инфантилизма в процессе получения высшего образования под запрос студентов (например, работа по коррекции студенческого инфантилизма в процессе получения высшего образования в ходе выполнения учебных заданий, а также организация специальных занятий с вузовскими психологами, кураторами и специалистами по организации воспитательной работе с вузовской молодежью); *четвертый – реализация групповой и индивидуальной стратегии и тактики* коррекции студенческого инфантилизма в процессе получения высшего образования. Данный этап может реализовываться опосредованно, например, через реальное участие студентов в управлении некоторых подразделений вуза (общежитие, деятельность студенческих профсоюзов, организация научной работы студентов, участие волонтерами в различных мероприятиях, летняя работа в студенческих строительных отрядах и др.); *пятый – получение и обработка информации* от студентов по принципу «обратной связи» по поводу внедрения мероприятий по коррекции студенческого инфантилизма в процессе получения высшего образования, корректировка ранее разработанных *групповой и индивидуальной стратегии и тактики* коррекции студенческого инфантилизма; *шестой – разработка перспективных направлений деятельности студентов по их саморазвитию, предотвращению и предупреждению явлений инфантилизма в другие возрастные периоды.*

Программа-комплекс психологической коррекции студенческого инфантилизма в процессе получения высшего образования, по мнению автора, учитывает *условия и факторы психолого-акмеологической коррекции студенческого инфантилизма в процессе получения высшего образования: психо-дидактические, личностно-психологические, социально-средовые (педагогическая коррекция), мотивационно-адаптационные (социально-личностная коррекция).*

Как показало исследование Т. А. Назарова учет и внедрение разработанных алгоритма и программы-комплекса позволил преодолеть низкий и средний уровни степени проявления студенческого инфантилизма, скорректировать его последствия и влияние на личность студента, а также предупреждать инфантилизм в другие возрастные этапы развития личности взрослого человека (Москаленко & Назаров, 2015; Назаров, 2015, 2015а).

**Второй проблемой высшей школы,** которая может быть поставлена для решения в рамках психодидактики высшей школы выступает

*разработка и внедрение системы психодидактических приемов с целью развития когнитивной сферы (память, мышление, восприятие и др.) студентов (О. В. Москаленко (Москаленко, 2015г)).*

Важность рассмотрения данных приемов вытекает из того, что студенты не умеют «учиться» вообще и, тем более в вузе. Школа, как правило, тренирует их память, ограничивая объемы информации, часто выдает ее порциями в виде определенного рода заданий. В вузе студент уже сталкивается с иными формами и методами преподавания, контроля знаний. Неумение самостоятельно учиться приводит студента, особенно первых курсов, к «уходу» от активного и самостоятельного обучения в семестре, недисциплинированности (невыполнение заданий, пропуску занятий), а затем выработке «поверхностного» способа учения (как-нибудь сдать зачет и экзамен, шпаргалки, списать у соседа, попросить помощи в сдаче зачета и экзаменов и др.).

Эта проблема усиливается еще влиянием внешней, неосознанной учебно-профессиональной мотивацией студентов в силу того, что студенты часто не понимают, для чего они изучают именно предлагаемые дисциплины.

Таким образом, возможно формирование и осознание учебно-познавательной мотивации студентов для более успешного обучения их в вузе через поиск различных психодидактических приемов.

При этом важно различать соотношение и влияние приемов, методов и правил обучения (Ю. К. Бабанский (Бабанский, 1989), И. Я. Лернер, М. Н. Скаткин и др.), а также выделять в их логической структуре объективную и субъективную части. Последняя определена особенностями личности педагога, студентов и конкретными условиями (С. И. Архангельский (Архангельский, 1980)).

Традиционно в современной педагогике высшей школы используют различные методы обучения: модульное, кейс-метода, наглядные, основанные на подражании, словесные (лекции, семинары, обучение по книгам), наблюдение, эксперимент, самостоятельная работа, упражнение, направленные на развитие активности, сознательности, инициативности ребенка, эвристический, «естественный» (т.е. обучение в ходе непосредственного контакта с действительностью), «учение через деятельность» с использованием практических методов обучения, частично-поисковые, исследовательские методы и др. (Г. В. Селевко (Селевко, 2001), О. В. Москаленко (Москаленко, 2015а)).

Такое многообразие методов, играющих разные роли в процессе обучения, часто приводит педагогов к замешательству и отказу от многих в пользу одного-двух, которые могут быть легко типизированы и введены в практику работы преподавателя как авторский метод преподавания.

Однако, данные методы «удобны» и «легки» для преподавателя, с его позиции обучающегося, в то время как для студентов – это пассивные, не развивающие его личность и не учитывающие его психологические особенности.

Поэтому, на наш взгляд, нужна система психодидактических приемов, а в перспективе и методов, которые позволили бы не только изучать студентам новые дисциплины, но и создали условия для развития его личности в целом, а в частности когнитивную сферу.

В качестве примера первого варианта нам представляется следующая система психодидактических приемов для развития когнитивных процессов:

- *памяти* - приемы укрупнения дидактических единиц как фактора систематизации учебного материала и знаний студентов (В. В. Давыдов, М. Н. Скаткин, Л. В. Занков, З. А. Скрипко (Скрипко, 2003));
- *внимания* - дидактические приемы совершенствования самостоятельной контролируемой работы студентов (обучить формам и приемам самостоятельной работы через внедрение разноуровневых заданий, при этом можно использовать методы научного познания, интеграцию заданий и знаний для их выполнения, внедрение моделирования структурно-логическим конструкций и др. (С. Б. Игнатов, В. А. Игнатова, А. С. Байметова, Ю. С. Перевощиков, А. Р. Камалева, С. Е. Старостина, Л. В. Подколызина (Подколызина, 1999));
- *представления информации* – прием работы с текстами (Л. Г. Васильев (Васильев, 1991), О. В. Москаленко (Москаленко, 1997), Э.В.Румянцева (Румянцева, 2005)); приёмы мультимедийной дидактики (приёмы способствующие визуализации мышления; обратной связи; сжатия полученной информации; для переработки информации; эффективного контроля качества усвоенных знаний (тестеры, тренажёры, системы опроса и т.д.); направленные на творческое применение накопленных знаний, развитие способностей учащихся) (Г. О. Аствацатуров, Л. В. Кочегарова (Аствацатуров, Кочегарова, 2012); О. В. Москаленко (Москаленко, 2015а, 2015в));
- *чувств* – приемы контроля эмоционально-волевой сферы в учебно-профессиональной деятельности студентов (поведение в конфликтных ситуациях, развитие волевых качеств и др.);

- *мышления и способности к принятию решения* – приемы развития логического мышления студентов (О.В. Москаленко (Москаленко, 2015а), Е. А. Хотченкова (Хотченкова, 2012));
- *воображения* - дидактические сказки; дидактические игры (Т. Н. Бухмина, А. К. Аксенова, А. В. Бондаренко, Л. В. Бочкарева, А. А. Смоленцева (Смоленцева, 2003), А. И. Максаков, Г. А. Тумакова) и др.

Отметим, что каждый когнитивный процесс и его развитие важен для студентов, однако в учебном процессе в высшей школе, по нашим исследованиям, более 89 % студентов разных курсов бакалавриата и магистратуры считают более значимыми развитие мышления и способности к принятию решения. Вероятно, студенты связывают развитие интеллектуальной сферы, которая в будущем поможет им состояться в профессии и осуществить карьерное развитие, чаще с мыслительными процессами, чем с другими, хотя придают существенное значение и всем другим названным выше процессам. Так же студенты, считают, что все другие процессы им более или менее понятны, они научились, в основном, и запоминать, и воображать, и быть внимательным и др. еще раньше в процессе школьного обучения.

Очевиден и такой факт, что приемы, методы и правила обучения неразрывно связаны с *методами* (индукция, дедукция, анализ и синтез и др.) и *операциями* (анализ, синтез, сравнение, обобщение и абстракция) мышления.

Поэтому кратко охарактеризуем *приемы развития логического мышления студентов* (подробное обоснование и описание этих приемов см. (Москаленко, 2014, 2015а, 2016), к которым мы отнесли дидактические приемы для *развития логических операций*:

- *анализа и синтеза* (анализ условия, плана решения задачи, результата; использование и совершенствование форм практических действий - составление конспектов, планов, тезисов, схем, графиков, диаграмм; применение последовательности мыслительных действий при выполнении анализа и синтеза - активизация восприятия, памяти и воображения; воссоздание целостной картины объекта или явления; выделение критерия анализа; воображаемое выделение частей объекта, соответствующее направлению анализа; описание свойств частей объекта анализа; повторное синтезирование целой картины объекта и проверка его целостности и др.);
- *сравнения* (сравнивать как по сходным, так и отличительным признакам, по одному признаку на абстрактном материале и

согласно алгоритму приема сравнения; установление целей сравнения; рассмотрение типичных учебных ситуаций, диктующих постановку задачи на сравнение; проведение обучения приему сравнения и др.);

- *абстрагирования* (выделение положительного и отрицательного абстрагирования; акцентирование внимания на противопоставляющем; формирование операции любого абстрагирования; внедрение схемы формирования операции абстрагирования; применение мыслительного алгоритма абстрагирования и др.);
- *обобщения*: внедрение алгоритма мыслительного приема обобщения и схему процесс формирования обобщения и др.;
- *классификации* (знакомство с элементами формальной логики; объяснение и усвоение сущности операции классификации; показ и анализ готовых (верных и неверных) классификаций различных объектов; выработку, рекомендации и применение правил (предписаний, алгоритмов) классификации; упражнение в классификации различных объектов и др.).

Отметим, что предложенные к анализу проблемы психодидактики высшей школы - анализ психологических особенностей современного студенчества, разработка и внедрение системы психодидактических приемов для создания условий развития когнитивной сферы личности - актуальны до сих пор и могут быть решены с помощью психологического аппарата. Это позволит помочь студентам не только в получении профессиональных знаний и умений, но и развитии их профессионального самосознания (О. В. Москаленко (Москаленко, 2004, 2012)), формирования сценария карьерного пути (О. В. Москаленко (Москаленко, 2014а)), а также помочь в личностно-профессиональном росте (О. В. Москаленко (Москаленко, 2004а)) как самих студентов, так и преподавателей вузов.

## **Обобщение** **Conclusions**

Рассмотренные в статье проблемы высшей школы и предложенные пути их решения представляют новый подход к проблемам высшей школы, а именно раскрывают возможности использования достижений психологической науки в педагогике. Это важно как для личностно-профессионального развития студентов, так и преподавателей, оптимизации их профессионально-педагогической деятельности. Для студентов - это выражается в раскрытии новых перспектив развития личности в учебно-

профессиональной деятельности, для преподавателей – открываются новые горизонты в карьерном развитии в своей профессии через их личностно-профессиональный рост. В итоге, это достаточно оптимизирует совместную деятельность студентов и преподавателей в вузе.

### **Summary**

Psycho didactic problem gains extra applicability in the first quarter of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, because a man, who is being taught, and those, who are teaching him, encounter with big problems of the structuring of enlarging data, limits of learning information by a person on the first as well as further stages of ontogenesis.

This problem acquires a new meaning and topicality, when a person is getting higher professional educational by several reasons: adaptation to the Russian state exam system in secondary education, reducing study time and class studies (introducing four year degree and master course), implementation of new informational and computer technologies in learning process as well as everyday life of society, worldwide network for storage and release of information (Internet) and etc.

Discerned in the article university problems and suggested ways of its solution represent a new attitude towards university problems, in particular they expose the opportunity of using achievements of psychological science in pedagogy. This is important for personal professional development of students as well as teachers, the optimization of their professional pedagogical activity. This manifests itself in exposing new prospects of a personal development for students; this explores new horizons in career development in their own professions by their personal professional growth for teachers. As the result, this optimizes sufficiently the joint activity between students and teachers in university.

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## TWO APPROACHES IN STUDENT ACHIEVEMENTS ASSESSMENT – PRO ET CONTRA

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**Abstract.** *Student achievement depends very much on reliable and valid assessment methods. In this paper assessment of reflecting writing and computer based on - line tests will be discussed. The main challenge in evaluation reflecting writing tests is objectivity. For this purpose test papers were evaluated mutually by different lecturers and grading compared by Pearson`s correlation coefficient. Results showed that strong correlation exists in all compared assessor pairs. In computer based on-line test in Moodle platform evaluation is done by computer programme and grading is announced just after student finishes the test. In purpose to maintain student`s reflective skills clinical case and/or problem were included in computer based tests. These questions were evaluated manually. Two types of assessment – manual and computer based have their advantages and disadvantages. Our conclusion is that different tests and assessment methods should be used for comprehensive and objective evaluation of student`s outcomes.*

**Keywords:** *Cohen`s kappa; Computer based tests (CBT); Paper-based tests (PBT); Student outcomes.*

### Introduction

The aim of medical education is to train students to become medical doctors with comprehensive knowledge and perfect practical skills in the field which will have a positive impact on the recovery and well-being of patients. Student outcomes depend very much on testing system, and reliable and valid assessment approaches. Two types of the tests and their assessment were analysed - paper based tests (PBT) assessment and computer based test (CBT) assessment. Paper based tests are widely used in medical universities. These tests mainly check student reflective writing skills. Reflective writing is a popular tool to support the growth of reflective capacity of undergraduate medical learners (Wald et al., 2012). It is well known that reflective writing impacts medical student empathy levels (Chen & Forbes, 2014), develops deepened understanding of patients` experience of illness, promotes practitioners` well-being (Wald & Reis, 2010), leads to improvement in skills such as communication, collaboration,

professionalisms, and serves as a tool for student assessment (Mamede et al., 2008). Computer based tests with the introduction of technologies in the teaching/learning environment can enhance student learning. CBT and their assessment have advantages because it is possible to provide students with the feedback just after the test, therefore assessment should be integrated in the learning process (Stobart, 2008). Additional benefits of CBT and their assessment include cost and time saving because of automated delivery, enhanced levels of student engagement because of relative novelty, and enhanced validity because of automation of the marking process that can reduce the scope for human error (Hewson et al., 2012).

### **Methodology**

This study describes student assessment by paper-based test and computer-based test in the two semesters of the academic years 2015/2016 and 2016/2017 at Riga Stradiņš University. Students' outcomes in PBT were evaluated in 23 randomly chosen tests. To secure reliability of the results chosen tests were anonymous and graders involved in assessment were labelled by the letters A, B, C, D and E. To ascertain reliability Cohen's kappa method was used. Each test was graded by 3 examiners, and Pearson's correlation coefficient was calculated. In paper based tests students have the complete set of the questions included throughout the time given for the exam. Common strategies observed in PBT include making notes on the margins of the test paper, marking key words by underlining them, ticking off answered questions. This study includes also CBT assessment for the student outcomes evaluation. Student outcomes evaluations by CBT were realized via the University online learning platform *Moodle*. Test results of 164 students were evaluated in this research. In data bank tree types of the questions were included: multiple choice questions (MCQ), matching questions (MQ), and short answer questions (SAQ). In addition to these questions clinical case and problem in genetics were included in the test. These two tasks were evaluated manually. In CBT students could skip, review and change answers. Tests taking mode shows disparity between PBT and CBT. To avoid possible confusion about tests taking mechanism in CBT tests pilot test for each topic was placed on e-studies. The e-studies administrator takes care of all administrative tasks: generate variants from the question data bank for each student individually, system provides a link to the students at a definite time and date who take the test online in the classroom, register time spent on each question and on the whole test. System provides grading of the test automatically and feedback to the student just student has finished the test. Before starting the test all tests takers are required to enter following information: name, surname, students ID number, and password provided just before the test. Administrator

provides individualized time for each student allowing students to start the test when they are ready to do it.

### Results

Total grading marks in both PBT and CBT are shown in figure 1 and figure 2.

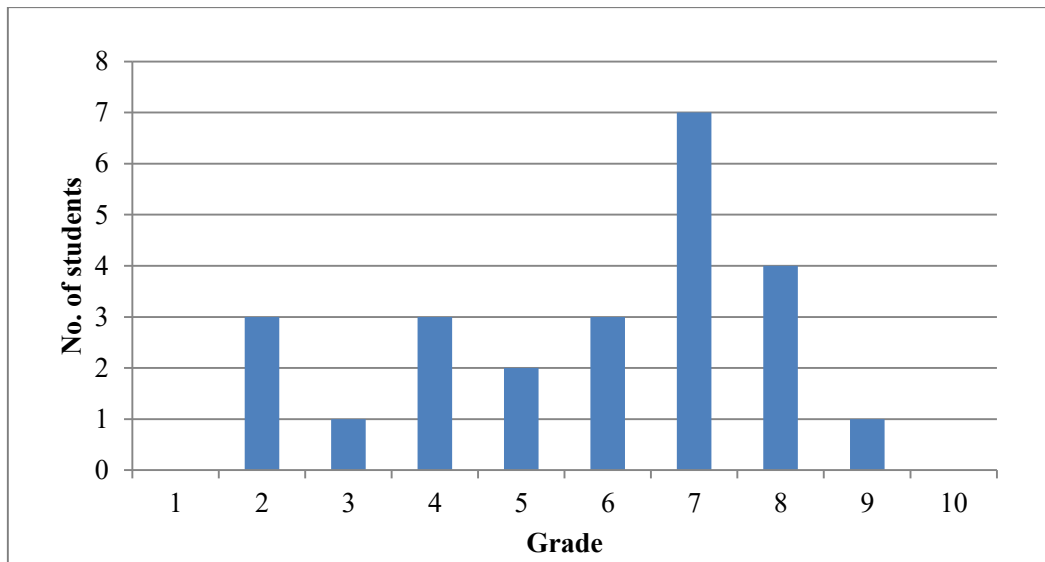


Figure 1 Overall test scores obtained in paper-based tests

Figure 1 shows that most of the test-takers received grade 7, only a few students failed, and no one received grade 10.

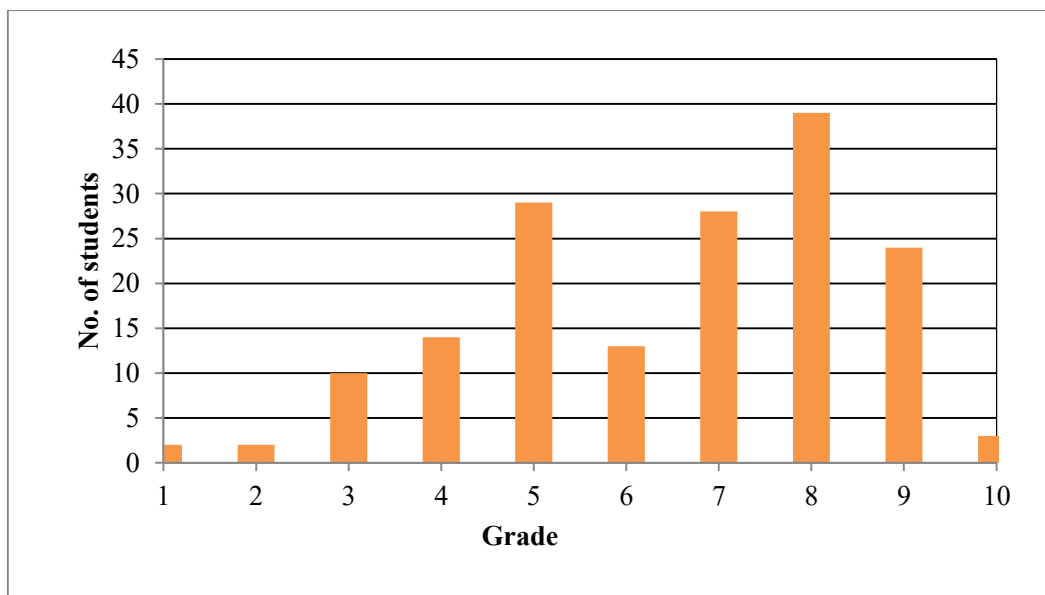


Figure 2 Overall test scores obtained in computer-based tests

In figure 2 it could be seen that most of the students received grade 8, a few students failed, and some received even grade 10.

**Table 1 Grades in PBT and CBT and number of students assessed**

Grade	No. of students	
	<i>CBT</i>	<i>PBT</i>
1	2	0
2	2	3
3	10	1
4	14	2
5	29	2
6	13	3
7	28	7
8	39	4
9	24	1
10	3	0

Results represented in table 1 show that overall test grades are higher in CBT in comparison with PBT. Grade 7 and upper in CBT received 57 percent of the students, but in PBT – 52 percent of the students. Furthermore in CBT three students received grade 10 – with distinction, but in PBT such grading was not received at all. Grade lower than 4 was received by 8.5 % of the CBT test takers and 17 % - PBT test takers.

For the purpose of verifying that all examiners had the same acquirements in PBT assessment correlation coefficient was calculated between pairs of examiners. Results are shown in table 2.

**Table 2 Correlation coefficients between pairs of graders**

Graders	A vs. B	A vs. C	A vs.D	A vs. E
<b>Correlation coefficient</b>	0.76	0.81	0.91	0.62
<b>P value</b>	0.0012	0.0004	0.0001	0.0271

As is shown in table 2, correlation is strong and statistically significant in all compared pairs of graders.

Study outcomes depending on the modes of the question were evaluated in CBT.

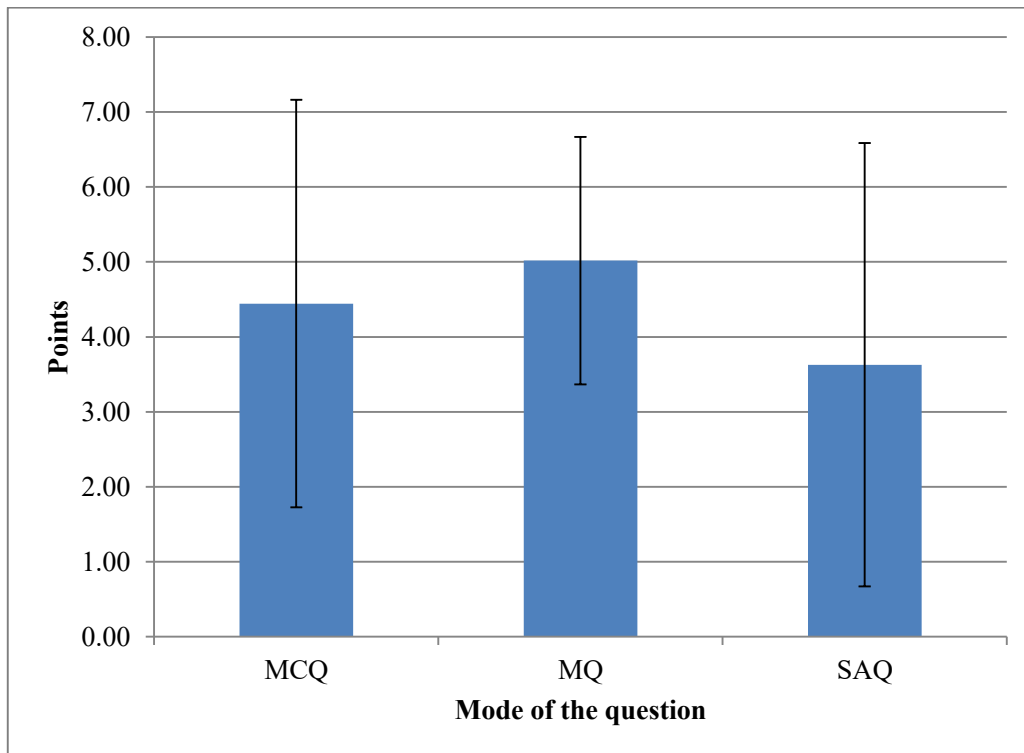


Figure 3 Grading depending on the modes of the question

Figure 3 shows grading results depending on the mode of the question and standard deviation. The highest grades examinees received in matching questions, but the lowest - in short answer questions, however our study did not show statistically significant differences between the modes of the question.

To strengthen our observation that the modes of the questions do not influence students' outcomes, median and mode for all three types of questions were calculated. Results are presented in figure 4.

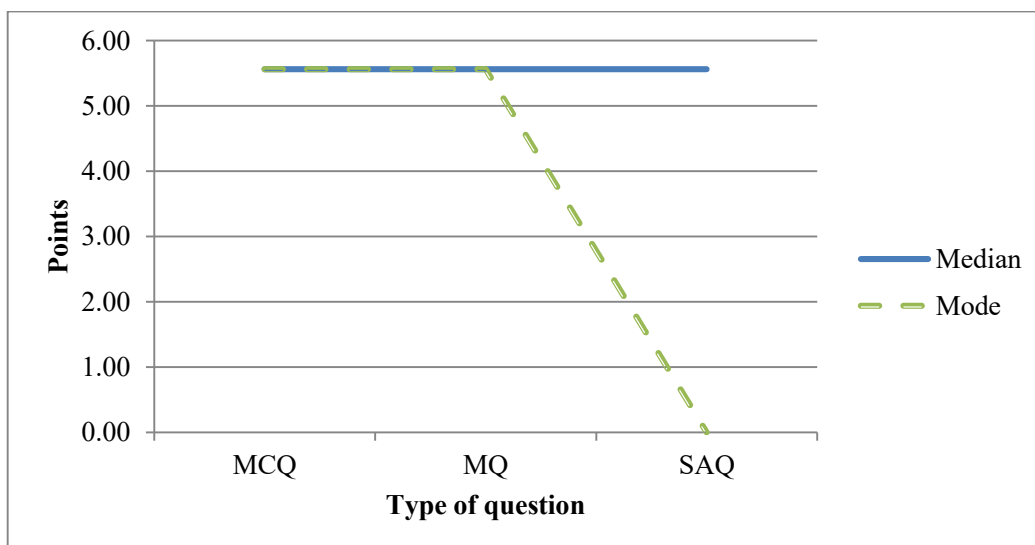


Figure 4 Median and mode values in three types of questions

As shown in figure 4, median values for all types of questions are shown by blue line in the graph. Median values were equal for all types of questions, which confirm that student outcomes do not depend on the mode of the question, and all three types of questions used in our tests should be used in student assessment to obtain reliable results. On the contrary, mode values (green dashed line in the graph) show that grades for MCQ and MQ questions were higher than for SAQ. This observation may indicate that SAQ were more difficult and in these answers students made more mistakes.

In paper-based tests students receive the feedback from the grader after the test is checked. Grader gives his/her opinion orally. Such feedback includes indication of mistakes, unclear formulation seen in the test, and teachers' conclusion about the test. CBT feedback is received immediately after student finishes the test and it gives information not only of final sum of the points, but also grading received in each question giving information about each topic separately.

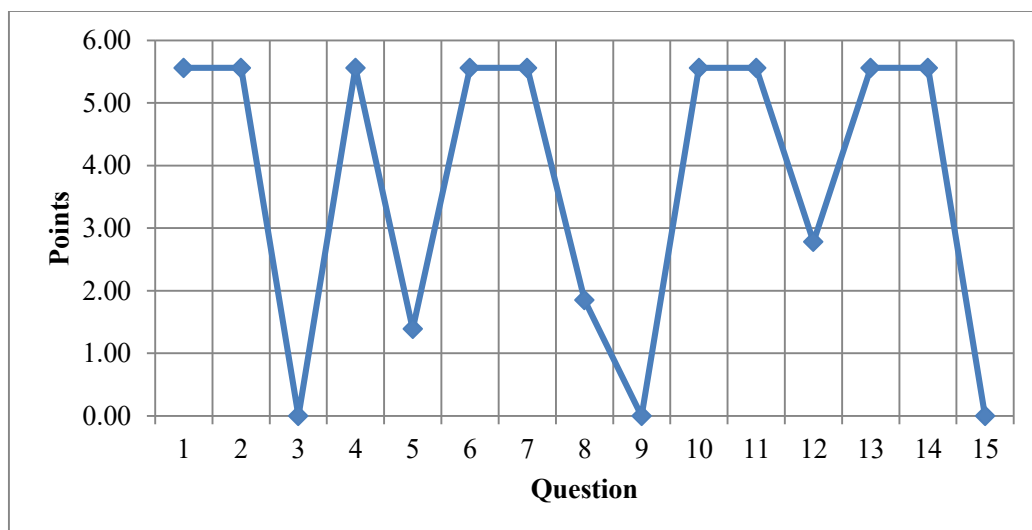


Figure 5 Example of the feedback received by a student after the CBT

Scores for each question are seen in points from maximum 5.5 points for each question. Feedback for the student “X” in the colloquium shows that the maximum point’s student received in questions 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 10, 11, 13, and 14, several other questions, e.g. 5, 12 were partly correct, but questions 3, 9 and 15 were not answered at all. This allows student to understand their strength and weakness and to prepare better for the examination.

Additional points for the test were added after clinical case or problem in genetics was checked by lecturer. Final result student received within few hours after the test. Grading in accordance with RSU study regulations appear automatically on e-studies.



## Discussion

Paper based tests and computer based tests are widely used in students outcomes assessment in medical universities. The aim of our study was to analyse successes and failures of these tests and assessment methods. Feedback analysis allows students to understand their strong and weak topics and to prepare better for examination. In a given example student X failed in question 3 and in question 9. Student can analyse mistakes, ask the teacher to explain his/her mistakes, and read additional material if needed for better understanding of the weak topics.

Differences in mode values depending on the type of question were similar in MCQ and MQ, but very different and much lower in SAQ. This observation may be a topic for the future considerations and in SAQ formulations and predictive answers should be improved.

Regardless of the common belief that paper-based tests results depend very much on the perception of a grader, statistically different grading results between different graders were not observed in our study.

PBT and CBT tests were used to evaluate student achievements and advantages and disadvantages of each type of test were analysed. Main items are shown in table 3 and table 4. Table 3 provides the perception of teachers on various aspects of paper-based tests. It could be seen that if time is saved on test creating than it is wasted in addition for correction of the tests. Essay type questions could be considered as an advantage because students can show their creativity, logical thinking, ability to express their thoughts, however this advantages is shaded by possible bias in evaluation depending on grader.

Table 3 **Advantages and disadvantages of paper-based tests**

<b>Advantages</b>	<b>Disadvantages</b>
Shorter time is required for preparing the test (Ward & Murray-Ward, 1999)	Time consuming correction A. (Ward & Murray-Ward, 1999)
Essay type questions can be used (Ward & Murray-Ward, 1999)	Subjectivity of the examiner (Hoic-Bozic et al., 2008)

Table 4 shows views expressed by CBT by graders. It should be considered first that not all advantages are really advantages in all situations and vice versa. For instance, immediate feedback what could be evaluated as advantage in most cases, for some examinees may be a disadvantage, because it may cause test takers anxiety (Wise & Plake, 1989). It was recommended that feedback could not be used until its effects are better understood (Marla, 2006). As a disadvantage limited question format could be considered. Recently only three types of

questions could be included in data bank. As a time goes on this problem could be eliminated by developing more diverse question format. In addition CBT can be supplemented by questions which are not evaluated automatically by computers, but manually by examiner and scoring added to final grade.

As with any teaching/learning process, there are acquisitions, problems, and challenges to be met. Some of these problems have been considered to be improved, some have been ignored, but some other should be developed to perfect assessment process. Several disadvantages could be dismissed. For instance, some additional questions which are corrected manually can be added. Such approach was used in our CBT where calculation was added to automatically tested questions on/about clinical cases and also problems about recurrence risk prognosis.

Table 4 **Advantages and disadvantages of computer-based online tests**

<b>Advantages</b>	<b>Disadvantages</b>
Efficiency; less processing time (Karay et al., 2015). It takes less time for teachers to grade online tests if to compare with paper based tests.	Time consuming question bank preparation.
Automatic scoring with rapid feedback (Cantilon et al., 2004; Csapo et al., 2012; Yorke, 2005; Bartram & Bailey, 2010). The computer can automatically score the assessment and provide students with immediate feedback about their answers.	Limited question/answer format. Format is established by administrator and this includes MCQ, MQ, SAQ.
Cheating controls, increased test security (Kuzmina, 2010). Administrator has a variety of tools that prevent cheating.	Students cannot show their “extra” knowledge about the question. Answers to the questions are strongly restricted.
More objective assessment (Conole & Warburton, 2005). Computers make fewer errors than humans do.	Assessment is less creative, individual approach to each test is missed.

The hope is that, the advantages will become greater as the disadvantages will eventually disappear in both PBT and CBT evaluation.

### **Conclusions**

This study provides information about advantages and disadvantages of paper based and computer based grading. Several conclusions could be challenging for the improvement of learning/teaching process at the university.

1. Overall grading in CBT is higher than in PBT.
2. Mode of the question did not influence the students' outcomes.
3. Feedback information received immediately after the test can help in student learning process.

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# **AUTHORITY OF TEACHER OF TECHNICAL AND COMPUTER SCIENCE BASED ON STUDENTS OPINION**

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***Abstract.** Teacher profession has entails a huge responsibility. At work of a teacher, his character traits are key. Today, in the era of mass media, when in every home we can find a computer connected to the Internet, it is difficult to teacher to have the authority in students eyes. The main objective of this study is to learn about the level the teacher's authority of technical subjects - information technology.*

***Keywords:** Technical and Information Technology Education, authority, study, student.*

## **Introduction**

The analysis of pedagogical literature and research results show that there is no ready-made suggestion according to which the teacher can build authority in the eyes of the student. For one person the supreme value is knowledge, for another appropriate way to communicate with others. This is due to their own, personal hierarchy of values, of what qualities or competencies students appreciate more from others. According to B. Dymara the biggest role in building the authority is love for the child. (Kaczor, 2002; Gumuła et al., 2014) state that, knowledge and professional skills are not enough, far much greater role is played by communication skills, teacher charisma, but especially his cognitive, emotional or aesthetic sensitivity (Tureková et al., 2014).

## **The role of the teacher of technical - information technology in the information society**

Growing share of information technology in every area of life, forces the education system to change a role of the teacher (Prazner, 2014; Pytel, 2016).

Teacher must motivate, guide and encourage. Additional challenges arise before the teacher of technical subjects and information technology, arising from the phenomenon of „pedagogical inversion”, which is mentioned in his work by M. Mead. (Mead, 2000) This is a situation when a student exceeds the knowledge and skills of their teacher. This phenomenon particularly is often found in the subjects related to computer science (Haskova et al., 2015). This is due, of course, with young people ways of learning who use electronic devices, computer or the Internet from the beginning of their lives. (Siemieniecka & Siemieniecki, 2016).

Therefore, in the information society, the teacher of technical subjects and information technology is burdened with even greater responsibilities. In addition to implementing teaching programs, he should continuously introduce students the world of new technologies that will affect their daily life. Teacher alone is almost bound for ideal use of available modern solutions. Teacher build his authority on the basis of his high media competence, which is said by W. Strykowski. (Strykowski, 2005)

The role of a teacher of technical information technology has increased considerably thanks to the development of science and technology (Kosmala, 2009; Piaskowska-Silarska, 2012). Expert knowledge in electronic devices, advanced programs, build authority not only in the eyes of the students, but also other teachers, for which such media do not arise from the nature of the subject they teach. He must also be aware of support of his associates, for which the use of modern technologies are a huge barrier, and apply them in a much easier operation for improved learning outcomes (Tureková, 2014).

Based on a pedagogical literature, one can define the teachers authority, which is meant as respect, trust and esteem. The teacher who as authority is seen as guide in the personal difficulties, model worth to follow and person they can identify with. This is possible through genuine dialogue between teacher and students.

### **Research methodology**

The research aim was to demonstrate what teachers of technology or IT qualities are important for the perception the teacher as authority. The aim was also to determine what other factors are related to the teacher functioning such as behaviour, communication or, the method of students assessment. The area of research were two junior high schools and two high schools. The study involved 241 students from middle and high schools from city Myślenice near Cracow. Classes were selected randomly. In each class were both students from the city of Myślenice, as well as from nearby villages. The studies were carried between students of two educational stages - Stage III (gymnasium, 13-16 years old) and Stage IV (high schools, 16-18 years old). The total number of students was 241:

- Public Gymnasium in Jawornik them. Ks. Jan Twardowski - 52 students;
- Gymnasium No. 1 for them. Julius Slovak Myslenice - 67 students;
- Schools them. Andrew Średniawski in Myslenice - 63 students;
- High Schools them. Titus Chałubińskiego in Myslenice - 59 students.

The number of respondents divided by stage of education:

- III stage of education - 119 students
- IV stage of education - 122 students.

67 students of the fourth stage of education comes from rural areas, while 55 people from the town, most often from Myślenice. Among the surveyed students with the third stage of education, the relationship looks like. 51.3 % of the students come from rural areas and the remaining 58 people are inhabitants Myslenice that is close near Krakow.

### **Understanding by students a concept of authority**

The question about knowledge of the concept of authority was to investigate the level of knowledge about a given idea. Open question: „How do you understand the concept of authority?” Allowed to get different answers. The most common response was to say that the authority, is a person worthy of emulation. This or very similar (eg. „Role model”) answers granted by 178 surveyed people, represented by 74 % of total respondents. Considerably less frequently appeared an answer stating, that the authority is a person which possesses a social recognition, respect, (eg. „A person worthy of respect, respectable person”). This nature of the replies appeared in only 15 % of the respondents (36 people). Other answers in the number of 27 (11 %) must be allocated to the category not suitable for evaluation and grouped as other.

### **The status of teachers of technical subjects and information technology**

Interviewed students were answering more questions, they filled closed question about teacher of technical subjects and information technology, is or is not authority for them. Students opinions of a teacher of technical and information technology came out as negative - as many as 202 people have recognized that the teacher / have no authority for them. 16 % (39) of respondents believed that teacher of these subjects is authority for them.

Presenting the results for the various stages of education may be drawn interesting conclusions. Considering only respondents of third stage of education, 31 people (26 % of the surveyed group of high school students), stated that a teacher of technical subjects and information technology is authority for them. In

addition, it is worth noting that all 31 people who commented positively on this issue are men.

**Table 1 Intrinsic features that affect the perception of teachers of technical subjects and information technology as an authority by the respondents of third stage of education**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>Number of responses associated with the group (up to 31)</b>	<b>Percentage response [%]</b>
<i>personality features</i>	31	100
<i>substantive knowledge</i>	25	80
<i>skilful transfer of knowledge</i>	17	55
<i>other features</i>	3	10

The results illustrate that students of third stage of education participating in the study, as a feature that determined the perception of teachers of technical subjects and information technology unanimously chose those association with personality or, eg. Justice, conscientiousness, compassion. 80 % indicated that the features associated with substantive knowledge contributed greatly to this perception. More than half of the 31 respondents indicated that skilful transmission of knowledge through teaching of technical subjects and information technology influenced mostly their decisions. The group of „other characteristics” should be attributed to answers related to the external appearance.

88 middle school students shows a negative opinions with respect to teachers of technical subjects and information technology as an authority. As in the previous case, the answers received, should be grouped together in order to achieve transparent results.

**Table 2 Features that don't affect perception of teachers of technical subjects and information technology as an authority by respondents of third stage of education**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>Number of responses associated with the group (up to 88)</b>	<b>Percentage response [%]</b>
<i>negative personal qualities</i>	86	98
<i>merit lacks</i>	45	51
<i>skillful transfer of knowledge</i>	32	37
<i>other negative features</i>	9	10

Students who decided in a closed question that teachers of technical subjects and information technology are not authority for them, as previously almost



unanimously (98 %) decided that these components are negative personality features such as being unfair, impatience. 45 of 88 respondents of in this group have indicated that the negative reception of teachers shortages affect his school subject. 37 % points out weaknesses in the knowledge transmission. Other negative attributes were mentioned by 9 people.

122 Of submitted for examination respondents of secondary schools, 8 indicated that teachers in technical subjects and information technology feel respect. Almost 94 % of respondents (114) indicated the lack of authority.

**Table 3 Personal features affecting the perception of teachers of technical subjects - and information technology as an authority by respondents of the fourth stage education**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>Number of responses associated with the group (up to 8)</b>	<b>Percentage response [%]</b>
<i>personal features</i>	5	62
<i>merit knowledge</i>	8	100
<i>skillfull transfer of knowledge</i>	1	12
<i>other features</i>	0	0

Students of secondary schools who responded affirmatively on the status of the teacher's authority and technical subjects and information technology have pointed substantive knowledge (100 %) as the main factor that determined their selection. Personality traits of teacher gained recognition in 5 respondents, while the ability to transfer knowledge was pointed out by only one student.

**Table 4 Personal features that are affecting negatively the perception of teacher is not technical subjects - and information technology as an authority by respondents of the fourth stage education**

<b>Responses</b>	<b>Number of responses associated with the group (up to 114)</b>	<b>Percentage response [%]</b>
<i>negative personal features</i>	90	79
<i>merit lacks</i>	92	80
<i>lack of abilities to transfer knowledge</i>	75	66
<i>other negative features</i>	31	27

Students of IV stage educational, who decided that currently teacher of technical subjects and information technology have no authority, almost equally

was pointed out the crucial negative features, associated with personality (79 %) and substantive deficiencies (80 %). In 66 % of responses-vocational indication on incompetent of knowledge transfer and communication. Significant high indication of negative features of group of „others”, oscillating around 27 %.

The surveyed students from both stages of education pointed out that personal qualities (91.7 %) and theoretical knowledge (84.2 %) are crucial for the teacher of technical and information technology. A smaller proportion of respondents pointed out the skilful knowledge transfer (64.3 %). Other crucial features indicated by the surveyed students occurred in 20.7 % of the responses. Taking into account only the various stages of education, the results are similar. Students of IV educational stage only more attention to the skilful knowledge transfer (92 people) compared to younger colleagues (63 people).

### **Assessment of participant of research and teacher of technical - and information technology**

Over 60 % of respondents indicated that teachers technical skills are mediocre. 26.1 % of respondents threated positively these (good or very good) skills. Negative skills were referred by 33 respondents.

More than  $\frac{3}{4}$  of the surveyed students from secondary schools estimated average teacher skills of technical and information technology. 18 % of participants rated these as good or very good, 6 % have no positive opinion about the teacher skills.

132 of respondents answered that teachers exceeds the technical and information technology skills. 32 % of respondents said that they do not have the skills. 13 % of respondents had no opinion.

### **Discussion**

The teaching profession is very unique. This is due to the activities undertaken by the teacher during teaching and through education process, which involves great responsibilities. The teacher has a huge impact on young people. He shapes their worldview, recognizes their talents. With incurring huge responsibility involves the need for a rich features associated not only with a wide knowledge of the subject of education, but also education and psychology.

The teachers who seek a status of teacher must meet a number of conditions. In addition to previously mentioned professional competence they must have the necessary personal qualities that will win the acclamaton in the students eyes. Acquiring the status of teachers in the eyes of the student becomes increasingly challenging in modern times. Mass media, which have a huge impact on shaping

views of young people, create other patterns of behaviour than those preferred and presented by education.

Even more challenging is formed before the teacher of technical and information technology that at times the information society bears even more responsibility than a decade ago. The labour market and everyday life, where modern technologies require knowledge of new devices and technology, usually based on some kind of operating systems (Ptak, 2013; Pytel et al., 2012). This is what the school should give direction and shape their development, help in choosing a profession. At a time when science and modern technology meet at every step, the teacher of technical subjects and information technology should help the student in „serving society „, in a changing world.

The present study sought to bring the issue of the teachers competence and the teaching profession. In addition, efforts were made to bring the problems connected with the authority of teachers, referring to use the traditional definition of modern times.

The aim of the study was to determine the definition of knowledge and the level of the teacher's authority of technical and information technology among students of III and IV educational stage. In my research I draw attention to the four main issues - knowledge issues of authority, to know whether and to what extent there is authority of the teacher of technical and information technology, identify the opinions of students about the requirements in relation to teachers of these subjects and opinions about their skill and features.

The results on the knowledge of authority allowed to create following conclusions:

- 74 % of respondents identified the concept of authority with a role model, and only 15 % have connected the issue of the authority of a person worthy of respect.
- 11 % of respondents replied no logical sense, which may indicate respondents immaturity.

The results of studies regarding the occurrence of the teacher's authority of technical and information technology illustrate that:

- 202 out of 241 respondents, representing up to 84 % does not recognize the teacher of technical and information technology as the authority. Only 16 % of respondents claim that the teacher is the authority for them. Despite the low indication of the presence authority, one will notice differences include the division that was in these educational stages. Among middle school students teacher of technical - and information technology as authority has in more than a quarter of respondents. This rate drops significantly, taking into account only respondents from fourth stage of education - is just 6.6 %.

- Instructive conclusions can be drawn by teachers and students, analysing the characteristics mentioned by the students that flow into the status of a teacher. The following number of respondents from the third stage of education identified negative features that affect the positive reception of teachers: 31 personal qualities, 25 substantive knowledge, and 17 the skilful knowledge transfer. The negative reception of teachers at the following number of respondents have been caused by 86 - personal qualities, 45 - knowledge lacks, 32 - incompetent knowledge transfer. The following number of respondents from the fourth stage of education pointed out negative features that affect the positive reception of teachers: 5 personal qualities, 8 substantive knowledge, and 1 the skilful knowledge transfer. The negative reception of teachers at the following number of respondents have caused 90 - personal qualities, 92 - knowledge lacks, 75 - incompetent knowledge transfer.

Students of III and IV educational stage asked about the desirable qualities in a teacher of the technical - informational technology responded in a similar way, paying attention mainly to the personal qualities (91.7 %), theoretical knowledge (84.2 %). Students of III stage of education in a smaller extent, drew attention to the characteristics associated with skilful transfer of knowledge (63 people 119).

Respondents asked about skills of teachers in the vast majority (60.2 %) classified them as average. 26.1 % rated them as good or very good. Low or very low - is an assessment of 33 respondents.

- Taking into account the distribution for each stages of educational, positive assessment (average, good, very good) are students of upper junior schools evaluated it better (94 %) than gymnasium (87 %).
- The surveyed students asked to compare their abilities with teachers, 55 % assessed their abilities better. 32 % of respondents felt that teachers have more the technical and information technology abilities. 13 % of respondents have no opinion.
- Regarding the results obtained in the last question, to the division between III and IV stage of education, the gymnasium students have better opinions on their skills – 64 % of high school students believe that the level of skills is higher than the teacher. In secondary schools the percentage of such indications does not exceed 50 %.

## **Conclusions**

To summarize all the results one come to the conclusion that students have a general understanding of the concept of authority, but its description is limited

to one formulation, which is definitely not enough. The level of indications about the teacher's authority of technical and information technology is very low. This may be due to many reasons. Young people are greatly affected by the mass media, peer groups, no have seek authority among teachers, only in television and the Internet. The lower level of authority indicated in the fourth stage of education, may indicate that older students do not have such respect of teachers like in earlier years, which may well be associated with the period of adolescence. Additionally the reason for such result may be rare competence of teachers in these subjects, who according to posted answers are often unjust, biased, impatient. The reliability of this response is difficult to determine because it required a number of hours observing them in schools where the study was conducted at the class technology, computer science. While the desirable characteristics of a teacher mentioned by junior high school students based on personality, it shows a tendency that the older students require extensive technical knowledge, as evidenced are the results of this study. Guideline for teachers of technical and information technology who wish to obtain status of a teacher, especially in secondary schools can be important role of theoretical knowledge in the process. Gaining authority among of students, who evaluate the knowledge of teachers as usually average, and their abilities evaluate higher than the learner, it is a very difficult task. For teachers of any school subject, personal qualities are essential, as is obvious, but for the teacher of technical and information technology, just as important, if not more important, is to have the knowledge that will surprise, interested young people, because the social changes, and the requirements of employers are moving in the direction of a wide technological knowledge. A student who since a young age can be fluent in the computer needs to acquire knowledge of the technical and computer science in up to a concentrated version. In another case, a teacher of technical subjects and information technology will never be able to counted as authority in the eyes of the student.

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# THE IMPACT OF FOCUSING STUDENTS' ATTENTION ON THEMSELVES AS FUTURE PROFESSIONALS ON THEIR PROFESSIONAL CALLING

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**Abstract.** *Researchers express ideas about the relationship between focusing students' attention on themselves as future professionals during their studies and students' professional calling. However, empirical evidence on this relationship is still lacking. The research aimed to answer the question: „What is the impact of focusing students' attention on themselves as future professionals on their professional calling?” In order to answer this question the quasi-experiment with the non-equivalent comparison group without the pre-test design has been carried out. The quasi-experimental programme was implemented in the experimental group of 31 student of the social pedagogy study programme of Klaipėda University in 2009-2014. The control group consisted of 79 students from three other Lithuanian universities. The final measurement was carried out in the control and experimental groups on May-June, 2014. The results argue that focusing students' attention on themselves as future professionals during their studies has an impact on their professional calling.*

**Keywords:** *professional calling, professional self-awareness, focusing attention, higher education.*

## Introduction

**Practical relevance of the research on the development of professional calling.** Although today there is no common agreement on the united concept of calling (Duffy et al., 2012) and there are no comprehensive interpretations of origins and development of calling (Praskova et al., 2014; Duffy et al., 2012; Wrzesniewski, 2012), it is usually interpreted as a relationship between individual and his professional occupation, which is expressed through inner human experiences, attitudes, abilities, and motives (Dobrow & Tosti-Kharas, 2011; Steger et al., 2010).

Recently, the importance of professional calling has become especially emphasized (Praskova et al., 2014; Danilevičius, 2013; Hagmaier & Abele, 2012; Hirschi, 2012), since it is stated that those employed people who have a calling

perform their duties more diligently, see the meaning in their work, feel the inner satisfaction with their work, defend the prestige of their profession, and seek to improve their professional skills. Moreover, it is asserted that such people have a greater desire to use their professional activities to contribute to the welfare of other people and the whole community (Steger et al., 2010). More importantly, to work as a pedagogue without a calling is considered to be unethical in respect of yourself and others (Jovaiša, 1994: p. 47).

Calling is an evolving construct, it is not suddenly and fully disclosed (Wrzesniewski, 2012; Hunter et al., 2010), and, therefore, it is not by accident indicated in the scientific literature that it is important to develop professional calling of people, especially – of the young ones (Hagmaier & Abele, 2012; Hirschi, 2012; Dobrow & Tosti-Kharas, 2011; Duffy et al., 2011; Danilevičius, 2013). The role of a higher school in the development of students' professional calling is also highlighted (Praskova et al., 2014; Danilevičius, 2013).

Studies suggest that students' professional calling is related to satisfaction with one's life and psychological adaptation (Steger et al., 2010); it is related to satisfaction with academic and chosen career (Duffy et al., 2011; Saveljeva et al., 2011; Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007); it is related to professional self-clarity (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007), clearer career vision (Dobrow & Tosti-Kharas, 2011; Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007) and more positive attitudes towards career (Steger et al., 2010). Meanwhile, studies on professional calling of higher school students reveal that only about half or less students have a calling for their chosen profession and it depends on the country and on the study programme (Danilevičius, 2013; Saveljeva et al., 2011; Duffy & Sedlacek, 2010).

The provided arguments motivate the practical significance of the research on the development of students' professional calling.

**The extent of the research on professional calling.** Researchers who are concerned with the concept of the development of professional calling have already revealed a number of regularities, tendencies and aspects of the development of students' professional calling. It has been identified that during the development of professional calling it is appropriate to acquaint students with the concept of calling and factors that influence it (Praskova et al., 2015; Hirschi & Herman, 2013; Duffy & Sedlacek, 2010; Kavaliauskienė, 2001). In addition, it is stated that it is important to provide students with opportunities to assess their own calling for the chosen profession (Dik et al., 2009), to assist them in clarifying and improving their professional interests, values, and abilities (Hirschi & Herrmann, 2012; Duffy & Sedlacek, 2010), and to help them in identifying their career goals as well as in achieving them (Praskova et al., 2014; Duffy & Dik, 2013). It is noted that in the course of the development of professional calling those activities are important during which a person can focus his attention to himself, such as: introspection, self-reflection, self-analysis (Wrzesniewski,



2012), as well as social support from parents, career counsellors, pedagogues or friends (French & Domene, 2010). Roberts and Creary (2012) point out that on the basis of social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) it can be assumed that calling can be developed by observing and imitating parents' or other persons' behaviour, by motivating to acquire and develop positive identities. Saveljeva, Rupšienė (2016), referring to the results of the quasi-experimental research and their analysis, state that providing feedback to students as future professionals during their studies play an important role in developing students' professional calling.

**The research problem.** As it was already mentioned, within the concept of the development of professional calling there are ideas about the impact of focusing students' attention on themselves as future professionals on their professional calling (Hirschi & Herrmann, 2012; Wrzesniewski, 2012; Elangovan et al., 2010; Duffy & Sedlacek, 2010; Dik et al., 2009; Dik & Steger, 2008; Hall & Chandler, 2005).

On the other hand, within the framework of the concept of studying at a higher education institution much attention is paid to focusing students' attention on themselves as future professionals during their studies, especially highlighting the importance of focusing students' attention on themselves on different aspects of students' personality development, self-awareness, students' professional behaviour, personal and professional development (Chang-Kredl & Kingsley, 2014; Furlong, 2013; Haggarty & Postlethwaite, 2012; Altinay & Altinay, 2012; Bubnys, 2012; Rusche & Jason, 2011; Wong-Wylie, 2010; Ivanauskienė & Liobikienė, 2005). With reference to these facts, it is likely that there is a relation between focusing students' attention on themselves as future professionals and students' professional calling.

However, there is a lack of empirical evidence that would determine the impact of focusing students' attention on themselves as future professionals on their professional calling. It is purposeful to accomplish empirical research in order to answer the question: „What is the impact of focusing students' attention on themselves as future professionals on their professional calling?“. Therefore the research aims to answer this question.

## **Methodology**

In order to achieve the purpose of the research, the quasi-experiment with the non-equivalent comparison group design with no pre-test has been carried out (Green, Camilli, & Elmore, 2006; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). Since the assignment to a control group was not random during this quasi-experiment, this group is considered to be inequivalent.

The quasi-experimental programme was implemented in the experimental group of one Lithuanian University students in 2009-2014. The control group

consisted of students from three Lithuanian universities. The final measurement was carried out in the control and experimental groups on May-June, 2014.

**Sample.** Students studying social pedagogy at Lithuanian universities have been selected as the population of the quasi-experiment. In compiling the sample a few rules have been followed: \*the sample of the research has been purposely comprised of only full-time student population; \*only senior students (3rd year and 4th year students) have been chosen for the final measurement; \*in choosing the experimental and control groups, the requirement (Kardelis, 2007) that the minimum number of cases in the control and experimental group should not be less than 30 has been taken into account; \*after selecting a control group in a convenient way, the conditions have been set up so that all students of this groups could participate in the final measurement. Finally, a total of 110 students participated in the experimental and control groups: in the EG – 31 student, in the CG – 79 students.

**The quasi-experimental programme.** In the course of creating the quasi-experimental programme, it has been referred to the ideas about focusing students' attention on themselves as future professionals, that had been previously identified in the theoretical analysis, that describe that in the development of professional calling during the studies of the social pedagogy study programme focusing students' attention on themselves as future professionals can be provided to a student by introspection, self-analysis, self-reflection and self-monitoring.

The programme was implemented by one of the authors of the present article (Saveljeva, 2016) in her taught subjects and guided practical activities and during students' professional practice. Focusing students' attention on themselves as future professionals was provided to students in accordance with the general ethical principles immediately after the tasks were completed; it was directly related to the purposes of the task and student's exhibited behaviour during the task. Students were prior introduced to the course of the provision of feedback, i.e. the purpose and nature of information provision have been identified, etc. The quasi-experiment was performed in compliance with the principle of voluntariness – students were not forced to provide and receive feedback.

**The instrument.** The post-experimental measuring instrument was developed by Regina Saveljeva (Saveljeva, 2016), by leading of co-author of the present article, referring to the essential features of focusing students' attention on themselves as future professionals, that had been identified during the theoretical analysis, and specifics of the work as a social pedagogue in general education school. The instrument variables were grouped into four groups: introspection, self-analysis, self-reflection and self-monitoring.

Using these variables, ordinal scale was designed to determine students' opinion about the educational impact of focusing students' attention on themselves as future professionals on their professional calling. In the questionnaire

respondents were asked to rate this impact in a 7-point scale (1 – weak impact on the development of professional calling, 7 – strong impact on the development of professional calling).

**Methods of data analysis.** First of all, several derivative variables have been designed. The derivative variable of *the scale of evaluation of an impact of focusing students' attention on themselves as future professionals* and derivative variables of subscales - of *the first subscale (the impact of introspection on professional calling) of this scale, the second subscale (the impact of self-analysis on professional calling) of this scale, the third subscale (the impact of self-reflection on professional calling) of this scale* and of the *fourth subscale (the impact of self-monitoring on professional calling) of this scale*.

Since it was intended to compare the differences between EG and CG, statistical assumptions have been examined in order to choose the methodology for calculation of differences. Kolmogorov-Smirnov criterion has been used to test the normality of distributions. For cases, the assumption of normality of derivative and primary variables had been violated ( $p < \alpha = 0,05$ ), Mann-Whitney U test has been used to determinate differences in the derivative variables of two groups. The variables for which the normality assumption is satisfied ( $p \geq \alpha = 0,05$ ), has been calculated Student's t-test.

### Results of the research

The analysis of *the impact of focusing one's attention on oneself as a future professional on professional calling* has revealed statistically significant differences ( $t=-5,197$ ,  $df=108$ ,  $p=0,000$ ): the average of evaluations of EG students (3,70) was higher than that by CG students (average – 2,45). Consequently, EG students had evaluated the impact of activities of focusing one's attention on oneself as a future professional on professional calling more highly than CG students.

Analyzing *the impact of introspection on professional calling* no statistically significant differences (Mann-Whitney  $U=1030,500$ ,  $p=0,356$ ) have been identified. However, a more detailed analysis has revealed that there were statistically significant differences between the evaluations of EG and CG students of the impact of introspective activity “During my studies I have evaluated my calling as a social pedagogue” on professional calling. EG students (mean rank – 66,13) had evaluated the impact of this introspective activity on professional vocation more highly than CG students (mean rank – 46,97) (Table 1).

Analyzing *the impact of self-analysis on professional calling* some statistically significant differences have been determined ( $t=-5,867$ ,  $df=101$ ,  $p=0,000$ ): the average of evaluations of EG students (3,33) was higher than that

of CG students (average – 1,76). Therefore, EG students had evaluated the impact of the activities of self-analysis on professional calling more highly than CG students.

**Table 1 Differences between the evaluations of the impact of introspective activities on professional calling (N=110)**

Variables	Mean Rank		Mann-Whitney	
	CG	EG	U	p
I have taken tests on career suitability	41,73	47,42	543,000	0,356
I have taken tests on self-understanding	49,75	44,94	798,500	0,426
During my studies I have evaluated my professional calling as a social pedagogue	46,97	66,13	701,000	0,002

As shown in Table 2, there were statistically significant differences between the evaluations of EG and CG students of the impact of the three activities of self-analysis on professional calling. The impact of the following self-analysis activities on professional calling had been evaluated by EG students more highly than by CG students: “During my studies I have analyzed the structure of professional calling” (the average of evaluations of EG – 4,65, of CG – 3,53), “During my studies I have analyzed the structure of pedagogical calling” (EG – 4,65, CG – 4,13) and “I have participated in the discussion about the calling for the profession of a social pedagogue” (EG – 4,68, CG – 3.69).

**Table 2 Differences between the evaluations of the impact of self-analysis activities on professional calling (N=110)**

Variables	Mean		Student's t-test		
	CG	EG	t	df	p
During my studies I have analyzed the structure of professional calling	3,53	4,65	-3,200	43	0,003
During my studies I have analyzed the structure of pedagogical calling	4,13	4,65	-2,100	37,097	0,043
During my studies I have analyzed the structure of calling as a social pedagogue	4,31	4,58	-0,902	50	0,371
With my teacher(s) and students in my group we have discussed how the calling for social pedagogical activity is formed	4,29	4,65	-1,213	59	0,230
I have analyzed my calling for the profession as a social pedagogue	4,37	4,91	-1,707	73	0,092
I have discussed with my teacher(s) my motives that had encouraged me to choose the profession of a social pedagogue	4,60	4,88	-0,893	34,469	0,378
I have discussed with my teacher(s) my calling for the profession of a social pedagogue	4,31	5,00	-1,781	29	0,085

I have discussed with my teacher(s) my inclination for the profession of a social pedagogue	4,24	4,65	-1,310	44	0,197
I have discussed with my teacher(s) my character traits important for the profession of a social pedagogue	4,00	4,74	-2,000	46	0,051
I have discussed with my teacher(s) my skills relevant for the profession of a social pedagogue	4,46	4,72	-0,903	51	0,371
I have participated in the discussion about the calling for the profession of a social pedagogue	3,69	4,68	-2,159	30	0,039

Analyzing *the impact of self-reflection on professional calling* statistically significant differences in evaluations have been determined (Mann-Whitney  $U=504,500$ ,  $p=0,000$ ): mean rank of EG students (69,73) was higher than that of CG students (mean rank – 42,71). Therefore, EG students had more highly evaluated the impact of self-reflection activities on professional calling.

As it can be seen in Table 3, there were statistically significant differences between the evaluations of EG and CG students of the impact of some self-reflection activities on professional calling. EG students had more highly than CG students evaluated the impact of the following self-reflection activities on professional calling: “With my teacher I have individually discussed my character traits that had encouraged me to choose the profession of a social pedagogue (e.g., during interview, conversation, etc.)” (mean rank of EG – 27,09, CG – 18,06), “I have told to my teacher and students in my group about the events that had encouraged me to choose the profession of a social pedagogue. I have illustrated my narration with pictures” (EG – 34,00, CG – 24,83), “In my practice journal I have written about the changes in my attitude towards the profession of a social pedagogue” (EG – 43,54, CG – 32,28) and “In my practice journal I have written about the changes in my inclination and suitability for the profession of a social pedagogue” (EG – 41,54, CG – 28,60).

**Table 3 Differences between the evaluations of the impact of activities of self-reflection on professional calling (N=110)**

Variables	Mean Rank		Mann-Whitney	
	CG	EG	U	p
With my teacher(s) I have individually discussed the formation of my calling prior to my studies at the university (e.g., during interview, conversation, etc.)	16,87	19,34	130,500	0,456
With my teacher I have individually discussed my character traits that had encouraged me to choose the profession of a social pedagogue (e.g., during interview, conversation, etc.)	18,06	27,09	118,500	0,017

With my teacher I have individually discussed my professional skills that had encouraged me to choose the profession of social pedagogue (e.g., during interview, conversation, etc.)	19,86	21,28	184,000	0,679
I have told to my teacher and students in my group about the events that had encouraged me to choose the profession of a social pedagogue. I have illustrated my narration with pictures	24,83	34,00	228,000	0,037
In my practice journal I have written about the changes in my attitude towards the profession of a social pedagogue	32,28	43,54	417,500	0,023
In my practice journal I have written about the changes in my inclination and suitability for the profession of a social pedagogue	28,60	41,54	311,500	0,006
In my practice journal I have written about the changes in my character traits that are relevant for the profession of a social pedagogue	36,31	45,20	540,500	0,085
In my practice journal I have written about the changes in my skills that are relevant for the profession of a social pedagogue	35,84	38,98	567,500	0,520

The analysis of the impact of self-monitoring on professional calling has not revealed any statistically significant differences between evaluations (Mann-Whitney  $U = 953,000$ ,  $p = 0,172$ ). However, a more detailed analysis has revealed that there were statistically significant differences between the evaluations of the impact of the two self-monitoring activities on professional calling. EG students (mean rank – 50,06) had more highly than CG students (mean rank – 36,47) evaluated the impact of dynamics, observed during their studies, of their calling for social pedagogical activity on professional calling. CG students (mean rank – 40,01) had more highly than EG students (mean rank – 29,84) evaluated the fact that during their studies they had the opportunity to analyze the development / change of their professional skills (Table 4).

**Table 4 Differences between the evaluations of the impact of self-monitoring activities on professional calling (N=110)**

Variables	Mean Rank		Mann-Whitney	
	CG	EG	U	p
During my studies I have monitored the dynamics of my calling for social pedagogical activity	36,47	50,06	484,500	0,011
During my studies I have monitored the development / change of my inclination for the activity as a social pedagogue	42,69	48,83	693,500	0,280

During my studies I have monitored the development / change of my character traits	46,48	48,21	876,000	0,766
During my studies I have monitored the development / change of my professional skills	51,24	50,43	1048,000	0,895
During my studies I have analyzed the dynamics of my professional calling	39,23	34,31	541,000	0,326
During my studies I have analyzed the development / change of my inclination, suitability for the profession of a social pedagogue	41,39	40,27	721,500	0,825
During my studies I have analyzed the development / change of my character traits	43,35	42,21	746,500	0,831
During my studies I had the opportunity to analyze the development / change of my professional skills	40,01	29,84	429,500	0,033

## Discussion

**Discussion of research findings.** According to the results of the research, students that participated in the experimental programme had more highly evaluated the impact of the activities of focusing one's attention on oneself as a future professional on professional calling. Therefore, there is a reason to believe that such focus on oneself as a future professional contributes to the development of students' professional calling. These results are confirmed by other researchers' (Hirschi & Herrmann, 2012; Wrzesniewski, 2012; Elangovan et al., 2010; Duffy & Sedlacek, 2010; Dik et al., 2009; Dik & Steger, 2008; Hall & Chandler, 2005) ideas on the effect of focusing one's attention on one self when developing professional calling.

The analysis of the research results has revealed that there is a statistically significant difference only between the evaluations of the impact of some activities of focusing one's attention on oneself as a future professional on professional calling, namely, the activities of self-analysis and self-reflection. The results of the present research can be compared to other studies that note the importance of self-analysis and self-reflection for the clarity of the self- concept (Duffy et al., 2011), and Professional self (Duffy et al., 2014; Duffy & Dik 2013; Duffy et al., 2011), since self-analysis and self-reflection encourage to look for one's calling more (Woitowicz & Domene, 2013). Higher evaluations of the impact of those activities on professional calling by EG students are related to some researchers' studies, where it is stated that the following means are important for the development of professionals: the narrative act (open act of self-reflection) (Kelchermans, 2005), biographical interviews (Kelchtermans & Vandenberghe, 1994), professional biographies or career stories (Kelchtermans, 2005); the analysis of personal stories, life histories (Wolf et al., 2000; Sikes & Everington,

2001), as well as personal learning experience prior to studies and during the study period help individuals to better understand their profession and themselves (Kelchtermans & Vandenberghe, 1994; Furlong, 2011; Haggarty & Postlethwaite, 2012; Chang-Kredl & Kingsley, 2014). In the scientific literature (Polonsky, 2011; Barry & O'Callaghan, 2009), reflective journal writing is noted not only as a means developing the skills of reflection, critical thinking, integration of theory with practice, but also as a means promoting professional growth and developing students' self-awareness. The results of the quasi-experiment have revealed that EG students had evaluated the impact of these activities on professional calling more highly than CG students. This indicates the importance of this activity in developing students' professional calling.

According to the results of the research it can be concluded that professional calling is actually an evolving construct, as it is noted by other researchers (e.g., Wrzesniewski, 2012; Hunter et al., 2010; Dik & Duffy, 2009). Moreover, the research confirms the assertion by other researchers (e.g., Praskova et al., 2014; Woitowicz & Domene, 2013; Danilevičius, 2013) that higher education institutions play an important role in the development of students' professional calling.

The obtained results are also relevant for the development of the concept of development of professional calling in another way. As it has been already mentioned, a number of educational aspects of the development of professional calling have been disclosed so far, but there was a lack of empirical evidence proving the fact of the impact of focusing students' attention on themselves as future professionals on their professional calling. The empirical evidence obtained in the course of the empirical research contributes to the solution of this scientific problem.

**Limitations of the research.** The implementation of the quasi-experimental programme had been conditioned by some limitations of the pedagogical experiment. Management limitations of the experimental system should be mentioned. The development of future social pedagogues in a university depends on activities of many teachers that are not always compatible with each other. During the implementation of the programme, different teachers' activities have not been coordinated. It had been done only by one of the authors of the present article when she was teaching students of the mentioned study programme several subjects. The results should be interpreted with caution and due to the fact that respondents have rated the impact of providing feedback on their professional calling by themselves, thus the results are more a reflection of their self-perception and self-report, they are also quite subjective. It is necessary to mention the fact that the empirical research has included only the main case of full-time studies of social pedagogy, thus the results of the research more reliably reflect only this case.



**Recommendations.** It is recommended to higher school teachers who aim to develop students' professional calling to organize the provision of focusing students' attention on themselves as future professionals by modifying some of the elements according to the standards of professional education, to promote students' interest and to develop their professional calling.

## Conclusions

Generalization of research findings resulted in the following conclusions:

The results of research show that those students who focus more on themselves as future professionals evaluated the impact of those activities on the development of professional calling more highly than other students. Referring to the results of the empirical research and their analysis, it can be stated that focusing students' attention on themselves as future professionals during their studies play an important role in developing students' professional calling.

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# ИНВАРИАНТНЫЕ ХАРАКТЕРИСТИКИ ИДЕНТИЧНОСТИ ЛИЧНОСТИ И ПРОЦЕССА ЕЕ ФОРМИРОВАНИЯ: ПЕДАГОГИЧЕСКИЙ КОНТЕКСТ

## *Invariant Features of Personal Identity and the Process of Its Formation: The Pedagogical Context*

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**Abstract.** *Research objective: pedagogical judgment of intrinsic and remedial bases of development and formation of identity of the person, allocation педагогически significant invariant characteristics. Novelty consists in statement of a question, ordering of results of researches of identity with accent of pedagogical senses, use of the interdisciplinary approach. The developed analysis significant from the point of view of pedagogics of characteristics of identity is given: concept definitions through specification of separate displays of essence, allocation of levels (socially-cultural identity, personal identity, self-identity) and kinds (by criterion of substantial filling). Possibility of the pedagogical organized influence on formation of socially-cultural and personal identity and impossibility of work by pedagogical means with self-identity is accented. The characteristic of kinds of identity of the person, as by this time only studied by the Russian pedagogics (cultural, ethnic, professional, gender, religious), and already included in a purpose of modern Russian education (civil identity, the Russian civil identity) is given. The interrelation of various kinds of identity (on an example of the Russian civil and religious identity) is shown. The leading condition of formation of high-grade identity (unity of self-determination, definition by Others and Another's) is illustrated. Distinction in understanding of designs «development of identity of the person» and «formation of identity of the person» is accented, the attention to pedagogical expediency of studying, the organization and technological working out of process of formation of identity of the person is paid. Invariant pedagogical mechanisms of process of formation of identity of the person are allocated and is short characterized: pedagogical interaction; formation of the importance and work with the significant; pedagogical support.*

**Keywords:** *personal identity, invariant characteristics of essence and process, mechanisms of forming personal identity, pedagogics.*

## **Введение** ***Introduction***

Статья подготовлена в рамках реализации государственного задания Министерства образования и науки Российской Федерации, регистрационный номер № 27.7091.2017/БЧ «Теоретические и методические основы подготовки будущих педагогов к воспитательной и профориентационной деятельности в системе общего и дополнительного образования» (2017-2019).

Современная российская система образования в процессе модернизации решает ряд задач, сущностное и процессуальное обоснование которых в определенной мере находится в стадии разработки. Допустимость указанного расхождения иллюстрирует, в частности, идея Томаса Куна о нелинейности смены парадигм и соответствующих им организационных моделей. Одним из проявлений парадигмального сдвига в воспитании является обращение к феномену идентичности.

Феномен идентичности задает новую логику всему человекознанию. В центре внимания оказываются вопросы перехода социального в индивидуальное, реалистичности образов Я и их воплощения, референтности социокультурного окружения, значения выбора и субъектной позиции, подвижность всех характеристик личности.

Российская педагогика обратилась к изучению идентичности сравнительно недавно. В этой связи изначально педагогика, с одной стороны, тяготеет к междисциплинарному анализу идентичности. С другой стороны, активно опирается как на отечественные, так и на зарубежные концепции и теории. В многообразии подходов и точек зрения важным становится, прежде всего, теоретический поиск инвариантных позиций, позволяющих составить целостное представление о явлении и процессе. В контексте системно-деятельного подхода, ведущего в российском образовании в настоящее время, акцент анализа смещается к процессуальным характеристикам, в частности, механизмам формирования идентичности личности.

Цель исследования: педагогическое осмысление сущностных и процессуальных основ развития и формирования идентичности личности, выделение педагогически значимых инвариантных характеристик.

Использованы методы исследования: анализ, обобщение, интерпретация данных философских, психологических, социологических, педагогических исследований, авторской и массовой практики,

нормативных актов; моделирование отдельных позиций педагогической концепции формирования социокультурной идентичности личности.

### **Инвариантные характеристики идентичности личности** *Invariant characteristics of the identity of the person*

Как справедливо отмечают С. Thulin, J. Miller, L. Secher, M. Coulso (Thulin, eds., 2009), в настоящее время важнее акцентировать внимание на процессе развития и формирования идентичности, чем уточнять сущность самого феномена. Вместе с тем, важно отобразить те концепции, которые раскрывают сущность идентичности и будут учитывать общественные влияния на развитие идентичности человека.

Педагогике важно остановиться на совокупности педагогически значимых сущностных характеристик идентичности, которые позволят проектировать процесс ее формирования. Предпринятый нами анализ (Методологические..., 2011; Шакурова, 2007) позволяет в числе таких характеристик назвать следующие:

- идентичность – многомерное понятие, описывающее как субъективное чувство, так и объективно наблюдаемые проявления личности, субъективно воспринимаемые и описываемые как самоидентичность, непрерывность «Я» и его различных составляющих;
- идентичность детерминирована активностью личности (направленностью, осознанностью, рефлексивностью), при этом она в процессе своего развития инициирует и направляет активность личности;
- характер идентичности определяется особенностями данной культуры и социума, возможностями данного индивида;
- содержание идентичности включает образы, концепты (понятия, понимания, замыслы) и суждения, отражающие отношения «Я – другой», «Я – социальный мир», «Я – культура», «Я – Я» в аспекте уточнения характеристик «Я»;
- идентичность есть самореферентность (лат. referre – сообщать) – сообщение на основе ощущения и осознания уникальности своего бытия и неповторимости личностных свойств самому себе о том, кто «Я» и что является «моим», при наличии своей принадлежности социальной реальности в форме конкретных жизненных ситуаций. Рональд Лэйнг отмечал, что идентичность есть история, которую человек рассказывает о себе самому себе.

В силу своей специфики, педагогика изучает не столько саму идентичность, сколько на основе представлений о процессе развития различных видов идентичности на разных возрастных этапах (основной процесс) обосновывает и разрабатывает возможности и механизмы ее формирования (сопровождающий процесс).

В педагогическом понимании понятия «развитие» и «формирование» не являются синонимами. О развитии говорят преимущественно применительно к объектам, которые имеют высокую степень самодостаточности и автономные источники качественных изменений. К объектам, качественные изменения которых происходят под влиянием каких-либо внешних направляющих и корректирующих сил, чаще относят понятие «формирование».

Применительно к идентичности личности используют как термин «развитие», так и «формирование». В первом случае акцентируется внутренняя сущность и внутренние механизмы количественных и качественных изменений, во втором случае – внешне обусловленные характеристики и внешние условия и механизмы (взаимодействие, сравнение, выбор, социальные пробы и т. п.).

Еще одной инвариантной характеристикой, принципиально важной в контексте заявленной темы, является традиционное выделение трех уровней идентичности: социальной (социокультурной), личностной идентичности и уровня самоидентичности.

Научная мысль традиционно противопоставляла социальную и личностную идентичность. Эрих Фромм подчеркивал, что человеку, осознавшему свою изолированность, с одной стороны, и потребность в эмоциональных связях с миром, с другой стороны, свойственно стремление к установлению единства с самим собой и социальным миром вокруг себя. В последнем случае, идентифицируя себя со своей социальной организацией, группой, человек забывает про то, что он личность (Фромм, 2010). По мнению представителей интерактивной психологии (Дж. Мид и др.) различие кроется в содержании. Личностная идентичность свободна от каких-либо ролевых или межличностных детерминант, а социальная есть совокупность ролей, осваиваемых и присваиваемых в процессе социализации.

Уровни идентичности сущностно связаны между собой: социокультурная идентичность выступает необходимым условием для становления личностной идентичности, которая является столь же необходимым основанием для развития самоидентичности. Самоидентичность, в свою очередь, детерминирует становление идентичности на личностном и социокультурном уровнях. Педагогически значимой спецификой социокультурной идентичности и многочисленных

ее подвидов является прямая зависимость от социокультурных условий, в которых происходит развитие и формирование личности. Именно социокультурный уровень идентичности в значительной мере формируется, тогда как самоидентичность развивается.

Педагогически значимо и выделение различных видов идентичности.

Дифференциация осуществляется по различным основаниям. Наиболее востребована в педагогике содержательная дифференциация идентичности. В российской системе образования инициативно исследуется и организуется процесс формирования:

- культурной идентичности как ощущения тождественности с освоенными константами культуры и ее ценностными ориентирами, устанавливаемыми посредством общности языка, значений символов, верований, ритуалов, стиля, обычаев и поведенческих образцов, позволяющих охарактеризовать его (индивида) как представителя культуры конкретного сообщества (Русанова, 2007) (к которому принадлежит или стремится принадлежать индивид) (Е. И. Дворникова, Н. А. Евгеньева, А. В. Самойлова и др.);
- этнической идентичности как осознания своей принадлежности к определенному этносу, переживанию индивидом своего тождества с одной этнической общностью и обособления от других этносов (Е. И. Казакова, С. С. Лазарян, О. И. Михалева и др.);
- профессиональной идентичности как осознания себя членом профессиональной группы, выраженного в эмоциональном отношении к ней и определяющего отношение к другим сообществам (Т. Ю. Скибо, Л. М. Федотова и др.);
- гендерной идентичности как осознания своей связи с культурными определениями мужественности и женственности. Это понятие охватывает субъективный опыт и представляет собой психологическую интериоризацию (от фр. *Intériorisation* – переход извне внутрь) мужских и женских черт в процессе взаимодействия Я и Другие (А. В. Дресвянина, И. В. Талина, Л. П. Шустова и др.).

Федеральные государственные образовательные стандарты всех уровней нацелены на формирование основ российской гражданской идентичности, становление ценностно-смысловых установок личности, духовно-нравственное развитие школьников. Независимо от уровня образования образовательные стандарты предусматривают духовно-нравственное воспитание обучающихся, основанное на принятии ими моральных норм, нравственных установок, национальных ценностей.



Согласно Федеральному государственному образовательному стандарту начального общего образования духовно-нравственное воспитание предполагает, в том числе, знакомство с основными нормами светской и религиозной морали, «понимание их значения в выстраивании конструктивных отношений в семье и обществе; понимание значения нравственности, веры и религии в жизни человека и общества; формирование первоначальных представлений о светской этике, о традиционных религиях, их роли в культуре, истории и современности России» (ФГОС НОО, 2009). Таким образом, нормативно в России актуализировано внимание к процессу формирования гражданской и религиозной идентичности личности.

Федеральный государственный образовательный стандарт основного общего образования (ФГОС ООО, 2010) направлен, в том числе, на формирование российской гражданской идентичности обучающихся как личностного результата (п. 4). Исходя из характеристики гражданской идентичности, предложенной в ФГОС ООО, в понимании гражданственности и патриотизма необходимо исходить из их социально-политического звучания, тогда как есть и психолого-педагогическое: прежде чем стать гражданином и патриотом своей малой или большой Родины, необходимо научиться быть ответственным за обязанности, наложенные теми общностями, к которым принадлежишь (семья, класс, школы и т.п.) и научиться гордиться ими.

Кроме того, очевидно, что гражданская идентичность того или иного человека будет считаться полноценной, если:

- сам человек считает себя гражданином. Он использует эту характеристику не для самопрезентации, а как ориентир в повседневной жизни. Отметим при этом, что конкретный смысл данной характеристики в каждом конкретном случае будет различным и, как правило, далеко выходящим за рамки простого определения «житель государства»;
- сообщество, начиная с групп членства и заканчивая таким обобщенным субъектом как народ, определяют данного человека как гражданина. Для маленького ребенка принципиально важно, чтобы его семья считала, а скорее – называла его гражданином. Подростки и старшеклассники руководствуются мнением референтных групп и значимых Других. Признаком «взрослой» гражданской идентичности можно считать ориентацию на гражданское общество как обобщенного субъекта, выражающуюся в значимости принадлежности «Мы – граждане»;

- другие лица, обобщенные «Они» (Чужие, оппоненты) определяют человека как гражданина.

Принципиальное значение имеет утверждение специалистов о том, что постоянно все составляющие не могут быть актуальными. Образ «россиянин», «гражданин» может рассматриваться как:

- а) образ жителя конкретной территории (территориальная идентичность);
- б) образ гражданина России, наследника традиций, памяти, истории определенного государства (гражданская идентичность);
- в) образ представителя определенной этнической группы, наследника традиций определенного народа или общности, состоящей из представителей различных народов и народностей, но объединенных единой государственностью (этническая, государственно-национальная идентичность).

Российская идентичность многоэлементна. Как следствие, она может быть целостной (отдельные образы дополняют друг друга), эклектичной или противоречивой (отдельные образы не соотносятся либо противопоставляются друг другу). Отметим, что перед современной системой образования ставится задача формирования гражданской идентичности, следовательно, в центре внимания специалистов должны находиться две последние трактовки образа «россиянин».

Религиозная идентичность буквально не артикулируется в нормативных документах, но определяется исследователями как возможный результат, поскольку впервые после почти 80-летнего перерыва в содержание российского школьного образования могут быть включены знания о религии, религиозной морали и культуре. На уровне начального образования (1-4 классы) стандартом предусмотрено изучение по выбору одного из шести предметов, составляющих образовательную область «Основы религиозных культур и светской этики»: «Основы православной культуры», «Основы исламской культуры», «Основы иудейской культуры», «Основы буддистской культуры», «Основы светской этики» или «Основы мировых религиозных культур». На уровне основного образования (5-9 классы) школьники могут изучать предметы, входящие в образовательную область «Основы духовно-нравственных культур народов России», содержание которой в настоящее время находится в стадии становления. На уровне среднего общего образования (10-11 классы) духовно-нравственное развитие школьников должно быть организовано и вестись во внеурочной деятельности. Формирование гражданской идентичности в современном российском школьном образовании предполагает усвоение учащимися знаний о традиционных религиях России как минимум, получение представлений об одной религии и ее культуре, как максимум.

По представлению ряда исследователей (Кардиа, 2011; Крылов, 2014; Развитие национальной..., 2001), религиозная идентичность есть составная часть общегражданской идентичности. Религиозная идентичность может быть определена как форма религиозного и социально-ориентированного самосознания человека, проявляющегося одновременно как на индивидуальном, так и на социальном уровнях. Экспериментальные исследования религиозной идентичности у детей и подростков в России выявили возможность ее проявления в когнитивном и аффективном аспектах. Когнитивное проявление религиозной идентичности характеризуется: наличием рудиментарной осведомленности о том, что такое религия; осознанием собственной принадлежности к определенной религии; наличием образа территориально-предметного мира религии; знанием о религиозных праздниках, обычаях, символах.

Аффективное проявление религиозной идентичности характеризуется: субъективной значимостью для человека религии; эмоциональной привязанностью к культуре религии и ее представителям; наличием особых чувств к людям, составляющим религиозную общность; наличием «социальных эмоций», составляющих чувство принадлежности к религиозному сообществу.

Данные исследований социологов (Ересько, 2006; Рыжова, 2016) подтверждают значительное преобладание аффективного над когнитивным проявлением религиозной идентичности (как и других видов идентичности). Приведение в равновесие когнитивного и аффективного проявления идентичности может стать одной из задач духовно-нравственного воспитания учащихся общеобразовательных школ.

### **Инвариантные механизмы формирования идентичности личности** *The invariant mechanisms of formation of identity of the person*

Особый интерес, как отмечалось выше, проявляет педагогика к процессу формирования идентичности личности, в частности, к механизмам формирования, прежде всего, педагогическому взаимодействию, формированию референций, педагогическому сопровождению.

Под педагогическим взаимодействием понимают, как правило, личностный контакт воспитателя и воспитанника(ов), случайный или преднамеренный, частный или публичный, длительный или кратковременный, вербальный или невербальный, имеющий следствием взаимные изменения поведения, деятельности, отношений, установок. Будучи частным случаем социального взаимодействия, педагогическое взаимодействие может носить эпизодический характер (тем самым, не быть процессом); может быть односторонним (воздействие, манипуляция и т. п.);

будучи длящимся явлением, стать циклическим повторением застывшей формы (например, ритуалы) и т. п.

Мера проявления и направленность активности людей как в социальном, так и в педагогическом взаимодействии различна. Она может быть преобразующей или сохраняющей; созидающей, развивающей или разрушающей; это может быть активность принятия или непринятия другого субъекта, организации ответного воздействия, противостояния нежелательному воздействию или участия в совместном действии.

Мера педагогического присутствия в жизни растущего человека должна определяться, с одной стороны, его возрастными и индивидуальными особенностями, а с другой – существующими социокультурными условиями, задающими границы допустимого периода взросления и устоявшийся опыт педагогического сопровождения данного процесса.

Формирование референций, работа с референциями тесно связана с сопоставлением, сравнением и выбором. Значимые Другие – личности (реальные и виртуальные), «отраженная субъектность которых вызывает изменение мотивационно-смысловой и эмоциональной сфер других людей» (Крушельницкая, 2008). Уровень воздействия значимых Других зависит от степени их участия в жизни человека, близости отношений, социальной поддержки, которую они оказывают, а также от власти и авторитета, которыми они пользуются у окружающих.

Продуктивность обучения, а тем паче воспитания, определяется мерой значимости педагога для ребенка. Педагог может стать таковым для учащегося. Но стать значимым для каждого ребенка – практически невыполнимая задача. Утверждать «должен» – означает ставить перед учителем или воспитателем заведомо невыполнимые задачи. Но педагог может и должен научиться использовать значимых для ребенка Других для того, чтобы решать актуальные педагогические задачи.

Понятие «педагогическое сопровождение» входит в российский педагогический лексикон в последней четверти XX века, с одной стороны, в результате активного становления психологической службы системы образования (психолого-педагогическое сопровождение, медико-психолого-педагогическое сопровождение); с другой стороны, в рамках оформлявшихся в тот период различных теорий гуманистической педагогики, в частности, концепции педагогической поддержки.

Разные авторы (Е. А. Александрова, М. Р. Герасимова, Е. А. Родионова и др.) под педагогическим сопровождением понимают в целом одинаковую педагогическую реальность, но акценты делают разные. В центре внимания, как правило, находятся:

- создание условий (педагогических, психологических, социальных) для успешного обучения и развития каждого ребенка, его

адаптации в образовательной среде) или ситуаций для того, чтобы обучающийся смог сознательно и самостоятельно разработать индивидуальную образовательную траекторию и реализовать ее посредством адекватного ответственного выбора стратегии, не противоречащей его индивидуальной оценочной системе и социокультурным нормам;

- педагогическое управление (разработка содержания, средств, методов образовательного процесса, направленного на выявление и использование субъектного опыта ученика, раскрытие способов его мышления, выстраивание индивидуальной траектории развития через реализацию образовательной программы с учетом личностных потребностей ученика);
- помощь в поиске путей разрешения актуальных противоречий, встречающихся при организации образовательного процесса;
- систему педагогических действий субъектов воспитания, обучения, развития (педагог, психолог, родитель, руководитель), дополняющую действия другого субъекта (обучаемого, воспитанника, ребенка, коллеги), связанную с нейтрализацией прогнозируемых трудностей.

Педагогическое сопровождение «связано с процессами личностного роста, развития, актуализации личностного потенциала» (Цыбина, 2005).

Под влиянием тематизации в российской педагогике и российском образовании феномена идентичности, в теории и образовательной практике возрастает значение идей значимого взаимодействия педагогов и воспитанников, их со-бытия; формирования воспитательного пространства; наполнения общения и деятельности реалистичными и убедительными образами и образцами человека, личности; использования в новых социокультурных условиях метода примера и социокультурных практик и проб.

## **Заключение** **Conclusion**

1. Традиция педагогического изучения идентичности личности и процесса ее формирования складывается в настоящее время на базе конкретно научных (преимущественно философских, психологических, социологических и культурологических) и междисциплинарных подходов. Особенность изучения идентичности в рамках предмета педагогики связана с определением меры зависимости от направленных (формирующих) социокультурных влияний, их

- конкретизации и технологической проработки; определении роли субъект-субъектного взаимодействия, уточнения необходимого педагогического инструментария.
2. Педагогический процесс формирования выступает сопровождающим по отношению к процессу становления и развития идентичности личности как базовому. В этой связи в числе актуальных педагогических технологий в данном случае особое внимание заслуживает технология педагогического сопровождения. В случае нарушений развития идентичности, на этапе кризиса идентичности действенны технологии педагогической поддержки и помощи.
  3. Результативными выступают педагогически организованные взаимодействия, учитывающие и использующие зону референций личности, обеспечивающие осмысленный выбор и активные социокультурные пробы.
  4. Вместе с тем, остаются исследовательские и технологические задачи, связанные с систематизацией и педагогизацией научных представлений об идентичности, процессе ее развития и формирования. В российской педагогике наметился консенсус в понимании базовых характеристик сущности идентичности личности, ее уровней и видов, ведущих механизмов формирования (педагогическое взаимодействие; формирование референций и работа с референциями; педагогическое сопровождение).

### **Summary**

The tradition of teaching the study of identity and the process of its formation consists at the present time on the basis of specifically scientific (mainly philosophical, psychological, sociological and cultural studies) and interdisciplinary approaches. A feature of the study of identity in the subject pedagogy associated with the definition of a measure of dependence on targeted (forming) socio-cultural influences, their implementation and technological development; the role definition of subject-subject interaction, Refine the necessary pedagogical tools.

Pedagogical process of formation acts as a guide to the process of formation and development of identity as the base. In this regard, one of the current pedagogical techniques, in this case, special attention should be paid to technology pedagogical support. In the case of breaches of identity development, the identity crisis of effective technologies of pedagogical support and assistance.

Effective are pedagogically organized cooperation, taking into account area and use the references of the person providing informed choices and active socio-cultural samples.

However, there remain research and technology challenges associated with filing, and pedagogisation of the scientific notions about identity, the process of its development and formation. In the Russian pedagogics there has been a consensus in the understanding of the basic characteristics of entity identity, its levels and types, the leading mechanisms of formation of (pedagogical interaction; the formation of references and work references; educational support).

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## РАЗВИТИЕ МАТЕМАТИЧЕСКОЙ РЕЧИ БУДУЩИХ УЧИТЕЛЕЙ ПРИ ИЗУЧЕНИИ КУРСА МЕТОДИКИ МАТЕМАТИКИ

### *The Development of Mathematical Speech of Future Teachers in the Study Course Methodology of Mathematics*

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***Abstract.** The article is devoted to setting forth of the urgent problem of the cultural development of mathematical speech of future teachers. The article shows the study of mathematical concepts by students taking into account specialized language of the mathematics as one of the aspects of this problem. The proposed method of development of mathematical speech is based on the constructed hierarchy of mathematical concepts consideration the specifics of mathematical objects' nature and characteristics of the used mathematical language. The conducted research allowed to establish the influence of the created active studying for developing students' methodological speech, cognitive motives, interest in future professional activity.*

***Keywords:** mathematical speech, peculiarities of mathematical language, hierarchy of mathematical concepts, specificity of mathematical objects, study of mathematical concepts.*

### **Введение**

#### *Introduction*

В данной статье рассматривается один из аспектов проблемы развития культуры математической речи будущих учителей начальных классов. Актуальность данной проблемы объясняется задачей обучения студента - будущего учителя, способного методически умело использовать специфические особенности математического языка с целью развития математического мышления и математической речи младших школьников для достижения понимания математики обучающимися.

Решение стоящей задачи связано с такой организацией учебного процесса на занятиях по методике преподавания математики, при которой



при изучении содержания разумно отмечается и подчеркивается специфика языка предмета, обращается внимание на все элементы языка: символы, термины, обозначающие понятия, высказывания и суждения, обоснования. Реализация такого подхода приводит к расширению знаний студентов о структуре и особенностях математического языка, накоплению у них опыта решения профессиональных задач организации понимающего усвоения математики младшими школьниками.

В связи со сказанным, цель настоящей статьи заключается в осмыслении опыта развития математической речи студентов – будущих учителей начальных классов через включение в содержание методической подготовки вопросов, раскрывающих специфику математического языка и обеспечивающих организацию понимающего усвоения математики школьниками.

### **Теоретическая основа темы** *The theoretical background*

Теоретической основой исследования являются следующие положения

- математика, являясь естественной наукой, изучает природу, используя с этой целью специфическое средство – математический язык, который представляет собой не только форму для сохранения содержания, для записи мысли, но и выступает в роли источника нового знания, средства преобразования полученного знания, инструмента познания. Соответственно, математический язык несет на себе влияние принципа дополнительности, имеет связанные со спецификой предмета математики особенности, влияющие на процесс усвоения обучающимися математических понятий и в целом математических знаний (Дорофеев, 1985; Икрамов 1981; Пентус 1999; Сергеева 2008);
- математический язык представляет собой систему знаков (алфавита языка) и соответствующих им слов; систему правил синтаксиса, служащих для образования слов и предложений языка; систему терминов, служащих для обозначения понятий, выполняющие функции хранения, переработки и передачи информации (Гильберт & Бернайс, 1982);
- математические понятия, изучаемые в начальной школе, с точки зрения языка, используемого для образования и фиксации в речи математических объектов и понятий, относятся к понятиям, „соприкасающимся с практикой”, являются абстракцией реальных

объектов, их отношений и свойств. Объекты такой математики представимы в виде простейших материальных конструкций, включающие знаки и закосочетания (Гильберт & Бернайс, 1982; Сергеева, 2008).

Усвоение математических понятий на любом этапе обучения должно опираться на анализ специфики используемого языка при раскрытии смысла терминов, как имен математических понятий, и знаков, как имен математических объектов, принадлежащих объемам соответствующих понятий (Сергеева, 2008). Важным в раскрытии влияния особенностей языка на осмысление понятий содержательной математики является возраст младших школьников. В этом возрасте формируются элементы языковой культуры, закладывается фундамент дальнейшего обучения математике. За каждым знаком, термином математики начальной школы стоит отрезок реальной действительности, моделью которого служит математический объект. Эти модели в дальнейшем, при изучении формальной математики, будут служить базой для интерпретации формальных знаковых конструкций. Непонимание школьниками источника математических объектов как моделей реальных процессов и явлений, некоторая видимая свобода создания математических объектов путем конструирования их имен, приводит к формализму в знаниях учащихся, зазубриванию учениками определений понятий. Кроме того, большинство терминов понятий первого уровня используются в повседневной жизни. Такие понятия как «количество», «множество», «непрерывность», «число», «область», «равенство» не только математические, но и онтологические, они необходимы для нормальной ориентации человека во внешнем мире, для систематизации данных опыта. Эта особенность первичных математических понятий создает у школьника иллюзию «понятности» термина, взятого вне его научного определения, но, зачастую, смысл, вкладываемый в него окружающими детей взрослыми, отличен от математического значения.

При организации деятельности по ознакомлению студентов – будущих учителей начальной школы с особенностями математического языка, способствующего развитию их математической речи, важно учитывать следующие особенности математического языка.

#### *1. Особенности образования понятий содержательной математики.*

В школьном обучении считается, что в основе образования математических понятий первого уровня лежат реальные (материальные) объекты. Однако, как показывают исследования в области методологии математики (Мадер, 1994), не существует материальных предметов, являющихся денотатами имен идеальных математических объектов и понятий. Идеальный предмет определяется через смысл своего имени и

существует только как носитель этого имени, не обладая предметной определенностью. В основе построения математического объекта лежит опыт, деятельность по созданию соответствующей модели реальных свойств и отношений материальных предметов.

2. *Особенности использования терминов как имен математических понятий.* Как отмечает Дорофеев Г. В. (1985), в реальном учебном процессе происходит смешение в языке терминов, относящихся к объектам содержательной математики, и к именам этих объектов в математическом языке

3. *Особенности имен математических объектов, принадлежащих объемам понятий содержательной математики.*

В содержательной математике знак (система знаков) используется как имя математического объекта. Одна из особенностей имен математических объектов заключена в возможности определения свойств объекта, например, натурального числа, путем анализа его имени. Кроме того, один и тот же математический объект, например, натуральное число, может иметь разные имена. Несмотря на точность математического языка, отсутствие омонимии, один и тот же математический знак может иметь различные нюансы в обозначении различных математических объектов (Сергеева, 2008).

4. Несмотря на то, что объекты содержательной математики представляют собой математические модели реальных процессов, явлений окружающего мира, чувственному восприятию доступна не сама модель, а процесс ее построения.

Как справедливо указывал Б. Л. Ван дер Варден (Van Der Waerden, 1954), в мышлении математические понятия не обязательно ассоциированы с образами слов. В мышлении геометра понятие может быть репрезентировано двигательным образом построения кривой; наглядным образом кривой; словом.

5. *Термины языка содержательной математики обозначают математические объекты, которые представляют собой модели свойств, процессов реального мира.* Поэтому для иллюстрации термина необходимо не привести объект реального или знакового мира, названный данным термином, а назвать объект (или несколько объектов), который обладает данным свойством. Специфика иллюстрирования терминов содержательной математики заключается в необходимости «увидеть» и абстрагировать те свойства реальных объектов, моделями которых служат названные термином математические объекты. В отличие от терминов естественных и гуманитарных наук, иллюстрация терминов языка формальной математики связана с конструированием имен объектов, принадлежащих объему соответствующего понятия (Сергеева, 2015).

6. Для вычленения смыслового значения имени объекта содержательной математики необходим смысловой анализ записи, что требует оперирования не знаками, а тем содержанием, которое они обозначают (Шеншев, 1977). Постигание смыслового значения знаков как имен объектов содержательной математики возможно в процессе перевода с математического языка на естественный язык, т.е. в процессе вербализации математических записей. При этом раскрывается не только значимость знака, но и его различное смысловое значение, зависящее от контекста.

Цель, стоящая на данном этапе исследования – разработать и экспериментально апробировать средства организации учебного взаимодействия студентов на занятиях по методике обучения математике, при работе с которыми студенты самостоятельно открывали бы для себя специфические особенности математического языка; определить влияние проводимой работы на понимание математических сообщений студентами, на развитие их математической речи.

### **Методы и организация исследования** *Methodology and organization of the research*

Для выделения и анализа студентами – будущими учителями начальной школы специфики математического языка в целях развития их математической речи необходима такая организация учебного взаимодействия, при которой обучающиеся при изучении методических тем обращали внимание на специфику языка, создавали самостоятельно ситуации общения и взаимодействия вокруг слов и предложений математического языка – математических знаков, научных терминов, математических выражений, формул, равенств, неравенств. При этом обучающимся требуется формулировать сообщения не только на естественном языке, но и на математическом формальном языке, используя не только алгебраический язык знаков, но и интерпретируя факты с использованием геометрических, графических объектов.

В качестве *средства, организующего диалог* студентов для раскрытия специфических особенностей математического языка, на занятиях по дисциплинам «Теоретические основы и технологии начального математического образования», «Актуальные вопросы обучения младших школьников решению арифметических задач», «Моделирование при решении арифметических задач в начальной школе» служила система проблемных вопросов, организованная вокруг

- ✓ реальной ситуации, моделью которой служит рассматриваемый математический объект, имеющий в математическом языке данное имя;
- ✓ элементов математического языка, в частности, слов, предложений языка, математических текстов.

**Базой исследования** являлись студенты 3 и 4 курсов факультета образовательных и социальных технологий Псковского государственного университета, изучающие курс «Теоретические основы и технологии начального математического образования» (126 человек), студенты 3, 4 курсов, изучающие дисциплины «Актуальные вопросы обучения младших школьников решению арифметических задач» (24 человека), «Моделирование при решении арифметических задач в начальной школе» (37 человек).

Исследование проводилось с использованием таких **методов** как

- ✓ *эксперимент*, в ходе которого на практических занятиях по дисциплинам методического цикла студентам предлагалась система проблемных вопросов, направленная на раскрытие специфических особенностей языка содержательной математики, на развитие математической речи студентов;
- ✓ *наблюдение* за деятельностью студентов при решении ими проблемных вопросов, экспертная оценка их деятельности;
- ✓ *тестирование* для определения показателей уровня понимания студентами сообщений, сформулированных на математическом языке;
- ✓ *анкетирование* с целью определения влияния проводимой методики на изменение мотивации дальнейшего профессионального роста будущих учителей в области обучения математике младших школьников.

Проиллюстрируем реализацию выделенных выше теоретических положений примерами организации опытного исследования развития математической речи студентов на занятиях по курсам «Теоретические основы и технологии начального математического образования», «Актуальные вопросы обучения младших школьников решению арифметических задач», «Моделирование при решении арифметических задач в начальной школе».

– Для раскрытия особенности образования понятий содержательной математики при изучении в курсе «Теоретические основы и технологии начального математического образования» темы «Методика изучения арифметических действий» студенты, раскрывая особенности образования понятий первого уровня, моделировали различные

виды деятельности, связанные с объединением множеств при формировании понятия сложения (вычитания, умножения, деления) натуральных чисел, приводящие к выводу о том, что компоненты сложения могут быть результатом измерения однородных величин, результатом счета численности однородных множеств. Обсуждается вопрос о выполнимости действия сложения на конкретных представителях классов равномоощных множеств, об условиях его применения, моделируются ситуации, при которых  $1+1=1$ , в диалоге раскрываются различные образы числа: 1) число как фигура, как гармоническая форма; 2) число как отношение величин; 3) число как средство ориентирования в незнакомой местности, как обозначение точки на линии; 4) число как символ порядка и красоты Вселенной и др.

– Для организации студентами чувственного восприятия процесса построения математической модели при изучении темы «Методика изучения величин в начальной школе» студенты для осмысления значения термина «длина» создавали двигательный образ – «прошагивание» отрезка меркой, «движения» мерки вдоль отрезка с «постоянной скоростью», пересчитывание количества мерок.

– В связи с отсутствием денотата имен понятий содержательной математики важен анализ терминов, используемых для обозначения соответствующих понятий. Так, например, при работе с арифметическими задачами в курсе «Актуальные вопросы обучения младших школьников решению арифметических задач» организовывалась деятельность студентов по моделированию проблемных ситуаций, приводящих к осмыслению термина «равенство». Для обозначения отношения равенства в языке имеется следующий набор слов: равный, равенство, поровну, такой же, этот же, столько же, один и тот же, тот же самый, одинаковый, одно и то же, одновременный и т.п. При решении арифметических задач в начальной школе сравниваются разные объекты по одному свойству, отвлекаясь от их отличительных свойств: разные объекты могут иметь одинаковую скорость, одинаковую массу, одинаковую площадь.

– Для вычленения смыслового значения имени объекта содержательной математики необходим смысловой анализ записи, сделанной на математическом языке. При изучении в курсе «Теоретические основы и технологии начального математического образования» темы «Методика изучения алгебраического материала в начальной школе» для раскрытия особенности имен математических объектов мы предлагали студентам сравнить смысл знака «=» в различных математических записях (Сергеева, 2010, 50). Равенства вида „ $2+3=5$ », « $10:5=2$ », « $1/2=2/4$ » показывают разные способы именованья одного и того

же идеального объекта - рационального числа, части равенства взаимозаменяемы. Причем в первых двух случаях запись имеет „действенный”, „активный” смысл для ученика как математическую модель реальной ситуации действия с реальными объектами. Отвечая на вопрос «Во всех ли равенствах можно заменить сумму чисел 2 и 3 числом 5?», студенты делали вывод, что имена математических объектов должны принадлежать одному иерархическому уровню языка. Например, в предложении „ $2+3$  – нечетное число” мы можем использовать другое имя числа 5. В предложении „ $2+3$  – выражение, содержащее действие первой степени” мы не можем заменить сумму другим именем числа 5. Несмотря на то, что равенства « $x=a+v$ » и « $a+v=x$ » совершенно равноправны, студенты выделяли оттенки смысла: первое равенство обозначает либо запись ответа, либо подстановки (подставим  $x = a+v$ ), во втором случае знак равенства обозначает операцию обозначения (обозначим  $a+v = x$ ), т.е. «определение на час» (Шиханович, 1965). Знак « $\Rightarrow$ » используется и при задании функции. В этих записях знак равенства не обозначает уже ни знак отношения равенства, ни знак взаимозаменяемости имен.

– Для раскрытия *особенности использования терминов как имен математических понятий* при изучении в курсе «Теоретические основы и технологии начального математического образования» темы «Методика изучения темы «Доли и дроби» для раскрытия *особенности имен математических объектов* студенты самостоятельно разрабатывали ситуации общения, приводящих их к раскрытию смысла терминов «*дробь*», «*дробное число*», «*обыкновенная дробь*», верному использованию терминов в случаях

- ✓ *математической записи*, выражения (объект формальной математики), при этом в речи используется термин „найди значение дроби”;
- ✓ понятия *числа* (объект содержательной математики), при этом используется термин „найди сумму дробей”, «сравни дроби»;
- ✓ имени *дробного числа* (объект математического языка) (Сергеева, 2010, 46-47).

Аналогичная работа проводится и при сопоставлении понятий «*цифра*» и «*число*», «*выражение*» и «*равенство*», использовании терминов в организации студентами деятельности учеников на уроке:

- Запишите числовое выражение, содержащее лишь действия сложения и умножения. Может ли данное выражение содержать знак дроби?
- Запишите выражение, содержащее знак дроби, которое является одночленом. Запишите выражение, содержащее знак дроби,

которое не является одночленом. Всякое ли выражение является одночленом? Всякий ли одночлен является выражением? Приведите примеры тождественно равных выражений, одно из которых является одночленом, а другое – нет.

– Важным аспектом развития культуры математической речи студентов - будущих учителей начальной школы является *вербализация математических записей*. Перевод сообщения с естественного языка на один из математических языков развивает у студентов способность использовать различные знаковые системы в педагогической деятельности, видеть единство знаковых систем естественных и искусственных языков, видеть преимущества различных языков для достижения цели познания.

Психологические особенности выражения мысли на математическом языке связаны с иной, чем в естественном языке, *понятийной системой для выражения одного и того же объективного содержания*. Например, при изучении в курсе «Теоретические основы и технологии начального математического образования» темы «Методика изучения алгебраического материала в начальной школе» студентам предлагается проанализировать равенство  $a = 2n + 1$  и «перевести» его на естественный язык. Анализ приводит к «дословному переводу», который предполагает анализ структуры равенства с позиций синтаксических правил и определение значений: «а есть сумма единицы и произведения «двух» и натурального числа n». Содержательный анализ приводит нас к имени математического объекта «а есть нечетное число».

Еще пример. „Опишите реальную ситуацию, математической моделью которой будет выражение  $2a + 3b$ . Используйте величины

- ✓ скорость, время, расстояние;
- ✓ производительность, время работы, объем выполненной работы;
- ✓ цена, количество, стоимость;
- ✓ объем сосуда, количество сосудов, общий объем”.

– *Перевод содержания, сформулированного на естественном языке, на математический язык* осуществлялся студентами при изучении курса «Актуальные вопросы обучения младших школьников решению арифметических задач» при составлении и решении ими практико-ориентированных задач. Рассмотрим пример (Сергеева, 2014, 399).

*В отчетном году В. И. Озелинг продолжал расчистку подземных ходов между Покровской и Свинойской башнями. Ему удалось проникнуть со стороны двора Покровской от Проема церкви в неизвестную до сих пор подземную галерею и расчистить ее в обе стороны: влево, к Баториевому проему, на расстоянии 25 аршин и вправо, к Покровской башне, на 41 аршин. Высота галереи оказалась 2 аршина 8 вершков, ширина 1 аршин 14 вершков, толщина плитяного свода 13 вершков. Обе ветки галереи*



*упираются своими концами в сплошную плиту. Никаких боковых рукавов или т.н. «слухов» не обнаружено.*

*Найдите длину подземной галереи. Сравни высоту галереи с высотой современного человека.*

На практических занятиях, с целью оценить глубину понимания студентами специфических особенностей математического языка, уровня понимания математического сообщения, организовывался обмен мнениями, диалог, разработка методических материалов для младших школьников, занятия проводились в форме дискуссии, методического ринга, круглого стола, мозгового штурма.

Преподаватель таким образом организовывал диалог студентов вокруг проблемных вопросов, что каждый из них имел возможность задать вопросы как друг другу, так и преподавателю, высказать свою точку зрения по рассматриваемой проблеме, тем самым открывая для себя новые, неизвестные ранее особенности математического языка, применяя новые знания для организации работы с младшими школьниками.

### **Результаты исследования** ***Results of the research***

Использованные методы экспериментального исследования дают основание утверждать, что уровень понимания студентами математических сообщений повысился в условиях организации учебного взаимодействия студентов, при котором обучающиеся обращали внимание на специфику языка при изучении методических тем.

Для определения уровня понимания математических сообщений студентами использовались уровни, выделенные Сергеевой Л. А. (2008). На начальном этапе изучения курса «Теоретические основы и технологии начального математического образования» студенты находились на начальном уровне понимания математического сообщения, *уровне «узнавания»*. Анализ результатов тестирования, проведенного на констатирующем этапе работы, показал, что для понимания студентами сообщения на данном уровне характерно:

- узнавание студентами математического знака, связанное с поиском в памяти соответствующего вербального эквивалента знака;
- вербализация сообщения по схеме «знак - знак»;
- выделение существенных свойств понятия, обозначенного знаком;
- отсутствие наглядного образа математического объекта.

Результаты тестирования студентов после проведенного экспериментального исследования показали, что в ходе проведенного эксперимента уровень понимания студентами математического сообщения повысился, что проявилось в

- осуществлении студентами перевода сообщения с математического языка на родной язык по схеме «знак - содержание - знак», раскрывающий смысл сообщения;
- иллюстрации студентами объектов содержательной математики реальными объектами, явлениями, процессами, их свойствами;
- интерпретации объектов формальной математики объектами реального и идеального мира;
- ответах студентов на вопросы, для которых было необходимо выделить смысловое значение знаков и знаковых систем.

Эти показатели характеризуют уровень понимания математических сообщений – уровень *реконструкции смысла знака или системы знаков*.

Необходимо заметить, что у студентов появился «вкус» к тонкостям математического языка, интерес к рассмотрению математических сообщений, нахождению в них проблемных ситуаций, точность и строгость в записи математических утверждений.

Проводимая со студентами работа способствовала не только повышению уровня понимания студентами математических сообщений, что характеризует содержательно-операциональный компонент культуры математической речи студентов. Как показал анализ анкет, важным результатом исследования стало повышение уровня мотивации дальнейшего профессионального роста студентов.

### **Обобщение** **Conclusions**

Организация и проведение практических занятий по методике обучения математике, способствующих развитию математической речи студентов – будущих учителей, предполагает включение в содержание методической подготовки вопросов, раскрывающих специфику математического языка и обеспечивающих организацию понимающего усвоения математики. Предлагаемая методика основана на выделенных особенностях школьного математического языка и предполагает в процессе специально организованного диалога на занятиях по методике обучения математике

- ✓ раскрытие студентами особенности образования математических объектов, представляющих собой идеальные модели реальных

объектов, их свойств, отношений, не имеющие материального, знакового воплощения и представляющие собой словесные описания свойств, отношений соответствующих отрезков действительности;

- ✓ выявление информации о способах построения соответствующей модели путем анализа имени моделей (знаки, системы знаков, построенных по определенным правилам, и термины). Одной и той же модели может соответствовать множество различных имен, отражающих различные аспекты обозначаемого явления;
- ✓ проведение смыслового анализ записи для вычленения значения имени объекта содержательной математики, что требует оперирования не знаками, а тем содержанием, которое они обозначают;
- ✓ раскрытие зависимости смыслового значения знака содержательной математики в зависимости от контекста, в котором он используется;
- ✓ постижение смыслового значения знаков как имен объектов содержательной математики в процессе перевода с математического языка на естественный язык, т.е. в процессе вербализации математических записей, и обратного перевода с естественного языка на математический.

Диалог вокруг системы проблемных вопросов организуется на практических занятиях, проводимых в форме дискуссии, методического ринга, круглого стола, мозгового штурма, анализа конкретных педагогических ситуаций, написания эссе.

Проведенное исследование позволило сделать следующие выводы.

1. Проводимая со студентами работа способствовала развитию содержательно - деятельностного компонента культуры математической речи студентов, что влияло на качество методической речи будущих учителей. Это, в свою очередь, повышало качество организации студентами понимающего усвоения математики младшими школьниками.
2. Важным результатом проводимого исследования явилось повышение мотивации дальнейшего профессионального роста будущих учителей в области обучения математике младших школьников.

### **Summary**

Organizing and conducting practical classes on methods of teaching mathematics contribute to a culture of students' mathematical speech – future teachers. These lessons

intend to include the content of the methodological training of the questions related to the specifics of mathematical language and provide the understanding of school mathematics,

- ✓ the disclosure of a students educational features of mathematical objects that represent the ideal models of real objects, their properties, relationships, not having material, symbolic of the incarnation and which is a verbal description of properties of relations corresponding segments of reality;
- ✓ revealing information about how to make an appropriate model by analyzing the name of models (signs, systems of signs, constructed according to certain rules, and terms). The same model can match many different names reflecting different aspects of the denoted phenomenon;
- ✓ conducting semantic analysis of records to identify the name of the object meaningful mathematics that requires operating not signs, and the content that they represent;
- ✓ disclosure according to the meanings of sign meaningful mathematics which are depending on the context in which it is used;
- ✓ comprehension the meanings of characters as object names meaningful mathematics in the process of translation from mathematical language into natural language, i.e. in the process of verbalization of mathematical entries, and a reverse translation from natural language into mathematics.

Dialogue around a system of problem questions is organized on practical classes, held in the form of discussion, methodical ring, round table, brainstorming, and analysis of specific pedagogical situations, writing essay.

Our research allowed us to draw the following conclusions.

1. Conducted with the students work contributed to the development of meaningful activity component of the culture of mathematical speech of students, which influenced the methodological quality of the speech of future teachers. This increases the quality of the students understanding of learning mathematics in primary school.
2. An important result of the study was the increase of motivation for further professional growth of future teachers in teaching younger students Maths.

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# РОЛЬ ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОГО САМОВЫРАЖЕНИЯ ПРЕПОДАВАТЕЛЕЙ ВЫСШЕЙ ШКОЛЫ В РАЗВИТИИ СОВРЕМЕННОГО ВУЗА

## *Role of Professional Self-Expression of High School Teachers in Development of Modern University*

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**Abstract:** *The article is devoted to studying the problem of professional self-expression of university teacher. Thesis about the existence of 6 cognitive attributes of the university teacher's self expression was theoretically identified and empirically acknowledged as a concept: 1) representation of a particular level of people's self-conscience including professional; 2) describing method, by which a person shows, regulates his activity during objectivation in professional work; 3) acting as the cognitive model of conducting cognitive activity of ethnos, society, individual in natural language; 4) multiple meaning expression of particular level of individual's experience and knowledge; 5) emotionality, personal identifying, having subjective and personal judicious and emotional personal meaning, verbal and non-verbal method of expression through reputation, behavior, reactions and etc.; 6) dependence from both teacher's general culture and particular aspects.*

*The system of criterion of university teacher's self expression and their indicators was proposed.*

*This approach allowed showing the role of university teacher self-expression in the development of a university through identifying the influence of every university teacher professional self-expression level (external – image building, social professional, creative reformative) on the university development.*

**Keywords:** *an university, a teacher, criterion and indicators, its concept and cognitive characteristics, levels, professional self-expression, students.*

### **Introduction**

В современных российских вузах преподаватель и его профессиональная подготовка испытывают серьезные модификации. С одной стороны, новые информационные и коммуникационные технологии XXI века требуют компьютерной, языковой и информационной

грамотности и широкого профессионального кругозора, с другой преподаватель формировался и обучался в учебных заведениях высшего профессионального образования, в среднем, лет 30-20 назад. Кроме этого, пестрота преподавательских кадров в силу социально-экономических причин (низкая заработная плата по сравнению с коммерческим сектором народного хозяйства, отсутствие продуманной и пролонгированной программы подготовки и повышения квалификации кадров высшей школы и др.) приводит к отсутствию единой системы требований к преподавателю не только в рамках страны, но в рамках вуза, факультета, кафедры.

Разноуровневый характер профессионального образования, широкий диапазон опыта преподавателей приводит и к проблеме многообразия профессионального самовыражения личности преподавателя, значительным образом влияющего на образовательную деятельность преподавателя вуза, его отношения со студентами, коллегами и администрацией. Это позволяет сделать вывод об актуальности рассмотрения проблемы роли профессионального самовыражения преподавателей высшей школы в развитии современного вуза.

В исследовании ставится *цель* - выявить роль профессионального самовыражения преподавателей высшей школы в развитии современного вуза.

*Задачами исследования* являются: определение концепта профессионального самовыражения преподавателя вуза и его когнитивных признаков, установление критериев и показателей профессионального самовыражения преподавателя, анализ роли профессионального самовыражения преподавателя в развитии современного вуза.

*Предметом исследования* служит профессиональное самовыражение преподавателей высшей школы.

Важнейшими *методами исследования* выступили: теоретико-методологический, логический анализ и интерпретация научных данных, сравнительный анализ, моделирование; эмпирические методы: наблюдение, беседа, анкетирование, опрос, тестирование, самоанализ, самохарактеристики (мини-сочинения), анализ и решение конкретных профессионально-педагогических ситуаций, авторские анкеты: «Анкета преподавателя вуза», «Профессиональное самовыражение личности», методики изучения отношения к деятельности преподавателя, самооценки способности самоуправления в профессиональной деятельности и др. Для обработки результатов исследования применялись математические процедуры оценки достоверности различий показателей, статистических связей.

## Content

### Theoretical foundations of professional self-expression

Проблема профессионального самовыражения преподавателя вуза изучалась как в общем контексте изучения человека как личности и субъекта профессиональной деятельности в психологии (К.А. Абульханова-Славская, А. Адлер, Б. Г. Ананьев, О. С. Анисимов, Л. И. Анцыферова, В.Г. Асеев, А. Г. Асмолов, А. Бандура, В. М. Бехтерев, А. А. Бодалев, А.В. Брушлинский, Ш. Бюлер, Л. С. Выготский, А. А. Деркач, Ю.М. Забродин, В. Г. Зазыкин, Е. А. Климов, А. Г. Ковалев, Н. В. Кузьмина А. Н. Леонтьев, Д. А. Леонтьев, К. Левин, Б. Ф. Ломов, А. К. Маркова, А. Маслоу, В. С. Мерлин, В. Н. Мясищев, Г. Оллпорт, В. А. Петровский, К.К. Платонов, К. Роджерс, Дж. Роттер, С. Л. Рубинштейн, Б. Ф. Скиннер, В. А. Слостенин, В. И. Слободчиков, Д. Н. Узнадзе, В. Д. Щадриков, З. Фрейд, К. Юнг, В. А. Ядов и др.), так и исследование видов и форм самовыражения личности, рассматриваемые в психологической и педагогической (О. А. Аветисян, Н. В. Грушко, А. Л. Лебедева, К. В. Петров, М. И. Поташник, В. Ф. Шкель), медико-психологической (А. Т. Болотов, М.Е. Бурно, П. А. Бутковский, В. Е. Рожнов, Б. Д. Карвасарский, К. Юнг, G.R. Neyer, M. Naumburg, E.Speer, G.Clauser), профессиональной (Т.И. Бузмакова, А. В. Буран, С. А. Лебедев, Г. А. Шманенкова) литературе. Известны современные приемы самораскрытия в творчестве: библиотерапия (В. Н. Мясищев, А. М. Миллер, Р. Рубин, Р. Кемпбелл), музыкотерапия (Л. С. Брусиловский, Е. В. Конорова и др.), эстетотерапия (В. Е. Рожнов, А. В. Свешников, Я. Н. Воробейчик, Л. Н. Зайцева) (О.В. Москаленко (Москаленко, 2004); И. В. Тарасова (Тарасова, 2006)).

Исследования профессионального самовыражения личности показывают взаимосвязь его как категории психологии с такими понятиями, как: профессионализм, детерминанты профессионального роста, особенности личности, личностно-профессиональное развитие, саморазвитие, субъектность, сценарий карьерного развития и др. Большой вклад в разработку теоретических положений личностно-профессионального развития специалистов внесли О.С. Анисимов, С.А. Анисимов, И. Н. Дроздов, С. Н. Епифанцев, В.Г. Зазыкин, О.И. Жданов, С. Л. Кандыбович, Л. И. Катаева, С. Л. Комарова, Н.И. Конюхов, Р. Н. Косов, Л. Г. Лаптев, О. Н. Манолова, В. Н. Маркин, Г. С. Михайлов, В.Г. Михайловский, О. В. Москаленко, А. Р. Никифоров, А.С. Огнев, А.Ю. Панасюк, Н. И. Птуха, А. А. Реан, М. Ф. Секач, Ю.В. Синягин (Н.В. Грушко (Грушко, 2003); Ю. В. Мочалова (Мочалова, 2002); В.Ф. Шкель (Шкель, 2003); И. П. Шкуратова (Шкуратова, 2009)).



Особое внимание заслуживают психологические исследования процессов саморазвития (С. В. Архипова, Т. А. Востриков, О.В. Емельянова, С. Е. Захаров, А. Н. Иноземцева, Д. С. Куликов, В. А. Лузгин, Л. М. Хабаева и др.), самоутверждения (А. В. Буран, К. А. Красильникова), самовыражения (И. В. Тарасова), самоидентификации (А. А. Сорокин, С.Н. Старостин), самоактуализации, самосовершенствования и самореализации (А. В. Жаринов, Е. В. Селезнева, Л. А. Степнова, О.В. Шаланкина и др.) (О. В. Москаленко (Москаленко, 2014, 2015, 2015а, 2015в, 2015г)).

### **Definition, components and concept of university teacher's professional self-expression**

Профессиональное самовыражение личности, с наших позиций, это не только способ самопредъявления своей индивидуальности миру и ее самораскрытие, а значительно многообразнее. Профессиональное выражение личности можно понимать как *самопрезентацию своего личностно-профессионального самосознания на этапе актуального самоосознания* (О. В. Москаленко (Москаленко, 2004, 2014а), И. В. Тарасова (Тарасова, 2006)).

Компонентами профессионального самовыражения преподавателя вуза выступают: *способ организации жизни и регуляции времени; соотношение самолюбия и долга, анализ типа активности; тип противоречий, критических для личности; виды последствий критических противоречий; соотношение проблем саморегуляции, регуляции личностью своей жизни и регуляции личности обществом; тип мотивации* (И. В. Тарасова (Тарасова, 2016)).

Разработано на основе изучения концептосфер (Д. С. Лихачев (Лихачев, 1997)) содержание концепта профессионального самовыражения преподавателя вуза и отмечены когнитивные признаки данного понятия как концепта:

- *представление определенного уровня самосознания человека, в том числе и профессионального (О. В. Москаленко (Москаленко, 2012, 2014а));*
- *изображение способа, с помощью которого личность проявляет, регулирует свою активность в процессе объективации в профессиональной деятельности;*
- *выступление когнитивной моделью, посредством которой осуществляется познавательная деятельность этноса, социума, индивидуума в естественном языке;*

- *многозначное выражение определенного уровня знаний и опыта человека, при этом демонстрирующий компоненты этого процесса;*
- *эмоциональность, личностно определяющее, субъективно и личностно осмысленно и эмоционально-личностно окрашено, вербальный и невербальный способ выражения через имидж, поведение, реакции и др., а также имеет различные уровни: внешне-имиджевый, социально-профессиональный, творчески-преобразующий;*
- *зависимость как от уровня общей культуры преподавателя, так и от частных видов – преподавательской, исследовательской, этно-культуры и др., в том числе и его тотальной толерантности (И. В. Тарасова (Тарасова, 2016а)).*

Такое понимание концепта профессионального самовыражения преподавателя вуза позволило теоретически выявить и эмпирически доказать следующую систему критериев профессионального самовыражения преподавателя вуза и их показателей: *внешний - социально-оценочный* (социально-статусный и социально-организационный), *внутренний - личностно-значимый* (самооценочный и потребностно-мотивационный), *объективный – средовой* (социально-зависимый и организационно-деятельностный), *субъективный – личностно-развивающийся* (субъективно-ценностный и рефлексивно-целевой), *процессуальный – организационно-взаимодействующий* (организационно-коммуникативный, социально-перцептивный и интерактивный), *результативный – итогово-прогностический* (эмоционально-регуляционный и когнитивно-созидатель-ный) и их показатели (И.В. Тарасова (Тарасова, 2017)).

### **Layered approach to the research of the influence of teacher's professional self-expression on the university development**

Данная система позволила описать профессиональное самовыражение преподавателя вуза по следующим уровням - *внешне-имиджевый, социально-профессиональный, творчески-преобразующий.*

Как разработанный концепт профессионального самовыражения преподавателя вуза и его когнитивные признаки, так и критерии и показатели данного понятия санкционируют исследовать и скорректировать профессиональное самовыражение преподавателя вуза, создать современную систему подготовки и повышения квалификации преподавателя вуза.

Однако отметим еще один практический аспект этой проблемы.

В вузе одним из главных акторов и мотиваторов всей деятельности организации выступает преподаватель. Если понимать специфику вуза как организации, то следует сделать вывод о сложности характера этой организации и имеющую иерархию определенных страт, взаимосвязанных по определенным законам. Выделены следующие страты организации (О.В. Москаленко, М. А. Сергеева (Москаленко & Сергеева, 2010)): администрация вуза (ректорат, деканаты, Ученый совет вуза); преподаватели (профессорско-преподавательский состав – ППС); учебно-вспомогательный состав (инженеры, лаборанты, методисты и др.); студенты (всех форм обучения). Все страты пересекаются между собой по производственным вопросам (деловое общение) и оказывают взаимовлияние друг на друга, но более всех, или ключевую роль играет преподаватель, не преуменьшая роли других страт, даже администрации. Преподавательский состав более многочислен, чем администрация и учебно-вспомогательный состав. Преподаватели, как правило, могут иметь свою «корпоративную этику», которая может отличаться от принятой в высшей школе вообще и, в частности - в данном вузе, а также от официальной позиции администрации вуза (С. Д. Резник, В. М. Филиппов (Резник & Филиппов, 2011)).

Наше предположение о том, что преподаватели с разным уровнем профессионального самовыражения оказывают различное влияние на развитие вуза, в целом, базируется на следующих теоретических выводах.

Во-первых, преподаватель более существенно влияет на студентов, так как в период студенчества, особенно на первых курсах, преподаватель выступает как «значимый взрослый» для студента в силу высокой учебно-профессиональной мотивации к будущей профессии. Но при этом, адекватный преподаватель, общаясь со студентами, особенно старшими курсами, магистрантами и аспирантами, пытается «нащупать» новые горизонты своего личностного и профессионального роста, сравнивая себя со своими подопечными. В этом случае подопечные оказывают влияние на преподавателя (О. В. Москаленко (Москаленко, 2015б, 2016)).

Во-вторых, для человека присутствует сравнительный самоанализ с другими членами социума, в том числе и в профессиональной жизни. Специалист время от времени сравнивает себя со своим идеалом-образом профессионала, или коллегами, или выдающимися мастерами. И первое, на что может повлиять итог этого самоанализа – это его профессиональное самовыражение, его самопрезентацию своего личностно-профессионального самосознания на этапе актуального самоосознания.

В-третьих, пестрота профессионального образования и опыта вузовских преподавателей ведет к завышенной неадекватной самооценке,

ценности самомнения, и служит основой для формирования и развития разных форм их профессионального самовыражения, не считаясь с мнением студентов, коллег, а иногда администрации вуза.

Была изучена зависимость влияния преподавателей с разным уровнем профессионального самовыражения на развитие вуза. Оказалось, что на уровне статистической значимости  $p \leq 0,01$  по критерию Стьюдента и коэффициента корреляции Пирсона на уровне 1 %. Главный вывод можно сделать о том, что наибольший вклад в развитие вуза – создание позитивного имиджа, формирование устойчивой системы преподавания с адекватной системой требований и контроля знаний студентов, организация учебной и научно-исследовательской деятельности студентов, проведение собственных научных и учебно-методических исследований и их внедрение в практику преподавания дисциплин в вузе и др. – оказывают преподаватели, которые имеют социально-профессиональный уровень, затем творчески-преобразующий, и на последнем месте – с внешне-имиджевым уровнем.

Преподаватели с *социально-профессиональным уровнем самовыражения* самовыражаются, в первую очередь, через свою профессию и отношение к социуму (как ко всему обществу, так и к коллективу вуза). У них выявлены следующие особенности:

- *устойчивый и осознанный способ решения профессиональных задач*, включающий в себя развитые до достаточно высокого уровня мыслительные операции: анализ, синтез, сравнение, обобщение и абстрагирование, активизация их; способность действовать в уме;
- *реальное достижение высоких профессиональных результатов*, в том числе с гибким варьированием, комбинацией задач и средств профессиональной деятельности в условиях социальной нестабильности;
- *универсальность в профессиональной деятельности* и владение несколькими специализациями;
- *соизмерение задач достижений в профессиональной деятельности и сохранения личности* профессионала;
- *выработка новых способов преподавания*, коммуникации, позитивное настроение по отношению к новому и передовому профессиональному опыту;
- *систематический творческий подход* к решению и анализу профессиональных задач, готовность к эксперименту;
- *постоянный поиск и выявление оригинальных и нестандартных методов* решения профессиональных задач;

- профессиональная грамотная речь, без использования сленга, умеют вести профессиональный диалог, заинтересованы в общении с коллегами и студентами;
- продуманность диалогов, умение слушать и вести диалог;
- низкая эмоциональность и высокая конструктивность в противоречивых и конфликтных ситуациях.

Преподаватели, которые находятся на *творчески-преобразующем уровне* профессионального самовыражения, самовыражаются через научное и профессиональное творчество, а также в виде хобби - искусство, техническое творчество и др. Как правило, таким педагогам присуще:

- *сильно выраженная Я-концепция*, понимаемая как сложная личностная характеристика, возникающая в контактах с людьми и в деятельности, описывающая эмоционально зрелую личность, устойчивую к действию фрустрации, доверяющую себе и независимую в суждениях и поведении;
- *высокая направленность* личности на творчество;
- *склонность к рефлексии*, позволяющая быть открытым по отношению к источникам информации, потенциально и актуально пригодным для любого вида творчества;
- *эмоциональная и эстетическая восприимчивость*, выступающее условием оригинального способа переживания творчества, самого себя, отношения к действительности и ощущения творческой связи с другим человеком.

Преподаватель, видящий себя в реализации творчества, не только развивается и создает новые и социально значимые ценности, но и самореализуется и самовыражается в любом виде творчестве. При этом выделены два вида стремления к самовыражению: первый - это стремление к совершенству (росту профессионализма, компетентности, достижению все новых высот творчества), что может привести и к негативу – чрезмерному педантизму, строгим формулировкам понятий и др.

Второй - это стремление к достижению превосходства как человека и преподавателя над другими людьми (желание доказать свою большую значимость по сравнению с окружающими, ориентация прежде всего на признание окружающих, жажда славы), что может породить тенденцию к невыполнению своей главной миссии – преподаванию и «уходу» в творчество. Даже небольшое увлечение профессиональным или научным творчеством «грозит» преподавателю невыполнением требований Федерального Государственного Образовательного Стандарта (ФГОС) высшего образования по тому или иному направлению, специальности и т.д., и т.п.

Преподаватели с *внешне-имиджевым* уровнем само выражаются через внешние атрибуты: одежда, имидж; невербальные и вербальные средства общения; демонстративные формы поведения (крик на студентов, насмешки, некорректные высказывания и др.); грубое отношение; чрезмерное увлечение (религией, политикой, молодежной модой и др.).

У преподавателей этой группы выявлено:

- не структурированность компонентов профессионального самовыражения;
- подражание преуспевшим преподавателям;
- незаинтересованность в общении со студентами, коллегами;
- спонтанность и непоследовательность в профессиональной деятельности и в своих требованиях к студентам;
- отношения в профессиональном социуме строятся с применением старых шаблонных способов.

Последней группе преподавателей характерны личностно-профессиональные деформации, определенный регресс в саморазвитии, нежелание заниматься повышением своей квалификации и профессионального уровня, выражающиеся в барьерах и застоях личности, разобщенности или противоречия внешних и внутренних результатов профессиональной деятельности преподавателей и учебно-профессиональной деятельности студентов.

По результатам исследования можно выделить некоторые качества преподавателя высшей школы, которые значимы как для преподавателей и администрации вуза, так и для студентов в плане развития вуза как организации.

Во-первых, преподаватель - это образ и образец культуры, и поэтому к числу его основных качеств должны быть отнесены глубина научных познаний, самостоятельность, способность к диалогическому общению, творческая активность. Во-вторых, преподаватель высшей школы XXI века – это профессионал и творческая личность, гражданин, умеющий глобально гуманистически мыслить и локально созидающе действовать. В-третьих, для преподавателя высшей школы должно быть свойственно такое качество как креативность, что необходимо ему для профессиональной педагогической деятельности. В-четвертых, современный преподаватель должен быть грамотным в своей области, уметь пользоваться информационными и коммуникационными технологиями, постоянно заниматься самообразованием. В-пятых, в современном вузе преподаватель должен быть фасилитатором, так как он должен давать возможность студентам самим найти пути и решения поставленных задач.

Отметим, что предложенная к анализу проблема влияния профессионального самовыражения преподавателей вуза на развитие вуза, в целом, важна и актуальна. Авторский подход может быть интересен как с позиции психологии и педагогики высшей школы, так и с точки зрения организационной психологии, рассматривающей вуз как организацию, имеющую свои особенности как в социально-экономическом аспекте, так и в психологическом. Это создаст условия для развития вуза в целом как организации, так и личностно-профессионального развития каждого члена коллектива.

### **Implications**

Рассмотренная в статье проблема влияния профессионального самовыражения преподавателей вуза на развитие вуза и авторский путь ее изучения формируют новый подход к проблемам высшей школы, а именно позволяют привлечь накопленные психологические знания для теоретического и практического исследования педагогики высшей школы, тем самым сформировать новую отрасль научного знания – психологическую педагогику, которая отличается как от педагогической психологии, так и от психологии и педагогики и их отраслей. Психологическая педагогика, имея диалогический характер, и используя достижения психологических теорий, может помочь студентам стать самим собой, вырабатывая перспективу непрерывного образования как саморазвития. Преподаватель сможет помочь студенту в этом процессе, став конгениальным ему как сотоварищ по образу мыслей и направлению развития. В результате это позволит университету и высшему образованию перейти на новый уровень развития в целом.

### **Summary**

In modern universities a teacher and his/her professional training encounter with serious modifications. On the one hand, new informational and communicational technologies of the 21<sup>st</sup> century require computer, linguistic and informational literacy and broad professional mental outlook, on the other hand, teacher had been developing and had been educated in higher professional education institution in average 20-30 years ago. Besides, variety in teaching personnel due to social economic reasons (low salary in comparison with private sector of national economy, the absence of well weighed and prolonged program of training and university teachers development and etc.) leads to the deficiency of single requirement system for a teacher not only on the national ground, but also on the level of university, faculty and department.

Multilevel character of professional education, wide range of teacher's experience result in the problem of the diversity of professional and personal self-expression of a

teacher, which has a considerable influence on educating activity of a university teacher, his relations with students, colleges and administration. This makes possible to draw a conclusion about applicability of considering the problem of university teacher's professional self-expression in the development of a modern university.

The research states an aim to identify the role of professional self expression of a university teacher in the development of a modern university.

The objectives of the research are: to identify the concept of professional self-expression of university teacher and its cognitive attributes, to fix criterion and indicators of professional self-expression of a teacher, to analyze the role of professional self-expression of a teacher in the development of a modern university.

The subject of the research is the professional self-expression of university teachers.

The most important research methods are: theoretical methodological, logical analysis, the interpretation of scientific data, a comparative analysis, modeling; empirical methods: supervision, conversation, questionnaire, inquiry, testing, self analysis, self characterizing (short essays), the analysis and solution of particular professional pedagogical situations, author's forms: "University teacher's queues", "Professional self expression of a person", techniques of learning attitude to teacher's activity and self assessment of professional activity self management ability and etc. To process research outputs were used mathematical procedures of assessing authenticity of indicators' distinction, statistical links.

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## GARĪGUMS AUGSTĀKAJĀ IZGLĪTĪBĀ: MĀCĪBSPĒKU UZSKATI

### *Spirituality in Higher Education: Views of the Teaching Staff*

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Latvijas Sporta pedagogijas akadēmija

**Abstract.** *Spirituality is an integral part of a holistic education (Miller, 2005) and a holistic development of personality (Chandler et al., 1992; Myers et al., 2008). Although various definitions of spirituality are used, several authors recognize the importance of spirituality in higher education (Dillard, 2006; Love & Talbot, 1999; Tisdell, 2001). Christian values have shaped the identity of Latvia since ancient times but the atheistic history of Latvia during the Soviet occupation has affected people's thinking. Therefore, the aim of this research was to find answers to the following questions – how do the teaching staff of the Latvian Academy of Sport Education (LASE) understand spirituality? What are the teaching staff's views on the enhancement of students' spirituality during their study process? What is the teaching staff's attitude regarding Biblical spirituality? This paper is based on a qualitative study (voluntary semi-structured interviews and qualitative content analysis were used) that examined 14 LASE teaching staff (7 women and 7 men, 27-68 years old). Spirituality is perceived as the multifaceted inner life of a person which determines a person's understanding of the universe and connection to God and other people. The common human and family responsibility, leadership and teaching staff responsibility, an institutional environment, and God's work in the hearts of students were mentioned as primary to enhancing spirituality in students. We observed that according to the Biblical understanding of spirituality most of the teaching staff appear to be in a stage of pre-spirituality and not spirituality.*

**Keywords:** *Biblical spirituality, higher education, holistic education, spirituality, teaching staff.*

### **Ievads**

#### **Introduction**

20. gs. beigās un 21. gs. sākumā psiholoģijā un izglītībā aizvien vairāk uzsver holistisku skatījumu uz cilvēka personības attīstību. Garīgums tiek atzīts kā viena no nozīmīgām personības dimensijām, turklāt, vairāki autori šo dimensiju novieto personības modeļa centrā (Chandler et al., 1992; Myers et al., 2008). Dž. Millers

(2005) norāda, ka tieši garīguma veicināšana ir viens no noteicošajiem faktoriem holistikajā izglītībā, kas atšķir to no citām izglītības paradigmām (2. lpp.). Lai arī izglītības speciālisti lieto dažādus garīguma skaidrojumus, tie atzīst, ka ir nepieciešams aktualizēt jautājumus par garīgumu augstākajā izglītībā, jo tas skar cilvēka personības attīstību (Dillard, 2006; Love & Talbot, 1999; Tisdell, 2001). Latviešu pētnieks Jānis Valbis 2005. gadā atzina, ka garīgums būs nozīmīga izglītības iezīme nākotnē, tajā skaitā augstākajā izglītībā, „taču daļa sabiedrības atrodas zināma psiholoģiskā diskomforta stāvoklī – ilgie komunistiskās indoktrinācijas gadi ar karojošā ateisma ideoloģiju ir lieguši cilvēkiem iespēju apgūt demokrātiskas sabiedrības vērtību sistēmu, daudzos ieaudzinājuši negatīvu attieksmi pret reliģiju un arī garīgumu” (108. lpp.). 2013. gadā Latvijas Universitātes teoloģijas fakultātes profesore Laima Geikina savā monogrāfijā rakstīja: „Ievērojama daļa Latvijas sabiedrības ir piedzīvojuši ateistisko izglītību un vēl aizvien apzināti vai neapzināti savā domāšana un attieksmē pret reliģiju balstās ateistiskās izglītības atziņās” (123. lpp.). Ņemot vērā izglītības pētnieku atzinumus par nepieciešamību veicināt garīgumu augstākajā izglītībā, ateistiskās audzināšanas vēsturi Latvijā Padomju okupācijas gados un LR Satversmes preambulā rakstīto, ka kristīgās vērtības ir viens no aspektiem, kas veidojis Latvijas identitāti Eiropas kultūrtelpā jau kopš senlaikiem, tika veikts kvalitatīvs pētījums, lai noskaidrotu atbildes uz šādiem pētījuma jautājumiem: 1) kā Latvijas Sporta pedagoģijas akadēmijas (LSPA) mācībspēki saprot garīgumu? 2) kādi ir mācībspēku uzskati par studentu garīguma veicināšanu studiju procesā? 3) kāda ir mācībspēku attieksme pret biblisko garīgumu?

### **Pētījuma metodes un izlases veidošana** *Research Methods and Sampling*

Pētnieki, kuri lietojuši kvalitatīvās pētniecības metodes garīguma izpētē, iesaka veidot iespējami neviendabīgu pētījuma izlasi (Hamilton & Jackson, 1998), tādēļ pētījuma izlases veidošanā izvirzījām šādus kritērijus: izlasē jābūt gan teorētisko, gan praktisko studiju kursu pasniedzējiem, gan vīriešiem, gan sievietēm, nepieciešama gan vecumu, gan akadēmisko amatu dažādība. Vadoties pēc šiem kritērijiem, uzrunājām mācībspēkus, aicinājām piedalīties mūsu pētījumā, un kā noteicošo principu izlases veidošanā izvēlējāmies brīvprātības principu. Pētījumā iesaistījās 14 LSPA mācībspēki – profesori, docenti, lektori, asistenti – 7 vīrieši un 7 sievietes, vecumā no 27 līdz 68 gadiem. Visi pētījuma dalībnieki docē profesionālā bakalaura augstākās izglītības programmā „Sporta zinātne”. Puse no mācībspēkiem, kuri piedalījās pētījumā, vada teorētiskos studiju kursus un puse no pētījuma dalībniekiem vada praktiskos studiju kursus.

Kā datu vākšanas metode tika izmantota daļēji strukturēta intervija, lietojot pētījuma autoru iepriekš sagatavotus jautājumus sarunas rosināšanai. Apzinoties,

ka jautājumi par garīgumu un tēmas, kas saistītas ar personīgo ticību, cilvēkiem var būt sensitīvas, intervijas tika veiktas draudzīgas sarunas formā, lai veicinātu cilvēku uzticēšanos un atklātību (Nucho & Vidnere, 2003). Gatavojoties intervijai (un dažkārt domās arī intervijas laikā) intervētāja lietoja personīgās lūgšanas jeb sarunas ar Radītāju, paļaujoties uz Viņa vadību savstarpēji draudzīgas, godīgas, atklātas un cieņpilnas sarunas veidošanā. Intervijas tika veiktas promocijas darba „Garīguma veicināšana topošo sporta speciālistu studiju procesā” pētījuma ietvaros un šajā rakstā tiek prezentēta tikai daļa no interviju analīzē gūtajiem rezultātiem, tādēļ aprakstīsim tikai tos intervijās uzdotos jautājumus, kuri attiecas uz šī raksta pētījuma jautājumiem. Lai noskaidrotu LSPA mācībspēku izpratni par garīgumu, tika uzdoti šādi jautājumi – Kā Tu definētu, izskaidrotu, kas ir garīgums? Kā Tu izskaidrotu, ko nozīmē garīgs? Vai Tu sevi uzskati par garīgu cilvēku? Lai noskaidrotu mācībspēku uzskatus par garīguma veicināšanu, tika lietoti šādi jautājumi – Kā Tu kā pasniedzējs rūpējies par studentu garīgo izaugsmi studiju laikā? Kā šobrīd kopumā tiek veicināta studentu garīgā izaugsme LSPA? Kādas ir tavas domas, idejas, ko vēl varētu darīt, lai veicinātu studentu izaugsmi garīgajā jomā? Kādēļ nepieciešams veicināt studentu izaugsmi garīgajā jomā? Savukārt, lai izpētītu mācībspēku attieksmi pret biblisko garīgumu, analizējām viņu attieksmi pret Jēzu Kristu, uzdodot jautājumus – ko Tu zini par Jēzu Kristu? Vai Tu esi lasījis (-usi) Bībeli? Bibliskajā skatījumā zināšanām par Dievu ir vairāki līmeņi, kur visdziļākais no tiem ir personīga Dieva pazīšana (Ījaba 42: 1-6, Jāņa 17: 3), tādēļ dalīšanās zināšanās par Jēzu atklāj arī respondenta attieksmi pret Jēzu. Savukārt, Dieva Vārda lasīšana un uzņemšana sevī ir Dieva dots līdzeklis, lai iepazītu Jēzu (Jāņa 8: 31-32, 1. Pēt. 1: 23-25). Intervijas ar mācībspēkiem notika laika posmā no 2014. gada aprīļa līdz 2015. gada martam respondentu izvēlētā laikā un vietā. Sarunas tika ierakstītas audio formātā. Lai saglabātu pētījuma dalībnieku anonimitāti, katram pētījuma dalībniekam pirms intervijas tika piešķirts paša respondenta vai pētījuma autoru izvēlēts segvārds. Dati analizēti, izmantojot kvalitatīvo kontentanalīzi. Respondentu atbildes tika transkribētas. Pārrakstīšanas laikā no teksta tika izdalīts neatbilstošais materiāls (vilcināšanās vārdi, atkārtojumi). Lai samazinātu iespējas identificēt respondentu, dažos gadījumos teksts tika nedaudz modificēts, izņemot personvārdus vai studiju kursa nosaukumu. Pēc padziļinātas iepazīšanās ar tekstu tika veikta atvērtā un aksiālā kodēšana. No transkribētā teksta tika izdalīti būtiskākie apgalvojumi, identificējot kategorijas, kuras pēc tam tika sargrupētas, zīmējot prāta karti. Kategorijas tika apvienotas, veidojot izskaidrojošos jēdzienus.

## **Mācībspēku izpratne par garīgumu** *Teaching Staff's Understanding of Spirituality*

Analizējot sniegtās atbildes, konstatējām, ka saskaņā ar aptaujāto LSPA mācībspēku uzskatiem garīgums ir katrā cilvēkā un tas ir komplekss konstrukts, kuru grūti izskaidrot. Vairāki respondenti intervijās norādīja uz diviem garīguma aspektiem – vienu, kas saistīts ar reliģiju vai kristīgo ticību un otru, kas saistīts ar prāta lēmumiem, ētiskām un estētiskām vērtībām, attieksmi pret sevi un citiem cilvēkiem. Daži šos aspektus nošķir pilnībā, savukārt daži redz kopsakarības. Piemēram, Niks vienu garīguma aspektu raksturo kā „šeit uz zemes” un otru kā „skatīšanos plašāk”, un redz garīdzniekus, baznīcu kā starpposmu starp abiem. Viņš sarunā atzīst, ka, lai gan baznīcā nesaskata neko sliktu, pats vairāk šī vārda jēgu cenšas meklēt „šeit un tuvumā nevis kaut kā plašāk un tālāk”. Cilvēka garīgums ietekmē to, kā tas skatās uz pasaulē notiekošo, kā tas attiecas pret sevi un citiem cilvēkiem. Garīgums tiek skaidrots kā cilvēka spēja, iekšējie procesi, vērtības, pasaules uzskats, Svētā Gara dāvanas cilvēkā (skat. 1. tab.).

1.tab. **Garīguma dimensijas un kritēriji, balstoties uz mācībspēku uzskatiem**  
*Table 1 Dimensions and Criteria of Spirituality Based on The Views of the Teaching Staff*

<b>Garīguma dimensijas</b>	<b>Garīguma kritēriji</b>
Cilvēka spēja	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- spēja redzēt Visuma kopsakarības</li> <li>- spēja izvērtēt objektīvi un taisnīgi</li> </ul>
Cilvēka iekšējie procesi	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- personības veidošanās</li> <li>- ticība</li> <li>- dzīve saskaņā ar vērtībām</li> </ul>
Cilvēkam piemītošas īpašības	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- bez grēka, sliktām īpašībām</li> <li>- labais un gaišais cilvēkā</li> </ul>
Cilvēka vērtības	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- ētiskās vērtības</li> <li>- estētiskās vērtības</li> <li>- nemateriālās vērtības</li> <li>- kristīgās vērtības</li> </ul>
Cilvēka pasaules uzskats	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- attieksme pret citiem cilvēkiem</li> <li>- attieksme pret Dievu</li> </ul>
Svētā Gara dāvanas cilvēkā	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- tas, ko mums dod Svētais Gars</li> </ul>

Formulējot atbilžu spektru vienā teikumā, varētu teikt, ka LSPA mācībspēki garīgumu redz kā daudzšķautņainu personas iekšējo dzīvi, kas nosaka personas izpratni par Visumu un saikni ar Dievu un citiem cilvēkiem. Iekšējā dzīve apzīmē cilvēka būtību, eksistenci – tā ir dzīvība cilvēkā, kas attiecīgi ietver arī cilvēkam piemītošās spējas un īpašības, vērtības un attieksmi, un tas vienlaicīgi ir arī cilvēka personības veidošanās process, kas norisinās cilvēkā tādēļ, ka viņā ir

dzīvība. Šī personības veidošanās procesa laikā notiek izmaiņas cilvēka būtībā esošajās spējās un īpašībās, vērtībās un attieksmēs.

### **Garīguma veicināšana studiju procesā** *Enhancement of Spirituality during the Study Process*

Mācībspēku uzskatus par garīguma veicināšanu analizējām no trīs skatu punktiem: a) garīguma aspekti, kurus vajadzētu veicināt augstskolas studiju procesā; b) garīguma veicināšanas iespējas augstskolā; c) šķēršļi garīguma veicināšanai augstskolā.

Dieva Vārds atklāj, ka Radītāja mērķis ir darīt cilvēku pēc Dieva tēla un Dieva līdzības (1. Mozus 1: 26). Raksta autores uzskata, ka Dieva tēls cilvēkā un Dieva dotā dzīvības dvaša jeb cilvēka gars (1. Mozus 2: 7, Ps. 146: 4) ir gan priekšnosacījums, gan potenciāls cilvēka garīgumam un nosauc to par pirmsgarīgumu. Savukārt garīgumu skaidro kā Dieva līdzības atjaunošanu cilvēkā, kas notiek uzticoties Jēzum Kristum un sekojot Viņam mīlestībā un Svētā Gara spēkā. Bibliskā skatījumā pirmsgarīgums ir katrā cilvēkā, savukārt garīgums tikai tajos, kuri uzticas Jēzum Kristum un seko Viņam mīlestībā un Svētā Gara spēkā (Tālberga & Fernāte, 2016). Bibliskajā skatījumā garīguma veicināšanā ir trīs pamataspekti: mācīšanās būt pašam jeb mīlēt sevi, mācīšanās mīlēt Dievu, savu Kungu, un mācīšanās mīlēt savu tuvāko (saskaņā ar Marka 12: 29-31 un Lūkas 10: 27-28). Līdums (2011), pētot K. Rānera uzskatus par Dieva tēlu cilvēkā, norāda, ka arī Rānera teoloģijā Dieva pieredze, „es” pieredze un mīlestība uz savu tuvāko ir vienas realitātes trīs savstarpēji noteicoši aspekti, jo „Dieva pieredze ir arī sava „es” pieredze un otrādi” (Kelley, 1992), viena nav iespējama bez otras. Mīlestība uz Dievu un mīlestība uz tuvāko ir vienotas, kā arī tuvākā pieredze un „es” pieredze ir vienotas (96. – 100. lpp.).

Visi aptaujātie mācībspēki ir pārliecināti par to, ka augstskolā ir jāveicina studentu personības veidošanās, akcentējot garīguma veicināšanas aspektus 'mācīšanās būt pašam jeb mīlēt sevi' un 'mīlēt savu tuvāko' (studentu izziņas procesa un radošuma veicināšana, vērtību uzsvēršana - labestīguma, godīguma, cieņas pret pasniedzējiem un studiju biedriem veicināšana, attieksmju un problēmrisināšanas prasmju veidošana), savukārt uzskatos par aspektu, kas ietver Dieva mīlestību, ir jaušama nedrošība, biklums un šaubas. Daži no mācībspēkiem, runājot par garīguma veicināšanu augstskolā, vispār nepiemin šo garīguma veicināšanas aspektu. Jaunāka gadagājuma docētāji, kuri piemin šo aspektu, atzīst, ka ir labi, ja augstskolā tiek sniegta šāda iespēja, norādot izvēles brīvības nepieciešamību. „*Ir labi, ka ir informācija, ka vispār kaut kas tāds ir, ka ir tādas iespējas [...] bet man šķiet šajā aspektā svarīgi, ka tas ir neuzkrītoši. Man šķiet, ka tās ir tās lietas, ko nevajag laist TV reklāmā vai izziņot pa radio, nu tādā ziņā, ka tam nebūtu jābūt uzbāzīgi. Tas ir tā cilvēka izvēle un tādā veidā,*” savu viedokli

pauž Centis. Francis saka: „*Es neuzskatu, ka tas ir baigi īpaši vajadzīgs. Jā, rekur šeit mēs sēžam ļoti mājīgā kapelā, studentiem ir iespēja pievērsties savai ticībai vai arī nu kad ir viss, kas saistīts ar to, un es neuzskatu, ka tas (garīguma veicināšana) ir atsevišķi nepieciešams veikt.*” Savukārt pētījumā intervēto vecāka gadagājuma mācībspēku uzskatos, pieminot šo garīguma veicināšanas aspektu, vairāk dominē viedoklis, ka „*relīģija ir katra privāta lieta.*” Piemēram, Maiga vairākkārt uzsver: „*Man šķiet, ka katram ir sava vieta, ka tās ir vērtības, kas ir jāattīsta ģimenē un pie kurām katrs nonāk mazāk vai vairāk pats, un tad viņš iet to savu ceļu. [...] es uzskatu, ka tas būtu arī tā, ka tam sava vieta. Jo baznīca ir baznīca, darba vieta ir darba vieta. Studentiem mācīties - tā ir mācību iestāde. Man gribētos tā mazliet nošķirt.*” Viktorija domā, ka studentos nepieciešams veicināt arī šo garīguma aspektu, taču nav pārliecināta par iespēju darīt to augstskolā: „*Nu tas mans uzskats ir, ka tā garīgā izaugsme ir tāda diezgan individuāla un intīma lieta un man nāk šaubas vai tām masām var iedot garīgumu.*”

Analizējot mācībspēku atbildes par studentu garīguma veicināšanu, varējām izdalīt vairākas kategorijas attiecībā uz to, kuram būtu jāuzņemas atbildība un jāiesaistās studentu garīguma veicināšanā – Dievam, studentiem pašiem, studentu ģimenēm, augstskolas mācībspēkiem, augstskolas vadībai, reliģiskajām organizācijām, sabiedrībai kopumā. Daloties pārdomās par to, kā veicināt studentu garīgumu studiju laikā augstskolā, mācībspēki norādīja, ka nepieciešama studentu pašu ieinteresētība un uzsvēra atvērtas un labvēlīgas augstskolas vides nozīmi un katra pasniedzēja ieguldījumu garīguma veicināšanā. „*Ja mūsu docētāji ir kā Personības ar lielo burtu, tad arī viņi ir tie vislielākie garīguma sekmētāji, jo cilvēkmīlestība - noteikti ir jābūt tam paraugam, kā mīlēt tos cilvēkus, kā rūpēties par cilvēkiem, jo mums tā profesija ir nenodarīt pāri cilvēkam. [...] Ļaut katram attīstīties – tas arī ir ļoti liels izaicinājums, jo šeit ir tā pretruna, vai veidot to paaudzi nu var teikt pēc manas līdzības vai arī tai paaudzei ļaut attīstīties. Un protams arī nenoliegt šo garīgumu kā tādu. [...] Cik mums ir Bībeles tagad? Bibliotēkā un pieejamība. Nu būtībā aktualizēt šos jautājumus un atbalstīt studentus šajos garīgajos meklējumos,*” uzskata Laura. Atbilstoša docētāja un studenta komunikācija lekcijās un ārpus tām atklājas kā centrālais līdzeklis studentu garīguma veicināšanā – stāstīšana, paskaidrošana, sarunas, diskusijas, situāciju analīze, uzslava, iedrošinājums, aicinājums, aizrādījums, drosme paust savus uzskatus.

Gan teorētisko, gan praktisko studiju kursu docētāji garīguma veicināšanā uzsvēra savus centienus attīstīt studentu domāšanu un radošumu, studentu motivēšanu lasīt grāmatas, pašiem meklēt informāciju. Marts dalās garīguma veicināšanas pieredzē, mācot studentus vadīt sporta nodarbības: „*Tā tad es aizrādu vai teiksim laboju, ja kaut kas sāk dublēt vai kaut kas pārāk daudz sāk atkārtoties – mani vingrinājumi vai manas darbības – tā tad piespiežu tādā veidā*

viņiem meklēt ko jaunu. Saglabāju viņu vecos darbus, lai nebūtu tā, ka man kaut kas te sāk atkārtoties. Piespiežu viņiem arī domāt.” Augstskolas mācībspēki atzīst dažādu pasākumu nozīmi studentu garīguma veicināšanā. Jūlijas pārdomas: „Mums vispār vajadzētu vairāk padomāt par studentu saliedētību pēc būtības. [..] mums ir jāspēj kaut kā arī saliedēt man liekas, ka pasniedzējus ar studentiem, lai saprastu, ka tas ir viens vesels. Ja mēs paskatāmies uz to pašu pasākumu, kas mums ir olimpiskā diena septembrī, un cik studenti bija priecīgi, ka profesors viņiem palīdzēja virvi vilkt. Tas viņiem bija vesels pasākums, vesels notikums – nu ka profesors... Kaut kā veidojot to, attīstot komunikāciju savā starpā, ka tās nav divas dažādas pasaules, ka arī mēs esam cilvēki un ka viņi ir arī cilvēki.” Viena no garīguma veicināšanas metodēm augstskolā ir studentu grupu kuratori, kas bijuši agrāk. Mūsdienā valodā varētu teikt mentori. Emīlija stāsta: „Agrāk bija kuratori – grupu audzinātāji – no pasniedzējiem. Tad tiešām – tad studenti tiek audzināti, pamācīti, pavirzīti, pasaka viņiem priekšā. Tagad jau viņi nabadziņi viens otrs izkrīt tāpēc, ka viņš nesaprot īsti – atbrauc no laukiem, iekritis te pilsētā un nesaprot, kas notiek un kā jādzīvo un kā te jāmācās pēc tā, kad skolotāji staigājuši pakaļ. [..] pārrunāja, kādas ir problēmas – mācību, sadzīviskās, sporta varbūt, ar sesijām, ar ieskaitēm.” Emīlija domā, ka tagad ar studentu tikumisko audzināšanu nodarbojas komandu treneri, kuri ir vairāk saskarsmē ar studentu. Tabulā apkopoti LSPA mācībspēku uzskati par augstskolas vadības un mācībspēku ieguldījumu, veidojot garīgumu veicinošu vidi augstskolā.

2.tab. Augstskolas mācībspēku un vadības ieguldījums studentu garīguma veicināšanā studiju procesā augstskolā

Table 2 *Contribution of the Higher Education Institution's Teaching Staff and Leaders to Enhance Spirituality During the Study Process*

Mācībspēku ieguldījums	Augstskolas vadības ieguldījums
<p>Mācībspēkiem būt studentu paraugam</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- attieksmē (pacietība, ieinteresētība darbā, cilvēkmīlestība)</li> <li>- vērtībās</li> <li>- komunikācijas prasmēs</li> <li>- harismā</li> <li>- radošumā</li> <li>- pedagoģiskās darbības stilā ar studentiem</li> <li>- mācību procesa organizācijā</li> <li>- drosmē dalīties savos uzskatos</li> <li>- rūpēs par personīgo izaugsmi garīgajā jomā</li> </ul>	<p>Studiju programmā iekļaut studiju kursus, kuru saturs veicina garīgumu:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Filozofija</li> <li>- Ētika</li> <li>- Kultūras vēsture</li> <li>- Retorika</li> <li>- Pedagoģija</li> <li>- Psiholoģija</li> <li>- Harmoniska personības attīstība</li> </ul> <p>Veicināt pasniedzēju garīgumu caur semināriem un iesaistīšanu augstskolu apmaiņas programmās Latvijā un ārzemēs. Atvērtība kapelas izveidei un kapelānu darbam augstskolā.</p>



Nodrošināt mentorus jeb kuratorus katrai studentu grupai audzināšanas darba veikšanai.
Rosināt un atbalstīt dažādu pasākumu iniciatīvas, piemēram, talka, valsts svētki, sporta laureāts, izlaidumi, sporta sacensības, reliģiskas ievirzes pasākumi, Ziemassvētku balle, Lieldienu svinēšana, filmu vakari, tikšanās ar māksliniekiem, nometnes, olimpiskā diena u.c.
Nodrošināt sakoptu augstskolas fizisko vidi.

Pēc interviju analīzes kā būtiskākos garīguma veicināšanas šķēršļus augstskolā varam nosaukt mācībspēku motivācijas un kompetences trūkumu. „Pedagogi ir vairāk tendēti, centrēti tikai uz savu tiešo priekšmetu mācīšanu, neintegrējot citas lietas, kas palīdzētu daudz interesantākus paralēli šos kursus padarīt. [...] 21. gs. mēs nevaram šauri nodalīt – tikai mācīt spēlēt hokeju vai slēpot. Mēs varam daudz ko integrēt iekšā, kaut vai runāt par garīgumu, par garīgo, mēs varam runāt par daudzām citām lietām,” saka Rihards. Motivāciju ietekmē tas, ka mērķis šķiet tāls un nerasniedzams „sajūta, ka tas tāds baigais lielais kalns, kurā uzkāpt grūti”, rezultātus nav iespējams izmērīt „garīgumu es uzskatu, ka nevar objektīvi novērtēt”, „lai cik es censtos būt baigais piemērs lielais viņiem, nu grūti to izvērtēt ir, lai zinātu, vai es esmu uz viņiem iedarbojies, vai viss akadēmijas kopums ir garīgi uz viņiem kaut kādu iespaidu atstājis” un rezultātus nav iespējams redzēt uzreiz „daži audzēkņi – mēs tiekamies pēc gadiem pieciem, septiņiem – saka: es nevarēju saprast, kāpēc mums vajadzēja runāt par to, un pēc septiņiem gadiem es sapratu”. Viens no šķēršļiem garīguma veicināšanā ir mācībspēku attieksme, kas var izpausties kā mācībspēku personiskā neieinteresētība „ne visi, bet cilvēki ir palikuši tādi, man par to nemaksā un man tas nav jādara” vai vienaldzība, kas radusies frustrācijas rezultātā „diezgan skeptiski īstenībā uz to skatos, uz to izmainīšanu un ka es varētu kaut ko mainīt tajā visā. [...] nu ar aizrādīšanu – neatceros, ka kādreiz būtu kādam aizrādījis. Īstenībā tas ir mainījies – pirms desmit gadiem, kad sāku strādāt, vienpadsmit kaut kur, tad es mācījos no kolēģiem, kā viņi darīja, tā es arī mācījos, arī darīju. Viņi tajā laikā diezgan daudz aizrādīja, dzina ārā studentus, vēl kaut ko... [...] nu droši vien tas arī nestrādāja kā jebkura, bet censties... Protams ka – bet kā es varu teikt, ka cenšos, bet es nevaru nosaukt, kādā veidā es to daru? Nu ja – piemērs personīgais un kaut kāda tur tā ... švaki... nu ir tā, jo manī pašā droši vien nav tāds pārnesamais garīgums ar ko es varētu dalīties kaut kādā veidā.” Kompetences trūkums audzināšanas metožu un līdzekļu izvēlē, pielietošanā, frustrācija noved pie atbildības neuzņemšanās „tas ir vienkārši... Tas nāk no citurienes. Tam nav jānāk no pasniedzējiem droši vien. Tā varētu to visu tulkot ilgāk padomājot. „ Mūsdienu straujais dzīves ritms tiek minēts kā problēma garīguma veicināšanā augstskolā „viss mācību process ir virzīts uz ātrumu un uz apgūšanu un izskriešanu, caurskriešanu. Agrāk bija kaut kā lēnāk, mūsu ritms bija tāds stabilāks, lēnāks, mierīgāks”. Mācībspēkiem ir jāattīsta drosme būt

pašiem un dalīties savos uzskatos cieņā un mīlestībā uz tuvāko, jo drosmes trūkums var būt kā šķērslis garīguma veicināšanā augstskolā. Viktorija saka: „*Es zinu, ka man pilnīgi citādas sarunas veidojas, kad es runāju ar jauniešiem savā draudzē un pilnīgi citādas sarunas man veidojas šeit ar studentiem. Bet īstenībā viņi jau nav atšķirīgi. Kāpēc es runāju savādāk ar studentiem šeit jau tā kā a priori pieņemot, ka viņi nesapratīs mani vai varbūt pārpratīs mani? Nu iespējams, ka vajag vairāk arī uzdrošināšanos.*” Savukārt Gundars atzīst: „*Es nekad neesmu kautrējies paust savus uzskatus, ja ir arī kāds labs skolēns vai students, vai arī kāds dara kaut ko tādu ko es uzskatu, ka nav labi, es to arī pasaku*”. Augstskolas lielums intervijās atklājas gan kā šķērslis, gan kā iespēja garīguma veicināšanā. No tā varam secināt, ka būtiska ir garīguma veicināšanas formu izvēle atbilstoši augstskolas lielumam.

### **Mācībspēku attieksme pret biblisko garīgumu** ***Teaching Staffs' Attitude Regarding Biblical Spirituality***

Bibliskais garīgums jeb Svētā Gara piepildīta dzīve ir vārda garīgums sākotnējā oriģinālā izpratnē. Šobrīd senākais latīņu vārda *spiritualite* lietojums rakstītā tekstā datēts mūsu ēras 410. gadā, kur anonīms autors aicina savus lasītājus dzīvot lielākā padevībā Svētajam Garam (McClendon, 2012). Biblisko garīgumu raksturo kristietības augstāko vērtību – mīlestības uz Dievu, savu Kungu, un mīlestības uz savu tuvāko kā sevi pašu – realizācija ikdienas dzīvē, uzticoties Jēzum un sekojot Viņam mīlestībā un Svētā Gara spēkā (Tālberga & Fernāte, 2016). Lai analizētu mācībspēku attieksmi (nostāju) pret biblisko garīgumu, analizējām viņu attieksmi (izturēšanās veidu) pret Jēzu Kristu. Šajā gadījumā kā būtiskākais attieksmi raksturojošais aspekts ir uzticēšanās vai neuzticēšanās Jēzum Kristum kā reālai vēsturiskai personai un Viņa teiktajiem vārdiem, kas aprakstīti evaņģēlijos. Analizējot mācībspēku atbildes, izdalījām trīs attieksmju veidus attiecībā uz to, kas evaņģēlijos rakstīts par Jēzu – uzticēšanās, šaubas, neuzticēšanās. Šīs attieksmes izskan gan respondentu atbildes struktūrā, gan balss intonācijā. Mācībspēki, kuri ir pārliecināti par savu uzskatu (un starp tiem ir gan tie, kuri uzticas, gan tie, kuri neuzticas Jēzus teiktajam par sevi), savu atbildi visbiežāk sniedz uzreiz bez ilgas apdomāšanās. Mācībspēki, kuri šaubās un nav vēl izveidojuši savu personīgo pārliecību, savu atbildi uz jautājumu bieži iesāka ar nopūtu vai kādu vispārīgu frāzi „*nu tas ir pagrūtāk jau*” vai „*tā, jāatceras, kas bija rakstīts*”. Šaubas raksturo jautājumi, kas, sniedzot atbildi, tiek uzdoti sev vai intervētājam. Lauras atbildē: „*Jēzus ir Dieva dēls. Nu būtībā, ja tā skatās, tas ir vidutājs starp Dievu un cilvēku. Tātad tas ir ceļš pie Dieva. Tā mēs varam teikt? Varam!*” un Centa atbildē: „*Saprotu, ka tas ir Dieva Dēls. Vai ne? Apstiprini, ja es saku pareizi. Baidos kļūdīties. Kurš... viss, kas saistās... ka Viņš piedzima Ziemassvētkos, vai ne? Bija tā vai nebija tā?*”. Dažkārt sākotnējā atbilde

izklausās kā pilnīga pārlicība par savu viedokli, bet atbildes turpinājumu raksturo šaubas. Piemēram, Emīlija atbildēja: „*Es domāju, ka tas ir mīts, ja godīgi. Kā var tur kaut, krustā piekalt, dzīvot, mirt celties. Neticu tam. Nu vot es nezinu.*” Un lai arī šķiet, ka Emīlija tikko skaidri paudusi savu pārlicību, ka Jēzus persona ir mīts, viņas atbildes turpinājums skan šādi, „*Es nezinu, es neesmu arī lasījusi par to, man nav laika arī bijis lasīt un man nav viedokļa par šo. Jo šīs lietas – es tiešām, es neesmu stipra šajās lietās.*” Tādā veidā redzams, ka Emīlijai joprojām ir šaubas par evaņģēlijos atklāto Jēzu, un nav pilnībā izveidojusies pārlicība par to, ka Jēzus ir mīts. Tikai viens no mācībspēkiem, kurš brīvi dalījās savā viedoklī par citiem jautājumiem, nebija īpaši atvērts un gatavs runāt par jautājumiem, kas saistīti ar kristietību. Uz jautājumu par Jēzu viņš vispār nevēlējās atbildēt un dalīties savās domās, lūdzot pāriet uz nākamo jautājumu. Iespējams, ka tas saistīts ar Padomju laikos ieaudzināto uzskatu, ka par ticības lietām vai reliģisko pārlicību labāk atklāti nerunāt, vai arī ar bailēm parādīt nezināšanu, kļūdīties savā atbildē. Ir mācībspēki, kas izveidojuši savu priekšstatu par Jēzu, kas nesaskan ar evaņģēlijos atspoguļoto Jēzus personu, piemēram, „*Jēzus bija viens no šiem, nu varētu pat droši vien nosaukt kā zemākas pakāpes dievība. Dieva Dēls. Nu ja Dievs Tēvs pats augstākais, tad Jēzus ir atkal viens no zemākas pakāpes Dieviem*”. Ir sastopams priekšstats par Jēzu kā pasaku tēlu, kurš „*nesis upuri cilvēku labā, ļāvis sist sevi krustā*”, un priekšstats par Jēzu kā ļoti veiksmīgu cilvēku, kurš „*ar ļoti lieliem panākumiem sludināja kristīgo ticību*”. Arī tie mācībspēki, kuri nav izveidojuši personīgo pārlicību par to, kas ir Jēzus vai kuru pārlicība par Jēzu nesaskan ar evaņģēlijos atspoguļoto Jēzus personu, zināja nosaukt kādus no evaņģēlijos aprakstītajiem faktiem par Jēzu, piemēram, Dieva Dēls, krustā sišana, augšāmcelsšanās, aklā dziedināšana, ļaužu pabarošana. Lielākā daļa aptaujāto mācībspēku atzīst, ka savas zināšanas par Jēzu ir balstījuši uz faktiem, kas gūti televīzijā, filmās, no dziesmām un citām tradīcijām, kas saistītas ar Ziemassvētku un Lieldienu svinēšanu, no citiem cilvēkiem (skolā, svētdienas skolā, iesvētes mācībās u.c.) un no bērnu Bībeles. Lielākā daļa ir pašķirstījuši Bībeli vai lasījuši kādus tās fragmentus un tikai daži no aptaujātajiem mācībspēkiem paši izlasījuši Bībeli vai lasa to regulāri. Aptaujāto pasniedzēju vidū ir tikai daži, kuri savās atbildēs pauž arī personīgu uzticēšanos Jēzum Kristus, piemēram, „*tas ir tas Jēzus Kristus ar ko mēs rēķināmies, ar ko mēs varam aprunāties, kas mūs aizstāv, kas mūs uzklausā un tā tālāk*” un „*Jēzus ir paņēmis mūsu grēkus, manus grēkus un tāpēc es esmu pestīta*”.

### **Secinājumi** **Conclusions**

LSPA mācībspēku garīguma skaidrojumā atspoguļojas gan garīguma aspekti, kas izriet no Dieva tēla un līdzības cilvēkā jeb cilvēcīguma, gan tie

garīguma aspekti, kas ietver attiecības ar Dievu caur ticību Kristum un veidošanos Kristus līdzībā jeb svētumu. Lai arī mācībspēki vairāk uzsver nepieciešamību augstskolas studiju procesā veicināt cilvēcīgumu, tie atzīst arī nepieciešamību dot iespēju studentiem augstskolā veicināt izaugsmi attiecībās ar Dievu un arī šajā aspektā atbalstīt studentu garīgos meklējumus.

LSPA mācībspēki uzskata, ka studiju procesā ir iespējams veicināt garīgumu un to ir nepieciešams darīt, taču redzams, ka mācībspēkiem ir mulsums par dažādajiem garīguma aspektiem un tie atzīst kompetences trūkumu garīguma veicināšanā.

Ateistiskās audzināšanas vēsture Latvijā cilvēkos atstājusi savus nospiedumus tādā ziņā, ka sarunās ar mācībspēkiem par garīgumu un kristietības tēmām brīžiem bija jūtama piesardzība un bīklums. Saskaņā ar biblisko izpratni par garīgumu lielākā daļa aptaujāto mācībspēku savas personības attīstībā atrodas nevis garīguma stāvoklī, bet gan pirmsgarīgumā. Lielai daļai aptaujāto mācībspēku ir virspusējas zināšanas par Jēzu Kristu, kas ne tikai kavē to, ka mācībspēki, kuri uzskata sevi par kristiešiem, varētu iepazīt Jēzu Kristu personīgi, bet tas var arī traucēt bibliskā garīguma veicināšanu kristīgajos augstskolas studentos, lai palīdzētu tiem holistiski attīstīties kā personībām.

## **Summary**

Personal development and holistic education is topical in the 21<sup>st</sup> century in all stages of education and spirituality is an integral part of holistic education, although a very complex construct to explain and develop during the process of education. In this research we have explored the views of the teaching staff of the Latvian Academy of Sport Education (LASE) regarding their understanding of spirituality, possibilities to enhance spirituality of students during their study process and teaching staff's attitude toward Biblical spirituality.

The teaching staff's explanations of spirituality reflect both; the dimension of spirituality that is God's image in humans (humanity) and the dimension of spirituality that is relationship with God through faith in Christ (holiness). Although the teaching staff emphasize the necessity to enhance humanity, during the study process in higher education, they acknowledge the necessity to give students the opportunity to enhance their growth in relationship with God as well.

LASE teaching staff think that it is possible to develop spirituality in higher education and it should be a requisite. However, we observed that teaching staff become confused due to the various dimensions of spirituality and they acknowledge the lack of competence in spiritual fostering.

Atheistic education in Latvia during the Soviet occupation has affected people in the sense that conversations about spirituality and Christianity are perceived timidly and with caution at times. According to the Biblical understanding of spirituality, most of the interviewed teaching staff in their personal development have not moved to the stage

of spirituality, but live in pre-spirituality. Most of the interviewed teaching staff have superficial knowledge about Jesus Christ. Lack of knowledge is a hindrance to having personal knowledge of Jesus Christ (for those who consider themselves Christians) and it may interfere in fostering of Biblical spirituality in Christian students to help them develop their personality in a holistic manner.

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## JOINT PROJECTS – EFFECTIVE TOOLS FOR FACILITATING THE DEVELOPMENT OF GLOBAL EDUCATIONAL PROCESSES

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**Abstract.** Contemporary educational processes have to be in tune with the increasing global tendencies. All the world countries strive to unite under the umbrella term “global village”, which implies interconnected and almost unified political, economic, cultural, juridical and even educational spheres of life. Special grave challenges are faced by contemporary post-Soviet countries. They have to undergo the post-communist era, to struggle for the survival via radical correctional policy and to interweave globally oriented as well as capitalistically oriented strategies. The greatest challenge is posed to the educational sphere. Many post-Soviet higher educational institutions strive to join the European Higher Education Area. The given institutions try to interflow for the genuine overcoming of the existed “insurmountable” barriers. They consolidate collaboration and cooperation on different research and educational programs. Many newly-created joint projects appear and “play a key role in creating the rightful architecture of modern society. A central point in this process is the enquiry to identify... most urgent problems in national educational systems” (Pourtskhvanidze, 2016), to determine the strategies of functioning in multilingual society and to create a universal educational model of post-communist area via finding a balance between national and worldly.

The given paper presents innovative university projects, which belong to two different worlds: the highly developed capitalistic world (Italian international project “Linguaggi e attività Produttive,”) and post-Soviet “capitalistically-directed” space (Georgian-Ukrainian “DIMTEGU”). “Linguaggi e attività Produttive,,” and “DIMTEGU” have different nature and individual ways of development. However, both of them present innovative mechanisms of the preservation of multiculturalism and plurilingualism. The promotion of multiculturalism, facilitation of the preservation of plurilingualism, introduction of multilingual teacher education, development of appropriate curricula and teaching materials, suggestion of the fruitful ways of the adaptation to the global challenges – these are the major issues of our paper and crucial problems of today’s educational world.

**Keywords:** globalization, multiculturalism, plurilingualism/multilingualism, project.

## Introduction

“If climate change is the key process in the natural world impacting on sustainable development, then globalisation is the parallel process in the human world, creating both opportunities for, and barriers to, sustainable development...” (“Globalisation,” n. d.). Globalization has accelerated since the 50s of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and has significantly effected almost all spheres of life. Nowadays, all the world countries strive to unite under the umbrella term “global village”, which implies interconnected and almost unified political, economic, cultural, juridical and educational spheres of life. Scholars even single out a term “cultural globalization”, which denotes “the connections among languages, ways of living, and fears of global homogeneity through the spread of North American and European languages and culture” (“What is globalization?” n. d.). However, on the background of a sustainable tendency of homogeneity and uniformity, a cultural diversity acquires a global value. It becomes a prerequisite of a lingual diversity via promoting the revitalization of the world languages and via fostering their intense usage. All these processes are partially monitored by the global educational processes promoting internationalizing policies. The given policies are associated with a great variety of international programs, grants, strategies, which are oriented on the preservation of multiculturalism and plurilingualism. Promotion of multiculturalism, facilitation of the preservation of plurilingualism, introduction of multilingual teacher education, development of appropriate curricula and teaching materials, suggestion of the fruitful ways of the adaptation to the global challenges – these are the major issues of our paper and crucial problems of today’s world. Our research is oriented on the presentation of innovative strategies which have been carried out at several universities by means of the implementation of “*DIMTEGU*” (the project initiated by Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University) and “*Linguaggi e attività Produttive*,” (the project initiated by the University of Bologna). Significant future-oriented (planned to be implemented in future) policies are also revealed and discussed.

## Joint Projects

„Internationalisation of higher education is the process of integrating an international/intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of the institution” (Wit, 1998). The essence of internationalization is mainly associated with a great variety of mobility/exchange programs, foreign grants, market-oriented strategies, etc. The less attention is paid to those multilateral projects, which sometimes become milestones of the internationalization of higher education via merging foreign and local or via detaching national and intercultural. These merging and detaching processes

reflect the contemporary global demands and highlight the importance of internationally oriented projects. Their credit is becoming higher than that of mobility programs, because foreign education may ignite the confrontation with one's own culture.

The given paper presents innovative university projects, which belong to two different worlds: the Italian international project "*Linguaggi e attività Produttive*," represents the highly developed capitalistic world, while the Georgian-Ukrainian "*DIMTEGU*" belongs to the post-Soviet "capitalistically-directed" space. "*Linguaggi e attività Produttive*," and "*DIMTEGU*" have different natures and individual ways of development. However, they present innovative mechanisms of the preservation of multiculturalism and plurilingualism. The given projects have a significant impact on teaching processes, because "plurilingualism defines the language policy of the Council of Europe, and is a fundamental principal of language education policies in Europe and elsewhere in the world" (Grigule, 2011).

"*Linguaggi e attività Produttive*," has a twofold (linguistic-juridical) nature and aims at comparing the regulation of the domain *HSW* (*Health and Safety at Work*) by legal systems of Italy, UK, Germany and France. The analyses given in the project are not limited to the linguistic level. They are oriented on the cultural differences and on the constant evolution of European legislation. The major essence of "*Linguaggi e attività Produttive*," lies in the fact that it aims at providing a *knowledge base* containing three independent components:

- "a quadrilingual (Italian, English, French, German) terminological database;
- a library of sources, i.e. a collection of legal texts on HSW for different systems involved" ("EOHS Term," n. d.).
- "a collection of concept diagrams, i.e. graphic representations of the domain structure which can help the users get a clearer view of the relations existing between concepts" ("EOHS Term," n. d.).

The uniqueness of "*Linguaggi e attività Produttive*," lies in the originality of "concept mapping" (creation of concept diagrams) initiating the digitalization of the linguistic data. The same unique method of terminological studies was presented at the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century by Georgian Professor Manana Chirakadze and a group of her followers. At this moment, there is a tendency of the creation of a new project at Tbilisi State University. It will be oriented on the building of a multilingual corpus comprising at least five languages (Georgian, Russian, English, French, German) and different juridical domains: law of succession, trust law, property law, etc. The process of the creation of the project will present some aspects of the Italian experience and a mixture of purely Georgian elements (*the creation of thesauruses, new Georgian lexical units, etc.*). It will comprise the following major stages:



- **Gathering the concepts related to a particular semantic field** i.e. the creation of a *concept-base*;
- **The creation of concept maps (“derivational trees”)** for different languages;
- **Nomination of each concept with an appropriate lexical unit** i.e. the creation of a *term-base* for each language;
- **Creation of a thesaurus for each term-base**;
- **Comparative analysis of the data of different languages** i.e. investigation of similarities and differences of single concepts and relationships between the items of “*derivational trees*” representing different languages;
- **Finding out gaps of a term-base of the Georgian language** according to the data of other languages;
- **Filling gaps** – filling each gap of a *term-base* with a newly-created Georgian lexical unit;
- **Definitions** – writing definitions of newly-created terms;
- **Attachment of Georgian, Russian, English, French and German legal texts** for the identification of the terms of a *term-base*;
- **Creation of the multilingual dictionary** comprising newly-created Georgian items.

The implementation of the given project will have important outcomes. The uniqueness of its methodology lies in the originality of “*concept mapping*” (*derivational tree*) initiating the digitalization of the linguistic data. Each unit of the corpus represents a strongly-defined element of a particular semantic field and becomes easily identifiable during the comparison of the data of different languages. Such system of identification acquires the greatest importance during the digital era - the world visibility of the Georgian language is increased and its enrichment with newly-created terms raises its value, international circulation and competitiveness. Moreover, “corpus linguistics looks at language from a social perspective” (McEnery & Hardie, 2012). It focuses on meaning. “Meaning is what is being verbally communicated between members of discourse society” (McEnery & Hardie, 2012). For this reason, the implementation of corpus-based studies and projects becomes the latest trend in Georgia. It plays an utmost role in the development of Georgian lingual landscape, which strives to reach global interconnectedness via the maintenance of individuality.

The greatest attention must be paid to the project **DIMTEGU** (“*Development and Introduction of Multilingual Education Programs at Universities of Georgia and Ukraine*”), which was initiated and coordinated by Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University during 2012-2016. The major goal of the given project was the support of the multilingual education reform in Georgia and Ukraine through the

multistage activities. The given activities considered particular prerequisites, for instance: “the establishing of peculiar awareness to multilingualism as the way of life; The recovering of deficits and needs of the certain education system regarding multilingualism and adaptation of given social reality in it; The creation of certain educational model, which is fitted within the language relations of the society...” (Pourtskhvanidze, 2016). The consideration of the given prerequisites resulted in the creation of the following multifaceted strategies of the development of the project:

1. Creation of syllabi and frame curriculum for multilingual education programs;
2. Piloting and introduction of BA and MA multilingual education programs;
3. Development of the Moodle platform and web-sites for the given courses;
4. Equipping higher educational institutions with sufficient, up-to-date teaching materials and equipment;
5. Organization of trainings (for the members of the faculties) considering:
  - “Module I: Teaching methods;
  - Module II: Development of syllabus;
  - Module III: Multilingual/Multicultural Education” (“DIMTEGU,” n. d.);
6. The equipment of libraries of Georgian and Ukrainian universities with computers and modern teaching materials;
7. Translation of 20 textbooks on multilingual and international education into the Georgian and Ukrainian languages;
8. Providing public schools of Georgia and Ukraine with qualified teachers (preparation and training of 400 in-service teachers from Georgia and Ukraine), etc.

Besides the above-mentioned strategies, we have to focus on one of the major outcomes of *DIMTEGU* - the facilitation of the implementation of multilingual education in Georgia. Generally, “multilingual education refers to the use of two or more languages as mediums of instruction, as defined by UNESCO” (Schulter, 2011). Multilingual schools have already become a feature of Europe's diverse and complex linguistic landscape. The same cannot be said about Georgia. This country lacks subject teachers at multilingual schools, which are located in the regions compactly settled by the ethnic minorities (Armenians and Azerbaijanis). *DIMTEGU* has tried to solve the given problem - it has implemented one-year program (60 ECTS) of multilingual education, which trains functioning bilingual teachers of non-Georgian schools. An additional priority of one-year program is training graduates with BA degree and giving

them an opportunity of working at multilingual schools (Georgia's current legislation does not allow citizens with BA degree to occupy a teacher's position) of remote villages. Therefore, one of the major outcomes of *DIMTEGU* is the increase of the quality of teacher education, which "is among one of the topical keywords in political discourse, scientific research and implementation process of teaching practices" (Bethere et al., 2016).

It is also worth mentioning, that during the last decades, there has been almost no experience in the field of multilingual education in Georgia and Ukraine. *DIMTEGU* has brought positive changes in this respect. Besides facilitating progressive educational strategies, it founded "International Electronic Journal of Multilingual Education" (IJME), which is oriented on advancing knowledge of theory, research and practice in the fields of multilingual and multicultural education and language acquisition. The journal supports dissemination of knowledge about bilingual education, facilitates effective introduction of multilingual educational programs in general educational system and promotes the development of bilingual education as an interdisciplinary scientific field. IJME is indexed in different international databases. The given fact has an outstanding importance, because indexing has become the latest tendency in post-Soviet Georgia, which strives to promote advanced western strategies.

An additional significance of *DIMTEGU* lies in the fact, that all the activities carried out in Georgia and Ukraine have been monitored by the prominent European universities (*Goethe University of Frankfurt, Freiburg University of Education, University of Latvia, Vilnius University*). Moreover, the Georgian and Ukrainian teachers and staff were trained by the representatives of the same higher education institutions. During the training courses the trainees got acquainted with the latest European achievements in the fields of bilingualism, multilingual education, overall structure of effective curricula and syllabi, student-centered and problem-based teaching methods, usage of technologies in teaching processes, administration of diversity and multiculturalism in education, etc. Consideration and comprehension of European achievements mean a lot for the post-Soviet reality, because the given attitude to the implementation of the educational reforms leads to proper, rapid and well-defined outcomes. The results of *DIMTEGU* have already been successfully implemented in Georgian/Ukrainian higher education institutions (*BA and MA programs and curriculum, libraries and classrooms equipped with up-to-date teaching materials and equipment...*) and secondary schools (*teaching materials and well-trained teachers ready for the usage of innovative methods of teaching*). In Georgia the major beneficiaries of multilingual educational programs are Armenian and Azerbaijani citizens who live in remote villages and who have a poor knowledge of the state language. Acquisition of the Georgian language is a

prerequisite of their successful integration into the Georgian public life. Therefore, the main beneficiaries of the programs created by **DIMTEGU** will maintain their language and ethnicity on the background of integrational processes. This is one of the unique examples of the preservation of plurilingualism and its consequent multiculturalism, because “language, like culture, is community specific and is intricately interwoven with the culture it represents” (Pai, 2005). Besides a vivid attempt of the maintenance of the multiethnicity of Georgia’s population, **DIMTEGU** “struggles” for the raise of the value, local circulation and competitiveness of the Georgian language. Moreover, it pays a particular attention “to the field of teacher education that is considered as one of the most important factors influencing the quality of education” (Bethere et al., 2016). The given threefold nature doubles the merits of **DIMTEGU**.

### Conclusions

“Internationalization in higher education is an inevitable result of the globalized and knowledge-based economy of the 21<sup>st</sup> century” (Altbach & Teichler, 2001). It “invades” majority of educational institutions of the world. The gravest challenges are faced by contemporary post-Soviet universities, which undergo the post-communist era, struggle for the survival via radical correctional policy and interweave globally and capitalistically oriented strategies. Tbilisi State University is one of the post-Soviet higher educational institutions. It consolidates collaboration and cooperation on different research and educational programs. Tbilisi State University relies on the implementation of joint international projects, which foster the fruitful ways of the adaptation to the global challenges. The above discussed **DIMTEGU** promotes the reformation and modernization of post-Soviet higher educational institutions, facilitates the preservation of multilingualism, introduces multilingual teacher education strategies, fosters the development of appropriate curricula and teaching materials, etc. In contrast to **DIMTEGU**, the planned project of multilingual corpus is mainly oriented on the enrichment and popularization of the Georgian language. It presents innovative mechanisms of the preservation of plurilingualism and multiculturalism, because the enrichment of any language prolongs the existence of its related culture. Moreover, the implementation of corpus-based studies and projects becomes the latest trend in Georgia. It plays an utmost role in the development of Georgian lingual landscape, which strives to reach global interconnectedness via the maintenance of individuality.

Therefore, the highlighted projects can serve as exemplary and useful models of progress for those post-Soviet universities of the world, which strive to create universal educational-research models of post-communist area via finding a

balance between national and worldly. The major value of the projects is their up-to-date character, which is revealed in the meeting the crucial requirements of the Council of Europe (the principles presented in the preamble to Recommendation R (82) 18 of the Committee of Ministers):

- “rich heritage of diverse languages and cultures in Europe is a valuable common resource to be protected and developed... major educational effort is needed to convert that diversity from a barrier to communication into a source of mutual enrichment” (Recommendation No. R (82) 18 of the Committee of Ministers to Member States Concerning Modern Languages, 1982).

### Summary

Today the world countries strive to unite under the umbrella term “global village”, which implies interconnected and almost unified spheres of life. The gravest challenges are faced by the contemporary post-Soviet educational spaces. Internationalization and modernization - these are the major tendencies, which have to be in tune with the preservation of plurilingualism and multiculturalism. The discussion of *DIMTEGU* clearly reveals that Tbilisi State University tries to keep up-to-date on the recent tendencies via implementing international projects serving as effective tools for facilitating the development of global educational processes. Besides already-implemented projects, there is the orientation on the creation of a multilingual corpus comprising several languages and different juridical domains. These tendencies reveal the development of the Georgian higher educational space and its aspiration towards the establishment of western-oriented strategies. All the gained results serve as significant tools for the maintenance of plurilingualism and multiethnicity. Georgian models of joint projects can become exemplary samples for other higher education institutions of post-Soviet area, because they represent “newly-built bridges” between local and global. Moreover, these projects raise the competitiveness of post-communist space via effective promotion of global educational processes.

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# DEALING WITH DIFFERENCES IN ACADEMIC STANDARDS AND LEARNING PRACTICES AMONG INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS AS PART OF UNIVERSITY SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

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**Abstract.** *The focus of the present research is international students' adaptation in the academic environment. The working hypothesis is that there exists a gap between international students' perception of the university policy dealing with academic problems and university (international office, student council, and teaching staff) vision of the same issue. The current research employs the following methods: the monographic (literature review) method and series of semi-structured interviews (20 interviews with international students, seven interviews with university lectures who deal with these students on a daily basis), and an in-depth interview with the university vice rector. The research questions are: (1) What are the key factors of the international graduate students' academic adjustment in Turība University? (2) What is the role of the university in assuring international students' academic integration? The results are interpreted qualitatively, using the method of inductive thematic analysis.*

**Keywords:** *internationalization of education, international students, academic challenges, university social responsibility.*

## Introduction

The world of higher education has been transforming rapidly. Among the key drivers of change, it is possible to mention such factors as advanced communication and technological services, increased international mobility, emphasis on the market and its liberalization, focus on knowledge society, increased private investment and decreased public support for higher education. (Knight, 2004) It leads to the internationalization of higher education. International students' enrolment in higher education establishments in Latvia has expanded considerably within last few years. It is caused by two main factors: the general tendency of internationalization of education (mobility by students and professors), by growing competition among the higher education institutions in Latvia (due to demographic and economic reasons). According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics' (UIS) Global Education Digest (2006), an internationally mobile student has left his or her country, or territory of origin, and moved to

another country or territory with the singular objective of studying. Since they come from different cultural, political and educational backgrounds, they inevitably encounter difficulties in their academic, social, and culture adaptation. This brings forth the question about ways the universities deal with these problems. In general, there are two main approaches: (1) day-to-day issue solving, and (2) university social responsibility program. The focus of the present research is international students' adaptation in the academic environment. The working hypothesis is that there exists a gap between international students' perception of the university policy dealing with academic problems and university (international office, student council, and teaching staff) vision of the same issue. The current research employs the following methods: the monographic (literature review) method and series of semi-structured interviews (20 interviews with international students, seven interviews with university lectures who deal with these students on a daily basis), and an in-depth interview with the university vice rector. The results are interpreted qualitatively, using the method of inductive thematic analysis. (Braun & Clarke, 2006)

### **Literature Review**

The main three clusters of the theoretical concepts related to the theme of the present article are student mobility and internationalization of education; university social responsibility and stakeholder theory; teaching international students and academic performance.

N. V. Varghese states that cross-border higher education has become an important mode of the internationalization of the higher education, as this comprises such factors as providers of education (universities and instructors), programs, course materials, teachers and students moving beyond national boundaries. One of the most important components of the cross-border education is students' movement away from their home countries and adaptation in the host country and host university. (Varghese, 2008) The latter aspect is of a special interest in the context of our current research, since students' mobility entails a growing social, cultural, and academic role on the part of the hosting university. J. Knight has provided an overview of the concepts and definitions related to the internationalization of education. She admits, that the decisive drivers of the process are the development of the modern means of communication and technological services (this implies possibility to enter university in other country while staying at home, as well as to participate in webinars, group discussions, etc.); increased staff mobility (for example, within ERASMUS + mobility programs); emphasis on market economy (increased levels of private investments and shrinking support for public education); focus on the knowledge society (new for forms of knowledge acquisition). (Knight, 2004) The institutions can devise



and implement programs within their internationalization strategies: student exchange programs, foreign language study, internationalized curricula, area or thematic studies, work/study abroad, international students, teaching/learning process, joint degree programs, double degree programs, cross-cultural training, faculty and staff mobility, visiting lecturers and scholars, and establishing links between academic programs and other strategies. (Knight, 2007) The student mobility may be for shorter (a few weeks) or longer terms (half year or full year), students are enrolled in studies at the host institution and study alongside their discipline peers. This creates a number of questions: What do students take away from their experience overseas? How educational is that? Is the overseas experience transformative or simply a matter of translocating the student? What practices or processes used in mobility program help to make the experience more than just 'educational tourism'? What indeed is the 'take home' learning for students who participate in student mobility programs? (Richardson & Munday, 2013) According to H. Wu and others, students have to deal with different challenges – the academic (language proficiency, different teaching styles, note taking, etc.) the social (as simple as everyday habits) and the cultural ones. (Wu et. al., 2015) Helping to overcome these barriers, in our opinion, should be a part of the university social responsibility agenda.

The university social responsibility is perceived as a philosophy of a university as an ethical approach to develop and engage with the local and global community in order to sustain the social, ecological, environmental, technical, and economic development. (Chen et al., 2015) A. Esfijani and others have identified seven main elements of USR that are important to attempt any research in the field; they are engagement, education, research, service, ethics, transparency, stakeholders. (Esfijani et al., 2013) Among the desired outcomes of the university social responsibility, we can mention the following ones: community of scholars and learners, educated graduates who exhibit excellent leadership skills and concern for the environment and the societal well-being. (Knowledge Societies: Universities and their Social Responsibilities, 2011) A number of researchers stress the importance of stakeholder approach when talking about the university social responsibility. (Jongbloed et al., 2008; Mainardes et al., 2010) Stakeholders are any group who can affect or is affected by the achievement of organization's objectives, any constituencies in the organization's external environment that are affected by organization's decisions and actions. Among the stakeholder groups directly affected by the university activities are students, employees, competition. (Maric, 2013) In our opinion, international students form a very specific stakeholder group that has particular demands, interests and networks that need strong management. The first step towards that kind of management is identification of their needs.

Internationalization of education brings forth a broad range of issues related to differences in teaching and learning styles (cultures of learning), academic requirements, communication styles, grading systems, etc. There is various research devoted to exploration of these themes. They can be summarized in the following way:

Adapting to new academic environment and university culture (Valka, 2015; Floyd, 2015; Chen et. al., 2009) The main aspects of the acculturation are academic adjustment that refers to the degree of a student's coping with various educational demands; social adjustment that describes how well students deal with the group assignments and project works; personal and emotional adjustment scale indicates the level of distress when adapting to the academic environment; attachment reflects the degree of commitment to the institutional goals. (Rienties et. al., 2012; Wu et. al, 2015; Eze & Ingebedion, 2015)

Learning strategies that can be classified as the subject-matter specific and the general, where the former implies concentration upon particular problems, but the latter – rather general and interconnected perspective. (Li et. al, 2010) This also implies the development of critical thinking – critical analysis or literature and independent writing, as well as not relying on the professors' viewpoint solely. (Chen et. al., 2009; McLean & Ransom, 2005)

Learning tactics – understanding requirements (written and/or oral), note taking, preparing presentations, and participation in seminars. International students may experience difficulties in understanding assessment principles (grading system), obscure assignment titles and instructions. (Ridley, 2014; Valka, 2015; He & Banham, 2009)

All researchers stress language proficiency requirement. Without it, it is virtually impossible to follow professors' instructions and be successful academically. (Floyd, 2015; Hagedorn & Ren, 2012)

Difficulties dealing with administrative issues (registration for study courses at the beginning of the semester, receiving assessment papers at the end of the course). (Valka, 2015) Of course, there is a difference among short-term exchange (including ERASMUS) students and full-time international students, since exchange students attend a set of particular courses within different group settings, while full-time students are engaged in the regular study activities.

J. Ren and L. S. Hagedorn conducted a survey on the international graduate and postgraduate students' academic performance. Contrary to the undergraduates, they already have previous study experience in their home country higher education institutions, so they have to readjust to already higher academic requirements. (Ren & Hagedorn, 2012)

Other important factors that affect international students' academic success are related to teaching styles and structure of presentation materials, as well as to students' introduction to alternative research methodologies. According to

R. M. Lebcir, H. Wells and A. Bond the academic performance model consists three main elements – teaching style; English language and communication, as well as assessment methods. (Lebcir et. al., 2008) J. Ryan’s research is devoted to the ‘gaps’ in understanding. She concluded that lecturers sometimes view international students as homogeneous group with similar learning styles and expectations. (Ryan, 2005)

Overall, researchers suggest that further studies are necessary in order to improve international students’ academic competitiveness that would lead to the higher learning and research standards of the host universities themselves.

## **Methodology**

*Research design.* Qualitative methods were adopted for the current research because the purpose of this study was to understand in depth the issue of the role university plays in international students’ academic adaptation. This article is based on the small-scale research at a largest private university in Latvia – “Turība”. Therefore, we conducted a student survey with open-ended questions. Twenty students were identified as a homogenous sample (i.e., exhibiting similar characteristics). (Zikmund et al., 2013; Mason, 2002) This particular group was chosen because of their previous experience on the undergraduate level in their respective home higher education institutions. Using non-probability purposive sampling, the representativeness was limited in this study. The aim of the current research was not to make extrapolations based on the representative sample, but rather – to identify the critical aspects of academic adaptation and work out specific and targeted solutions. The participants were from such countries as Uzbekistan, Azerbaijan, India, Sri-Lanka, Congo, Egypt, Nigeria, and Turkey. To complement students’ experience we conducted seven semi-structured interviews with lecturers engaged in the process of teaching international students. To discuss findings of the surveys and the university position regarding difficulties in the academic adaptation we conducted an in-depth interview with the Vice-Rector for Study Development and International Cooperation of the university.

*Data collection and analysis.* Students were handed out questionnaires with open-ended questions, they were asked to fill out them anonymously, and the students were assured of the confidentiality of data. The questionnaire consisted of six questions related to differences in teaching styles, in academic requirements, their proficiency in English, their prior academic experience, pressures to excel, and interaction with lecturers. Students were assured of the confidentiality of data, and their full consent was received prior to the survey. The semi-structured interviews took place in the offices of the respective interviewees. They consisted of three questions regarding problems regarding the academic standards and teaching practices in Latvia, causes of the academic difficulties and

suggestions how to overcome them. The in-depth interview was recorded and transcribed. Data analysis was qualitative; the themes were developed inductively from the data through the cyclical process of coding and revisiting the questionnaire responses and interview transcripts. Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data. A theme captures something important about the data regarding the research questions. The thematic analysis consists of several phases: transcribing data, coding interesting features, colliding codes into potential themes and interpretation. (Braun & Clarke, 2006) The repeating patterns in the current research that were coded accordingly were: teaching style in the host university in comparison with the home universities; differences in academic requirements and evaluation systems; the language proficiency issues; the role of the students' previous academic experience; the day-to-day interaction with professors. Conclusions were made based on the juxtaposition of students' lecturers' and administration's opinions upon the themes inferred from the data. We put forward two research questions:

RQ 1: What are the key factors of the international graduate students' academic adjustment in Turiba University?

RQ 2: What is the role of the university in assuring international students' academic integration?

## **Research and Discussion**

The findings of graduate student survey demonstrated that international students face a number of issues while studying abroad. The survey consisted of six open-ended questions. The analysis was carried out in an inductive manner, the main themes were identified within each question.

The first question was about the differences in teaching styles in the students' home university and the host university in Latvia and about difficulties, they encounter academically. The answers rendered three main streams of arguments. (1) Teaching in the University is perceived to be of more practical nature than in the respondents' home universities. Let us mention one of the exemplary answers: "Yes. There is much difference in the teaching style. In my country, it is mainly theoretically orientated. In Latvia it is practically orientated. Here we have to do many projects, presentations which help us to develop our presentation skills." In general, students do not perceive this practical orientation as barrier to their academic achievements, although they note that not always they clearly understand professors' instructions and evaluation criteria. "But I think that in my university we receive much more new information than here and also the exams are more difficult." (2) Communication with professors in the Latvian University is quite informal, there is no power distance. As a negative feature, respondents mention the lack of communication in-between lectures. "So our doubts remain

unsolved. In India one can express any doubts to the lecturer between the classes.” So, we can see that although the communication form during lectures encourage students’ participation and active engagement, they feel lack of guidance and left to their own devices, that can affect their academic performance. (3) Students expressed their opinion about the form of instruction. In general, they were quite content with it; nevertheless, they stressed differences, such as use of presentations instead of written tests and examinations that require specific skills, that not all international students exhibit. The solution, according to students could be organization a set of introductory lectures. Overall, students tended to see group work as positively stimulating activity. “Yes, there are many group activities. They make us closer and let to understand lessons more clearly.” Some of the respondents were concerned with the length of lectures. Our conclusion here is that the instructor has to be aware of different pace and endurance of the students in the group.

The second question of the survey was about possible differences in academic requirements in students’ home universities and in Turiba University. The answers can be divided in three thematic groups. (1) There are students that did not admit any differences, saying that the systems are similar. (2) Differences in the grading system, because in some countries 100-point system is used, whereas in others students are evaluated according to 5-point system in comparison with Latvian 10-point system. Students expressed the wish for better and more precise explanation of the grading requirements in the beginning of the course. (3) Students found differences in the testing system – students have to go through the series of tests during the semester, while in their home country they have only mod-semester testing. Interestingly enough, none of the respondents regarded this as a barrier, rather – they were talking about necessity to develop presentation skills.

The third question was about the role of English proficiency in reaching their academic goals. The answers were uniform – all students admitted that their English skills are satisfactory for following lectures and participating in seminars. One student though pointed out that sometimes lecturers’ English were not so good to rely all necessary information. There is no reason for doubting the truthfulness of answers; we have to conclude that perhaps the questions should have been more specific, related to specific activities (e.g. note taking, participation in discussions, understanding assignments, etc.)

In the fourth question, the stress was on the role of graduate students’ previous academic experience. Most of the students answered that knowledge they have gained during their bachelor studies was enough to continue their studies on the next level, apart from a few cases when students changed their specialization from computer sciences to business administration. However, the

situation would be the same with the local students if they changed their specialization.

The fifth question was regarding pressures from their families to excel in studies and to receive high grades. There was almost fifty-fifty divide in answers – positive and negative. Though there is no a definite proof, we can make an educated guess that students who had had previous working experience and who were paying for their studies themselves did not feel any outside pressures (“No, because I always tend to be responsible for my own life in any situation, therefore I have no any kind of pressure”), whereas students whose parents were paying their education fees, felt obliged to excel in their grades.

The sixth question was about interaction with professors. Predominantly all answers were positive – from simple statements (“Yes, they are helpful and friendly”) to longer explanations (“Yes, we can send our projects via e-mail, we can have qualified consultations from professors”). Nevertheless, a few students expressed their dissatisfaction. Although the overall tendency is positive, criticisms show that perhaps it is necessary to plan the time for short individual face-to-face consultations during the semester.

The second step of the empirical research consisted of seven semi-structured interviews with instructors who deal with the graduate students on daily basis. The interviews were taped, and after that transcribed. The instructors were asked three questions: (1) What are the main problems graduate students face academically? (2) What could be reasons for these problems? Education System? Culture differences? (3) What should the university do to solve these problems? Summing up, the answers were along the following lines. (1) International students require longer adaptation period – to the university academic environment, to professors, to their groupmates. Students have different cultural backgrounds, different time perception, that sometimes make it problematic to submit study papers on time. As well as students’ educational background is not always adequate to be successful during MBA studies. Part of the students lack IT skills that calls for slow explanation and waste of time and energy for all parties involved. One of the professors was quite critical in describing students’ attitude – they try to skip tasks, there have been even cases of plagiarism. (2) The reasons accounted for in the semi-structured interviews were culture differences, differences in education systems and academic requirements, in mentality. (3) The university has to have a special strategy dealing with international (undergraduate and graduate) students – first, students have to be tested before starting their studies (their education documents should be tested as well). In case their English level is not adequate, students have to attend language courses for a year (paid by the students themselves). If they fail again, they have to be sent home. To help students in their adaptation the university can organize company visits, invite guest lecturers, organize thematic meetings, the form of the lecture should be a

discussion, rather than an instructor's monologue. All requirements should be clearly formulated, substantiated, relied to students, professors should stick to them meticulously.

The third step of our research consisted of in-depth interview with Turiba University vice-rector for Study Development and International Cooperation. The Vice-Rector admitted that there are considerable differences in the international students' academic performance; mostly they depend on the region of origin. For example, students from the Northern Europe and Germany are highly organized and independent in their studies, their English proficiency is good. On the other hand, the students from Asia (India, Uzbekistan and other countries), as well as students from Africa (Egypt) have different cultural, as well as educational upbringing, they are coming from quite hierarchical systems (both political and family structures), they are used to control and strict guidance. When coming to Latvia, they have to be more self-organized (the university curriculum presupposes a lot of independent study work), so sometimes they might fail for this reason alone. The university responsibility would be, first, to work with every international student and, second, to prepare the teaching staff for working within the international environment. In order to accomplish the latter task, the school organizes integration and culture training seminars for teaching staff and for those who are involved with international students on daily basis. The important thing to do, according to the Vice-Rector, is to be strict regarding all academic requirements and terms, in other words, not to step down. Sometimes the international students admit also the localism and lack of international experience of the university professors. This is a problem that should be attended to urgently, and this can be a part the university social responsibility strategy.

### **Conclusions**

1. The working hypothesis that there exist a gap between students' and professors perception of their academic adjustment is proved. Students tend to see their situation rather optimistic (especially regarding their academic background and English proficiency), while their instructors detect some serious issues, that could be solved by the university intervention in the form of the university social responsibility.
2. The answer to the first research question is the following: The key factors of international graduate students' academic adaptation in the Turiba University are cultural differences (time perception, individualism vs. collectivism, power distance), differences in students' previous academic experience, study skills, insufficiently formulated requirements, professors' lack of international teaching experience.

3. The answer to the second research question is the following: The University should view international students as a stakeholder group with particular needs that can be satisfied by the means of intercultural training of all parties involved, raising intercultural awareness, approaching students on the individual basis (not as a homogenous group).

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## **РАЗВИТИЕ ВНУТРЕННЕЙ МОТИВАЦИИ УЧЕБНОЙ ДЕЯТЕЛЬНОСТИ У СТУДЕНТОВ- ФИЗКУЛЬТУРНИКОВ НА ОСНОВЕ ИСПОЛЬЗОВАНИЯ ЭВРИСТИЧЕСКИХ МЕТОДОВ В ПРЕПОДАВАНИИ КУРСА «АНАТОМИЯ»**

### ***Development of Internal Motivation of Educational Activity in Students-Athletes on the Basis of Use of Heuristic Methods in Teaching Subject „Anatomy”***

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**Abstract.** *In the article the role of heuristic methods of training in development of an intrinsic motivation of the educational activity of students of specialty „Physical culture” reveals. The methodological basis of research is constituted by pedagogical heuristics – methodology of training through own search. Content of heuristic training includes two parts: invariant which is set from the outside and is acquired by the student, and variable, created by each of them in the course of educational activity.*

*The problem of research is formulated as a question: how it is possible to strengthen an intrinsic motivation of educational activities of students during teaching subject „Anatomy”. The orientation of motivation of studying by students of subject „Anatomy” came to light by T. D. Dubovitskaya's test (reliability 0,935 (on Spirmen-Brown's formula) and 0,927 (on Cronbach's formula)). The data on change of dynamics of the academic progress of students confirming efficiency of heuristic methods are also provided in article.*

**Keywords:** *higher education; heuristic methods; motivation of educational activity.*

### **Введение Introduction**

Вопросы методологии преподавания морфологических учебных курсов, к числу которых относится «Анатомия человека», в профессиональной подготовке специалистов актуализируются в значительном ряде исследований, при этом в большей степени учеными-методистами исследованы проблемы преподавания анатомии для будущих специалистов медицинского профиля. Так, Н. В. Смольянской (2011)

охарактеризован опыт организации изучения анатомии и физиологии студентами-медиками; Б. Е. Райковым (1960) разработана методика натуралистического обучения морфологическим дисциплинам для этой же категории обучающихся; некоторые аспекты методики преподавания анатомии человека для студентов медицинских специальностей исследованы А. Г. Цыбулькиным (2010).

Однако морфологические дисциплины в системе наук о человеке играют важную роль в профессиональной подготовке не только студентов медицинских или биологических специальностей. Система знаний об анатомии человека имеет серьезную значимость для студентов, ориентированных на профессии, связанные с физической культурой и спортом – для оптимальной организации тренировочного процесса, обеспечения безопасности и эффективности физкультурных и спортивных занятий. Изучение учебного курса «Анатомия» позволяет студентам усвоить комплекс понятий, существенно важных для успешного постижения иных дисциплин, в числе которых физиология, биохимия, возрастная морфология, гигиена. Курс «Анатомия» раскрывает принципы строения и функционирования органов и систем человека, варианты их изменчивости и патологии развития, взаимосвязь теории предмета с ее прикладным использованием в сфере профессиональной деятельности.

К сожалению, специфика преподавания курса «Анатомия» для студентов, получающих профессиональную подготовку по специальности «Физическая культура», исследована не столь активно, при том, что организация образовательной работы с данной категорией студентов имеет ряд особенностей. В частности, практика свидетельствует о недостаточном уровне базовых естественнонаучных знаний у большей части обучающихся по специальности «Физическая культура», неумении гибко применять операции логического мышления, что объясняется в большинстве случаев нехваткой временного ресурса на совершенствование познавательной деятельности из-за перманентно напряженного тренировочно-соревновательного режима. Кроме того, некоторые исследователи отмечают, что у обучающихся по образовательной программе «Физическая культура» нередко сложности в постижении больших массивов теоретического материала (Крылова, 2011). Эта ситуация усугубляется тем, что изучение анатомии основывается на запоминании объемного фактического материала, заучивании обилия латинских терминов, усвоении топографии значительного количества анатомических структур и т. д. Указанные обстоятельства в большинстве случаев обуславливают отсутствие интереса к учебному предмету, нежелание углубляться в смысл изучаемого и его значимость для

собственной практической деятельности, собственного тренировочного процесса, будущей профессии.

Все вышесказанное актуализирует поиск новых способов организации учебной работы студентов-физкультурников, обуславливающих устойчивую внутреннюю учебную мотивацию и как следствие – повышение их академической успеваемости. В этом плане мы основываемся на положении о том, что фактор мотивации для продуктивного учения более силен, нежели фактор интеллекта. Данное положение способствовало выдвижению исследователями принципа мотивационного обеспечения учебного процесса (Гребенюк, 1983). Одним из эффективных путей решения данного вопроса является, по нашему мнению, использование ресурса эвристического обучения.

Все вышеозначенное определило цель нашего исследования – раскрыть роль эвристических методов обучения в развитии внутренней мотивации учения у студентов специальности «Физическая культура». В качестве объекта данного исследования выступил мотивационный комплекс личности студента в структуре его учебной деятельности. Методологическую основу исследования составляет педагогическая эвристика – методология обучения через собственный поиск обучающегося.

### **Теоретическая основа исследования** *Theoretical basis of research*

В современной науке выделяется вполне самостоятельное направление – эвристика, представляющее собой как систему теоретико-методологических знаний о творческих способностях человека, позволяющих ему обнаруживать истину не путем банального перебора разнообразных вариантов решения задачи, а продвигаясь к ее реализации наиболее кратким путем.

История применения эвристических методов обучения начинается еще со времен Сократа, который с помощью постановки специфически сформулированных вопросов и особым образом сконструированных рассуждений вел ученика к познанию истины. В эпоху Нового времени к основам эвристики обращено внимание Г. Галилея, Ф. Бэкона, Г.В. Лейбница. Так, Ф. Бэконом было обосновано применение индукции как ведущего метода решения творческих задач. Г. В. Лейбницем разработан алгоритм инженерного творчества, базирующийся на расчленении всех понятий на элементарные фрагменты, образующие «азбуку человеческих мыслей». Последующее составление этих элементов давало возможность находить бесконечное число решений. Х. Вольф и

Б. Больцано обращались к разработке методов и приемов эвристического обучения, предполагавших постановку цели и отсеивание непродуктивных векторов поиска, определение ключевой задачи в рамках решаемой проблемы, анализ известного знания, его систематизация и рефлексия, выдвижение пробных гипотез, разрешение задачи разными способами, проверка решений, селекция ценных умозаключений и их оценка.

В России в построение теории эвристики значительный вклад внес П.К. Энгельмейер, описавший эвристику применительно к изобретательству, что было названо техно-эврилогией.

Существенный вклад в разработку эвристических методов обучения внесли современные ученые: В. И. Андреев (2008), представивший в своих трудах эвристику как средство творческого саморазвития личности, А.В. Хуторской (1999; 2006), разработавший различные аспекты теории и практики эвристического обучения (в том числе при изучении естественнонаучных дисциплин), А.Д. Король (2015), создавший технологию эвристического обучения на основе диалога, и многие другие.

Согласно мнению А. В. Хуторского (2006), эвристическое обучение позволяет обучающемуся выстраивать траекторию своего образования в каждом из изучаемых предметов, создавая не только знания, но и личностные цели занятий, программы своего обучения, способы освоения изучаемых тем, формы представления и оценки образовательных результатов. Речь идет о том, что в эвристическом обучении используются так называемые задания открытого типа, которые могут иметь несколько вариантов решений. Обучающиеся сами выдвигают предположения о возможном решении проблемы и проверяют их, что нередко позволяет им получать нестандартный, личностно значимый результат.

Используемые в русле данной концепции эвристические методы определяются В.И. Андреевым как система эвристических правил деятельности педагога (методы преподавания) и деятельности обучающегося (методы учения), которые разработаны с учетом закономерностей и принципов педагогического управления и самоуправления личности в целях развития интуитивных процедур деятельности учащегося в решении творческих задач (2008). Справочные источники определяют эвристический метод обучения как организацию поисковой, творческой деятельности на основе теории поэтапного усвоения знаний и способов деятельности (Российская педагогическая энциклопедия, 1993).

## **Организация исследования** *Research design*

Как известно, ведущей особенностью эвристического обучения является создание обучающимися собственного образовательного продукта в содержательном поле осваиваемых учебных дисциплин и продвижение по индивидуальным образовательным траекториям. Понятие образовательной продукции объединяет как материализованные продукты деятельности обучающегося, представленные в виде суждений, текстов, изображений различного характера и т. п., так и трансформации его личностных свойств, происходящие в образовательном процессе.

По мнению А. В. Хуторского (1999), содержание эвристического образования объединяет в себе два компонента: *инвариантный*, задаваемый извне и осваиваемый обучающимися, и *вариативный* – создаваемый каждым обучающимся при реализации им учебной деятельности. Инвариантный компонент включает первичный учебный материал, необходимый для эвристической деятельности (необходимая информация по изучаемой дисциплине, вопросы и сформулированные проблемы по заданной теме); систему фундаментальных научных понятий и связанных с ними проблем; культурно-исторические аналоги решения проблем в отношении выделенных фундаментальных понятий и изучаемых объектов, образовательный стандарт. В инвариантное содержание эвристического образования кроме тематической составляющей входят способы познавательной (учебной и исследовательской) деятельности, которые также подлежат усвоению обучающимися. Вариативный компонент содержания эвристического образования создается самими обучающимися в процессе субъективного познания фундаментальных понятий изучаемой дисциплины и связанных с ними проблем, в ходе их продвижения к лично значимым целям, реализации различных видов деятельности. В этом случае результатом выступает образовательная продукция обучаемых, которая может быть обозначена как методологическая (личные цели, способы деятельности, программы занятий, рефлексивные результаты), когнитивная (идеи, версии, гипотезы, исследования), креативная (проекты, сочинения, конструкции, изображения и т.п.).

Согласно данной концепции, в содержании учебного курса «Анатомия» выделяется инвариантный компонент, представленный, например, такими фундаментальными объектами изучения, как костная, мышечная, сосудистая, нервная, иммунная, дыхательная, пищеварительная и др. системы человека. Инвариантное же содержание данного учебного курса в аспекте педагогической эвристики определяется применением

специфических методов обучения, обуславливающих получение от обучающихся лично значимого образовательного продукта. В числе таких методов в преподавании курса «Анатомия» для студентов-физкультурников нами применялся метод прогнозирования, эвристические ситуационные задачи, эвристическое наблюдение, метод гипотез и др.

Для реализации данных методов, в том числе и в самостоятельной работе студентов, нами разработано электронное эвристическое пособие по курсу «Анатомия», имеющее блочную конструкцию. Одна из особенностей данного пособия – возможность трансформации блоков посредством их замены, добавления или преобразования. Каждый блок содержит:

- 1) информационный материал, тематически систематизированный вокруг ключевых изучаемых объектов дисциплины;
- 2) перечень разноплановых основных проблем по теме: решенные или нерешенные проблемы науки, а также учебные, профессионально-прикладные, организационные или другие проблемы;
- 3) наиболее удачные продукты учебной деятельности студентов прошлых лет, выполненные в рамках проблематики данной темы, а также с тексты-первоисточники ученых и специалистов в этом же направлении;
- 4) задачи и ситуации, предвещающие освоение темы и вводящие в область ее проблематики, предполагающие конструирование студентом индивидуального плана работы по теме и продуцирование личных результатов в изучении дисциплины. В этом блоке есть возможность сравнения собственных работ студента с аналогами, проверить степень овладения требованиями программы курса и образовательного стандарта, получить необходимую тренировку для закрепления учебного материала, провести самооценку выполненной работы;
- 5) новые работы обучающихся-однокурсников, наиболее удачные из которых выбираются, технически обрабатываются и вносятся в пособие в виде отдельных элементов изучаемого блока.

В процессе применения в образовательном процессе данное электронное пособие дополняется новыми материалами обучающихся и специалистов. Эвристический учебник размещен на WEB-странице Образовательного портала вуза для одновременного доступа к нему студентов данной группы. Студенты самостоятельно пополняют его своими разработками.

Применение эвристических методов предусматривало такую организацию усвоения содержания учебного курса «Анатомия», чтобы студент имел возможность соотносить получаемые сведения с реальным, живым человеком и осознать их значение для собственной спортивно-тренировочной и будущей профессиональной деятельности, овладевая методическими навыками и умениями в области исследования физического развития, физической подготовленности, оценки уровня физической работоспособности и функциональной готовности спортсменов. Тем самым включается в реализацию принцип индивидуализации и дифференциации обучения, обращенный к необходимости учета в образовательном процессе потребностей, интересов, способностей, общей ориентации обучающегося в сфере будущей профессиональной, социально-трудовой деятельности, опоры на уже имеющийся у него индивидуальный специфический опыт (Чекина, 2016, с. 116).

Применение эвристических методов предусматривало такую организацию усвоения содержания учебного курса «Анатомия», чтобы студент имел возможность соотносить получаемые сведения с реальным, живым человеком и осознать их значение для собственной спортивно-тренировочной и будущей профессиональной деятельности, овладевая методическими навыками и умениями в области исследования физического развития, физической подготовленности, оценки уровня физической работоспособности и функциональной готовности спортсменов.

Для оценки эффективности применяемых нами системы эвристических методов обучения в преподавании курса «Анатомия» проводилось сравнение результатов экспериментальной работы, которая длилась в течение 5 месяцев, по уровню развития внутренней мотивации учебной деятельности у студентов экспериментальной (n=36) и контрольной (n=40) групп, обучающихся по образовательной программе «Физическая культура» в УО «Гродненский государственный университет имени Янки Купалы».

Для диагностики направленности мотивации изучения курса «Анатомия» мы использовали тестовую методику Т. Д. Дубовицкой (2002). Целью данной методики является выявление направленности и уровня развития внутренней мотивации учебной деятельности обучающихся при изучении ими конкретных предметов, а результаты проводимого с помощью нее исследования могут рассматриваться как показатель эффективности применяемых методов и технологий обучения на основе сравнения уровня мотивации в контрольных и экспериментальных группах. Автором методики для вычисления ее надежности и точности



применялась формула Рюлона; для вычисления коэффициентов надежности – согласованности целого теста использовались формула Спирмена-Брауна и формула Кронбаха; по итогам вычислений *надежность и точность* составила 0,933; *надежность – согласованность* составила 0,935 (Спирмен-Браун) и 0,927 (Кронбах), что может оцениваться как высокие показатели и свидетельствует о достаточной сбалансированности вопросов и наличии защиты теста от случайных факторов.

Методика включает 20 суждений, к которым предлагаются варианты ответа: положительные («верно»; «пожалуй, верно») и отрицательные («пожалуй, неверно»; «неверно»). Обработка производится в соответствии с ключом, за каждое совпадение с которым начисляется один балл. Чем выше суммарный балл, тем выше показатель внутренней мотивации изучения предмета. При низких суммарных баллах доминирует внешняя мотивация изучения предмета. Максимально возможный суммарный балл – 20, минимально возможный – 0. В соответствии с этим для определения уровня внутренней мотивации Т. Д. Дубовицкая предлагает использовать следующие нормативные границы: 0–5 баллов – низкий уровень внутренней мотивации; 6–14 баллов – средний уровень внутренней мотивации; 15–20 баллов – высокий уровень внутренней мотивации.

Нам также было важно выявить, насколько внедрение эвристических методов обучения в образовательный процесс позволит улучшить академическую успеваемость студентов выбранной категории. С этой целью мы определили средний балл успеваемости в обеих группах, который до эксперимента составлял 5,91 – в экспериментальной и 5,85 – в контрольной. Эти значения были приняты в качестве исходных при оценивании результатов исследования. Полученные данные подвергались вариационно-статистической обработке в соответствии с традиционными методиками. Итоги подводились ежемесячно на основании результатов текущего контроля успеваемости по курсу «Анатомия», проводимого на четырех практических занятиях. Успеваемость оценивалась по 10-балльной шкале. При обработке данных определялись абсолютные показатели качества усвоения студентами учебного материала и относительные значения каждого из показателей оценок.

## Результаты исследования *Results of research*

В обобщенном виде результаты обработки выполненного студентами теста Т. Д. Дубовицкой, предназначенного для оценки уровня развития внутренней мотивации их учебной деятельности, представлены в таблице 1.

Таблица 1. Динамика изменений уровня внутренней мотивации у студентов-физкультурников

*Table 1 Changes in the development of internal motivation in students-athletes*

Уровни внутренней мотивации	Количество студентов, %			
	Экспериментальная группа		Контрольная группа	
	до эксперимента	после эксперимента	до эксперимента	после эксперимента
высокий	13,89	38,89	15,00	15,00
средний	36,11	47,22	35,00	37,50
низкий	50,00	13,89	50,00	47,50

Представленные в таблице 1 данные позволяют констатировать значительное увеличение уровневых показателей по развитию внутренней мотивации учения в процессе применения эвристических методов в экспериментальной группе: количество студентов, проявляющих высокий уровень внутренней мотивации учения, возросло на 25 %, а число обучающихся с низким уровнем снизилось на 36,11 %. Что касается результатов контрольной группы, то показатели внутренней мотивации с исходным высоким уровнем остались прежними, составляя лишь 15 %, тогда как количество студентов с низким уровнем внутренней мотивации снизилось только на 2,5 %.

Что же касается изучения влияния эвристических методов на динамику академической успеваемости студентов-физкультурников, то количественный анализ позволяет констатировать факт ее постоянного нарастания по 10-балльной шкале в экспериментальной группе (таблица 2). В контрольной же группе такого рода динамики проследить не удалось. Здесь отмечаются как периоды незначительного подъема успеваемости, так и периоды ее снижения. К концу эксперимента академическую успеваемость в контрольной группе удалось вывести на позицию лишь незначительно выше уровня исходного среднего балла (6,38 против 5,85). В экспериментальной подгруппе к концу эксперимента средний балл составил 7,34 против исходного – 5,91.

Таблица 2. Динамика академической успеваемости студентов  
 Table 2 Dynamics of the academic progress of students

Отметки (в баллах)	Экспериментальная группа					Контрольная группа				
	Месяцы, п/п					Месяцы, п/п				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
	<i>Доля отметок, %</i>									
1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
2	9	5	1	–	–	8	7	10	9	10
3	11	10	8	7	–	14	13	13	13	11
4	13	12	10	7	7	12	13	10	10	11
5	8	7	10	10	10	7	8	8	10	6
6	8	10	12	13	11	6	7	10	6	6
7	20	21	22	22	20	25	23	19	22	25
8	20	21	21	21	25	20	20	21	21	20
9	10	12	13	15	20	7	7	7	7	10
10	1	2	3	5	7	1	2	2	1	1
	<i>Темп прироста, %</i>									
1		–	–	–	–		–	–	–	–
2		-44	-80	-100	–		-13	43	-10	10
3		-9	-20	-13	-100		-7	0	0	-15
4		-7	-17	-30	0		8	-23	–	10
5		-13	42	0	0		13	0	25	-40
6		25	20	8	-15		17	43	-40	0
7		5	4	0	-10		-8	-17	16	14
8		5	0	0	19		0	10	0	-10
9		20	8	15	33		0	0	0	43
10		100	33	67	40		100	0	-50	-50
Средний балл	5,91	6,26	6,57	6,84	<b>7,34</b>	5,85	5,91	5,83	5,78	<b>6,38</b>

В целом результаты исследования свидетельствуют не только об эффективности применяемых нами методов эвристического обучения в преподавании курса «Анатомия» в аспекте их положительного влияния на внутреннюю мотивацию учения студентов, но также подтверждают их роль для качественного преобразования картины академической успеваемости студентов, что еще раз подтверждает известную педагогическую закономерность, согласно которой именно содержание мотивации учения определяет его результативность.

## **Выводы** **Conclusions**

Результаты нашей исследовательской работы доказывают положительное влияние применяемых эвристических методов на направленность мотивов учения студентов-физкультурников, на формирование у них заинтересованности к изучению анатомии, что проявляется улучшением показателей их академической успеваемости. В частности, использование эвристических методов в преподавании курса «Анатомия» для студентов-физкультурников позволили нам оказать воздействие на мотивационную сферу обучающихся в аспекте переориентации направленности их мотивов учения от внешних к внутренним, обуславливающим повышение эффективности учебной деятельности, что подтвердилось заметным ростом среднего арифметического значения отметочного балла в студенческой группе.

## **Summary**

The system of knowledge of human anatomy is important for the students focused on the professions connected with physical culture and sport. This knowledge is necessary to them for the optimum organization of training process, safety and efficiency of sports occupations.

Unfortunately, specifics of teaching the course „Anatomy” for students-athletes have a number of features. For example, practice testifies to the insufficient level of basic natural-science knowledge at such students. They are also not able to apply flexibly operations of logical thinking because they often lack time for reflection because of the busy training schedule. Besides, such students have difficulties with perception of large volume of theoretical material. This situation is aggravated with the fact that studying of anatomy is based on storing of volume actual material, on learning of a set of Latin terms, on studying of topography of a large amount of anatomical structures. All this explains lack of interest at students in a subject, unwillingness to go deep into sense of studied.

Results of our research work prove positive influence of heuristic methods on an orientation of motives of the educational activity of students-athletes, on formation at students of interest in studying of anatomy. It is shown by improvement of indicators of the academic progress of students. It is that, use of heuristic methods in teaching the course „Anatomy” for students-athletes has allowed us to make impact on the motivational sphere of students and to redirect their motives of the educational activity from external to internal. It has caused increase in efficiency of educational activity that was confirmed by increase in an arithmetic average of value of a mark in student's group.

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## LASER TECHNOLOGIES – MASTER’S PROGRAM BETWEEN TWO EUROPEAN UNIVERSITIES OF APPLIED SCIENCES FROM LATVIA AND GERMANY

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**Abstract.** *Laser equipment and laser technologies are among the most modern, fastest growing and most promising branches of science and technology in the 21st century. The first laser was created in 1960 and for about 55 years, today there is hardly any area of our lives in which lasers and related technologies are not applied. Laser systems and related innovative technologies ensuring high precision, productivity and quality of production have been developed and proposed worldwide from hundreds of scientific research institutes and companies.*

*The Master's program is accredited in two European universities in Germany and Latvia and allows for the production of double diplomas. The course is based on international experience and reflects the most recent advances in laser techniques and technologies. The program examines the physical fundamentals and technical realization of various types of laser systems and their specific characteristics. First the necessary foundations of the laser physics, optics and the interaction of radiation with matter are presented, followed by more detailed examination of the problems of laser technology in various fields of science, technology and industrial production. Basic physical and technical solutions of the building blocks of lasers are presented in details, such as: optical resonators, active environments, excitation systems, management systems, laser generation. As well as specific issues and practical examples of industrial applications are described.*

**Keywords:** *laser, laser technologies, curriculum, Master's program, internationalization in Higher Education.*

## **Introduction**

Today, along with nanotechnologies, the optical and laser technologies are crucial to the global progress of economy and society in 21<sup>st</sup> century. Development and production of laser technologies in Europe (particularly in Germany and Latvia) is strategic priority [Hightech-Strategie 2020 für Deutschland, 2010]. Nowadays Germany is one of the global leaders in the field of optical technologies. Until 2020 more than 15 billion euros are expected to be invested in this sector of industry (BMBF – Initiative Photonic 2020) [BMBF, 2011].

During the last 15 years a range of areas has expanded enormously in which the “LASER” (Light Amplification of Stimulated Emission of Radiation) is used for industrial production. A number of sectors may be mentioned such as: mechanical engineering, precision engineering, food technologies, automotive industry, and aircraft construction, electronics, and microelectronics, etc., whose development is unimaginable in the field of technologies without using lasers. This is due to the unique advantages offered by laser as a processing tool:

- no tool wear,
- no exerting pressure on the material,
- possibility for machining of details with complex configuration,
- flexibility of the process - rapid implementation to new constructive solutions,
- low production costs and high productivity,
- high quality,
- small area of thermal effect,
- easy integration of laser source in the internal factory production lines,
- processing of metals, non-metals, alloys, semiconductors, etc.,
- environment-friendly technology, etc. [Poprawe, Boucke, & Hoffman, 2017].

Classical training in mechanical engineering and electronics today is not sufficient to meet the needs of modern industrial production and there is increased requirement for training of interdisciplinary specialists to be able to solve innovative problems lying on the borders between several fields of sciences. To carry out work on the modern laser technologies a wide spectrum of knowledge is required from training modules such as electronics, electrical engineering, automation management, optics, and many other fields of the applied physics. Combination of various knowledge and competences is just an indispensable for the success of modern industrial production and development.

Therefore the curriculum today must be written on modular principle and has to provide the opportunities mentioned above.

The Master's study program "Laser Technologies" is offered by the University of Applied Sciences (UAS) Mittweida, Germany, and the Rezekne Academy of Technologies (RTA), Latvia. The program was opened for studies in September 2015. Main goal of this study program is to prepare high level educated specialists in the field of lasers with strong emphasis on practical and scientific aspects of knowledge.

### **What is proposed in the new Master's program?**

The program allows participation of students that graduated from Bachelor's degree, even of different specialties. This combination is knowingly encouraged because for engineering bachelors as well as for nature science, mathematical students it is particularly interesting to have opportunity to specialize and get additional knowledge in the field of contemporary optical and laser technologies. Forecasts and analyzes indicate that this tendency will continue increasing in Germany and the European Union over the coming years. It turns out that this new priority area of the 21<sup>st</sup> century is important for our industrial and social development, is significant and attractive for the young people engaged with science and technologies [Photonik-Akademie BMBF, 2011].

The Master's program was developed under collaboration and integration of both universities with scientific and research centres – Laser Centre in Mittweida and RTA Physical processes and laser technologies research centre. This cooperation is providing an opportunity for linking educational process with the studies of scientists. Thus master's students get possibilities to connect their master's themes with the research necessary for business and economics of both countries, Germany and Latvia. Also it creates possibilities for invitation and integration of students in the scientific and team research while they are still studying and participating in scientific seminars, conferences, and other scientific forums.

#### **Two universities - one program - two diplomas**

International Master's programs enable participants during the course to study in two European countries or to study only in their own country: Latvia or Germany.

Advantages offered by the new program are as follows:

- International recognition of completed educational degree;
- Modular type of training allowing flexibility;



- Transparency and equivalence of assessments obtained in the training based on the European system of credit transfer ECTS (European Credit Transfer System).

ECTS is based on fundamental principles such as: full awareness, mutual trust and agreement, taking into account the workload of students using of credits. Application of this system in the learning process to the Master's program is based on: full student lecture and outside lecture employment for any particular discipline; giving opportunity for students to select their study subject, learning forms, as well as forms of individual work; recognizing of individual study period held in the partnership's university or recognizing different specialties of both universities complying with all requirements of curriculum and educational - qualification degree of the “Laser Technologies” specialty.

**1<sup>st</sup> option – two diplomas for Masters (MSc)**

	1 <sup>st</sup> semester	2 <sup>nd</sup> semester	3 <sup>rd</sup> semester	4 <sup>th</sup> semester	Result
study in RTA					RTA and UAS Mittweida diploma
study in UAS Mittweida					

DE students
  LV students

**2<sup>nd</sup> option – one diploma for Masters (MSc)**

study in RTA					diploma RTA
study in UAS Mittweida					diploma UAS Mittweida

Figure 1 Two options to realization of the master’s program

In the partner institution (figure1) a part of student’s training may be carried out according to the program. The program is based on signed framework agreement between educational institutions and opens for the students a bilateral academic interchange for two semesters. This way the amount of academic time during the course of learning needed (4 semesters) suffices fulfilment of national requirements of both Latvia and Germany to receive two diplomas. It may be noted that both universities mutually recognize the acquired knowledge and evaluation, which is obtained in the course of

studies in partner institution pursuant to a comparative evaluation table accepted and agreed between them. Modules developed in English allow to involve the students interested in the program from other European countries and to conduct partial training within Erasmus, as well as to invite professors and experts from leading companies in the industry for lecturing. Through realization of this opportunity, the idea of expanding the European student mobility is stimulated, which is found in general documents of the European Union (EU) for the field of education. This allows developing and deepening of the integration processes within the EU [Teichler, U., 2012].

### **What modules are thought in the program and what is period of the training?**

The basic part of the Program during the first three semesters includes skills and knowledge for students according to the following basic modules:

- Solid-state physics, analytics (Festkörperphysik, Analytik),
- Quantum Mechanics, Statistical Physics (Quantenmechanik, Statistische Physik),
- Physical technologies (Physikalische Technologien),
- Modeling and simulation of physical processes (Modellierung und Simulation physikalischer Prozesse),
- Physical coating technologies (Physikalische Beschichtungstechnologien),
- Project management (Projektmanagement).

Special part of the Program offers obligatory and selectable modules such as:

- Laser-matter interaction (Laser-Materie Wechselwirkung),
- Laser equipment (Lasengerätetechnik),
- Components of laser technology (Komponenten der Lasertechnik),
- Micro- and nanotechnologies (Mikro- und Nanotechnologien),
- Current developments in laser technology (Aktuelle Entwicklungen der Lasertechnik),
- Optics design/microoptics (Optikdesign/Mikrooptik),
- Research and development module I and II (Forschungs- und Entwicklungsmodul I und II).

Training modules per semester and credits to the ETCS are shown in Table 1.

**Table 1 Training modules per semester and ETCS credits**

	<b>1. semester</b>	<b>2. semester</b>	<b>3. semester</b>	<b>4. semester</b>
<b>module1</b>	Solid state physics - 5 credits	Physical coating technologies - 5 credits	Project management - 5 credits	Master thesis and colloquium - 30 credits
<b>module2</b>	Quantum mechanics - 5 credits	Physical analytics - 5 credits	Optics design / microoptics - 5 credits	
<b>module3</b>	Modeling and simulation of physical processes - 5 credits	Laser-matter interaction - 5 credits	Micro- and nanotechnologies - 5 credits	
<b>module4</b>	Laser equipment - 5 credits	1 Elective Module - 5 credits	Current developments in laser technology - 5 credits	
<b>module5</b>	2 Electives	Research and development module I - 10 credits	Research and development module II - 10 credits	
<b>module6</b>	Module - 10 credits			
<b>credits</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>30</b>

Latvian, German and English are one of the languages of study and the learning period is 4 semesters.

Content of the program provides to the participants key professional skills in the field “Laser technic and technologies” with possibility for their concrete realization not only at the national level, but also in the practice of the European common market.

After completion of the internationally recognized Master's program “Laser technologies” offering coupled degree diploma, undergraduate students have been professionally trained to work in wide range of professional areas:

- Optics and fine Mechanics;
- Automotive industry and Mechanical engineering;
- Aircraft construction and space equipment;
- Medical equipment;
- Measuring equipment;
- Optoelectronics and Semiconducting technics;
- Information and communication technology;
- Laser technology;
- Material treatment;
- Micro- and nanotechnologies;
- Biophotonics, etc.

It is expected that optical technology will expand new market opportunities and offer new jobs, especially for the group of small and medium enterprises. For the last few years in Germany, which is the locomotive of optical technologies in Europe, more than 5,000 new jobs have been created. About 16 % of them are in the business of processing industry (industry for processing of materials) [Baron, 2004; Kudic, M., 2011]. All of these may be in other EU countries as there is a need to have sufficient qualified staff being able to implement innovative solutions (know-how) in practice. A relatively new branch of optical and laser technologies lacks certain young trained professionals. That is why it is important to work actively in order to promote the knowledge in this area even in higher education institutions using the general public and businesses. Thus in the universities that offer such (like ours) curricula, it will increase interest and enhance the competition among candidates.

### **Conclusion**

Engineering and technical staff and collaborators with their level of qualification have been crucial for the development of business innovations. This is true to a great extent (particular level) for companies that have selected the path of innovative optical and laser technologies.

Purposeful training and education of people that will respond to the market needs and the needs of industry is the right recipe (approach) for successful development and implementation of technical innovations. The rapid development of research in the field of optical technologies and laser technology has initiated creation of the Master's programs that would meet those needs.

German study "Optical Technologies in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century" shows that recently there is an urgent deficiency of qualified personnel that can meet the needs of scientific research personnel being able to perform R&D activities in this sector of the industry. Such assessments and analyzes come from a number of associations related to industry and business. Hence it constitutes an obstacle to development and application of optical and laser technologies within individual countries and generally the EU as well.

Development of scientific and innovation strategy in our globalizing world must include European and international dimensions in educational, research and technological policy of each EU country. Today more than ever it is clear that "Photonics" has been one of the most important elements of European research policy.

The European Technology Platform "Photonics - 21<sup>st</sup>" includes more than 1600 partners and has developed an overall strategy of the European Union Member States in the field of optical and laser technologies [Butter, 2011; ETPP21, 2013; Poprawe, 2014]. Via the European Commission the "Optical and

Laser Technologies” have been incorporated into the 5th “Key Enabling Technologies” important for Europe. The European Commission here perceives the most important technological potential for our economic development over the next 10 years. The created and accredited Master’s program in both universities in Germany and Latvia is a good example for internationalization of this field of higher education.

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## ФОРМИРОВАНИЕ ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОЙ КОМПЕТЕНТНОСТИ СТУДЕНТОВ БУДУЩИХ ПРЕПОДАВАТЕЛЕЙ ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОГО ОБУЧЕНИЯ В СИСТЕМЕ ВЫСШЕГО ОБРАЗОВА- НИЯ В КАЗАХСТАНЕ

### *Formation of the Professional Competence of Students Future Teachers of Vocational Training in the System of Higher Education on Kazakhstan*

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**Abstract.** *The current stage of the reform of higher professional education imposes entirely new requirements for innovative renewal, content, methods and the development of professional competence of future teachers of Vocational training in Cloth Design specialization.*

*The article analyzes the relevant aspects of the formation of professional competence of future teachers of fashion design, based on the thesis: „Formation of professional competence of future teachers Vocational training in the higher education system in Kazakhstan” for the degree of doctor of pedagogical sciences, which is being developed in Rezekne Technological Academy (Latvia) under the direction of doctor of pedagogical sciences, Professor Velta Lubkina.*

**Keywords:** *professional competence, Vocational training, model, method, module.*

#### **Введение**

#### **Introduction**

Глобальные изменения, инновационное развитие современного общества и модернизация производства формируют новые подходы в образовательной парадигме. «Наука для отрасли» - является актуальной стратегией подготовки специалистов в системе образования.

**Объект исследования:** процесс профессиональной подготовки будущих преподавателей по специальности Профессиональное обучение в системе высшего образования.

**Предмет исследования:** формирование профессиональной компетентности будущих преподавателей.

## **Методы анализа данных и результаты** *Methods of data analysis and results*

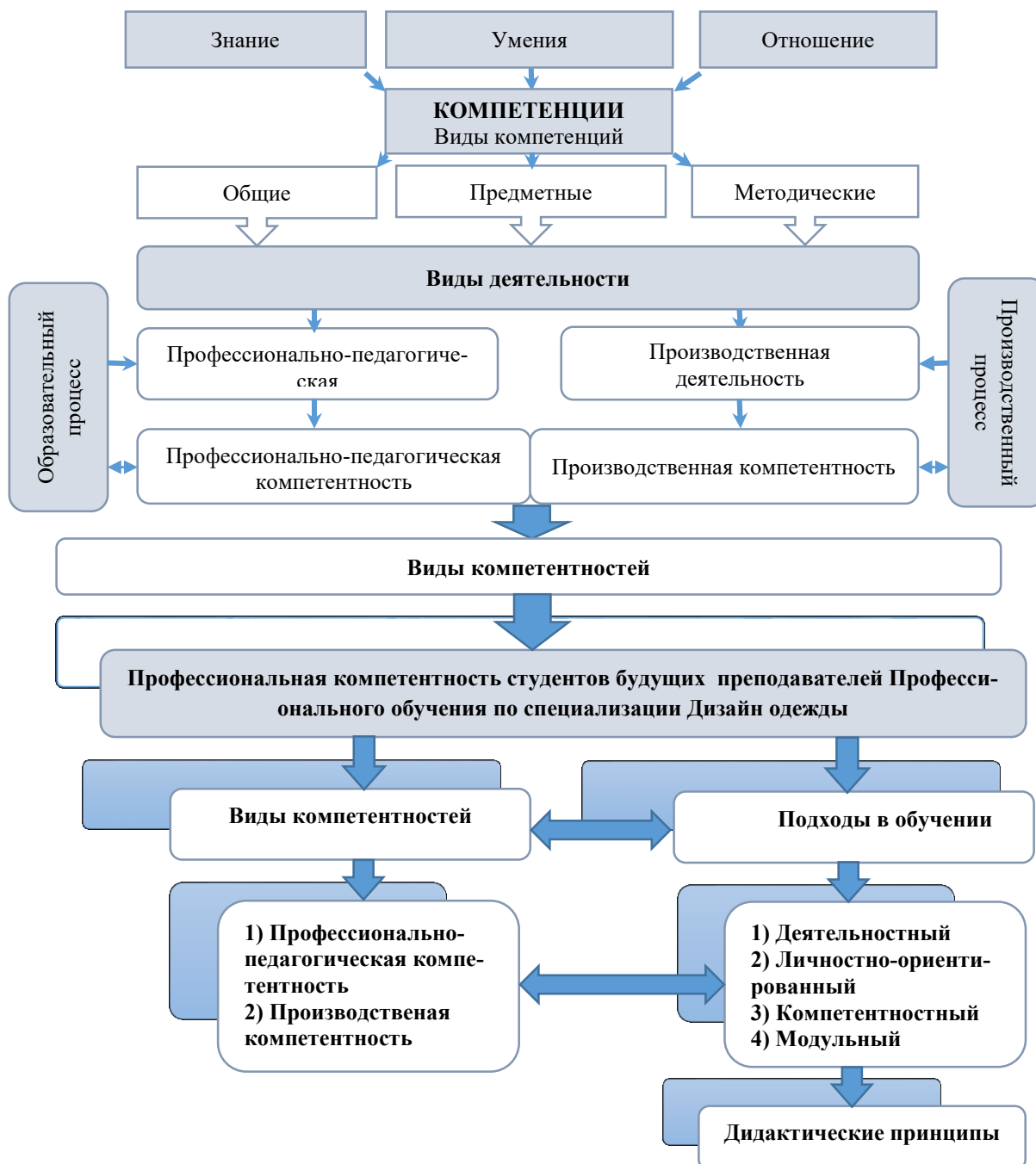
«**Компетенция – competency**» по определению – это динамическое сочетание ряда параметров: *знаний и их применения, умений, отношений и ответственности, описывающие результаты освоения программы/модуля обучения (Глоссарий..., 1999; Tuning..., 2000)*. В системе высшего образования, в рамках Болонского процесса, различаются *общие* (для всех курсов/модулей данного цикла) компетенции и *предметные* (относящиеся к предметной области); а также *методические компетенции*, понимаемые как способность организовывать и эффективно управлять факторами внешней среды (временем, обучением), принимать решения и решать проблемы; межличностные и системные компетенции (Глоссарий..., 1999). «**Компетентность – competence**» - это *знания, умения, отношение специалиста, способного к профессиональной деятельности*. Профессиональная компетентность студентов будущих преподавателей Профессионального обучения обусловлена **двумя видами компетентности**: *профессионально-педагогической и производственной*.

Разработанное определение **профессиональной компетентности студентов будущих преподавателей Профессионального обучения** - является комплексной характеристикой *знаний, умений и отношения специалистов, отражающая их готовность и способность осуществлять эффективную педагогическую и производственную деятельность в условиях непрерывно изменяющихся современных производственных и образовательных процессов*.

Исследование теорий *Baumert, Kunter (2013), Blūma (2012), Zogla (2005)*, позволило структурировать **профессионально-педагогическую компетентность**, содержащую: методическую, психолого-педагогическую, дифференциально – психологическую, рефлексивную педагогической деятельности или аутопсихологическую, специальную и профессиональную виды компетентностей, и может реализоваться лишь при наличии **производственной компетентности**, поскольку, требует соответствующих производственных знаний, умений, отношения (Гуров, 2012), включающую: организационно – технологическую, технико – экономическую, проектно – гносеологическую виды компетентностей.

Изучение теорий по научным подходам Формирования профессиональной компетентности: в Латвии (*Baumert & Kunter, 2013; Blūma, 2012*), и других Европейских стран (*Mahoney, Cairos, & Farwer, 2003; Baumert & Kunter, 2013*), Казахстане (*Мухаметкалиев, 2011; Омирбаев, 2014*), Кыргызстане (*Дюшеева, 2009; Добаев, 2010*) в России и в странах

СНГ (Гуров, 2012; Жиркова, 2012) выявило интеграцию в подходах в обучении: *деятельностном, личностно-ориентированном, компетентностном, модульном*, и выявило дидактические принципы, что обусловило Формирование профессиональной компетентности студентов будущих преподавателей Профессионального обучения (см. рис. 1).



1.рис. **Формирование профессиональной компетентности студентов будущих преподавателей Профессионального обучения**

*Fig.1 Formation of professional competence of students of Vocational Training future teachers*



Изучение проблемы формирования профессиональной компетентности, выявило два основных методологических направления в вопросе о компетентности: *методика* и *системность* (см. таблицу 1).

1) **Формирование профессиональной компетентности в качестве Методики** включает в себя авторское анализирование процесса, на основе различных теорий, внедрение инновационных технологий. В работах многих европейских ученых (*Blank & Alas, 2008; Baumert & Kunter, 2013*), компетентность рассматривается как самостоятельная единица для осуществления методики, как средство формирования качеств личности для определенных целей, процессов, эксперимента, методики. Компетентность как методика направлена на внутренние условия: имеет самостоятельные подструктуры и определения, обусловленные авторской концепцией на основе методологии в выбранном направлении.

2) **Формирование профессиональной компетентности в качестве Системы**, является отличительной особенностью казахстанского подхода в определении компетентности. Системность обусловлена внешними факторами: общим направлением обучения и образовательной политики в стране, целостным педагогическим процессом, нормативными документами, прежде всего Государственным общеобязательным стандартом образования, Типовыми учебными программами, Типовым учебным планом по специальности.

В данных нормативных документах четко прописаны все нормы, требования, определения, основанные на цели по осуществлению государственного заказа по подготовке специалистов для различных отраслей науки и производства (*Мухаметкалиев, 2011; Омирбаев, 2014*).

Таблица 1. Подходы Формирования профессиональной компетентности студентов будущих преподавателей на основе изучения международного опыта  
*Table 1 Approaches of formation professional competence of future students teachers, based on the study of international experience*

		Формирование профессиональной компетентности по «методике»	Формирование профессиональной компетентности по «системе»
Этапы Формирования профессиональной компетентности будущих преподавателей	<i>Оценивание компетентностей</i>	с сертификацией уровня компетентности	по критериям Национальной Модели образования
	<i>Профессиональная подготовка</i>	на основе децентрализованного подхода	централизованная подготовка с практически ориентированными целями, (госзаказ)

	<b>Повышение квалификации</b>	Вариативность видов повышения квалификаций будущих преподавателей институционализированным, системным, централизованным подходом	децентрализованную систему повышения квалификации с использованием модулей
<b>Результат</b>		сдача экзаменов и выдача сертификатов, подтверждающие уровень компетентности	выполнение госзаказа на основе целостного педагогического процесса
<b>Страны</b>		США и Великобритания	Германия, Франция, Дания, Португалия, Швейцария, Нидерланды, Латвия, Испания, Финляндия, Бельгия, Норвегия, Казахстан, Россия, Кыргызстан

Изучение научно-теоретических основ позволили выявить влияние компонентов на этапы Формирования профессиональной компетентности.

**Три этапа Формирования профессиональной компетентности будущих преподавателей:** *оценивание компетентностей, профессиональную подготовку, повышение уровня самообразования и квалификации (см. рис. 2).*

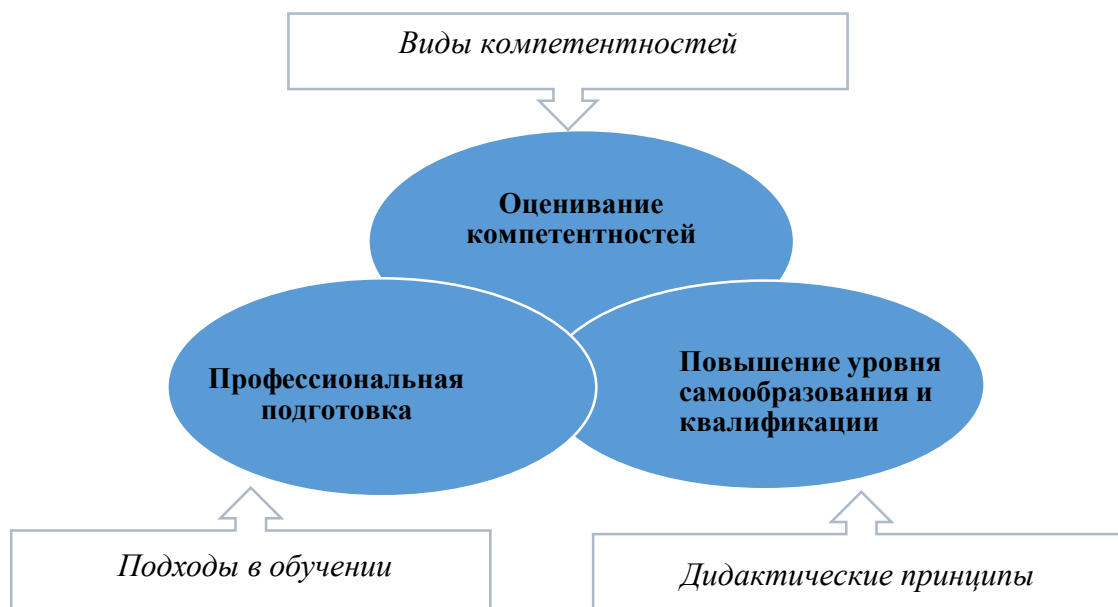


Рис. 2. Влияние компонентов Профессиональной компетентности на этапы Формирования профессиональной компетентности  
 Fig.2 Effect of components of professional competence onto the stages of Formation professional competence

Анализ актуальных аспектов Формирования профессиональной компетентности дал возможность сделать вывод, что эффективностью институциональных реформ образования в Казахстане на основе Болонской декларации по кредитно-модульной системе обучения является:

- 1) Создание гибких условий в вузе для международной академической мобильности и планирования содержания образования для отраслевых нужд с учетом разницы с зарубежными траектории обучения, программами обучения, формулировками определений специализаций по профилям для усиления интеграционной активности в международном сотрудничестве.
- 2) Внесение дополнений и изменений в содержание и Методику Модульных образовательных программ, расширяющих рамки для приобретения предметных знаний, умений, отношения и предметно-практическую и профильную направленность подготовки для возможности самостоятельного выбора студентом траектории обучения.
- 3) Совершенствование Формирования профессиональной компетентности в системе высшего образования в Казахстане обусловлено необходимостью разработки Критериев оценки профессиональной компетентности студентов будущих преподавателей Профессионального обучения по специализации Дизайн одежды.

В результате изучения научно-теоретических основ Формирования профессиональной компетентности были определены **профили компетенций** (*Key competences, 2010; Towards..., 2005; 21<sup>st</sup> century..., 2016*), определяющие уровни уровень сформированности студентов будущих преподавателей Профессионального обучения по специализации Дизайн одежды: *креативный, интерпретирующий, репродуцирующий*.

Исследование научно-теоретических основ профессиональной компетентности позволило выявить формирование **критериев оценки** профессиональной компетентности и **показатели критериев оценки** профессиональной компетентности (см. таблицу 2):

1. *Мотивационный* критерий – формирует *мотивы*.
2. *Содержательный* критерий - формирует *содержание*.
3. *Процессуальный* критерий - формирует *навыки*.

Таблица 2. Критерии оценки профессиональной компетентности студентов будущих преподавателей Профессионального обучения по специализации Дизайн одежды

Table 2 Criteria for assessing the professional competence of students future teachers of Vocational training for specialization Cloth Design

Наименование критериев	Мотивационный	Содержательный	Процессуальный
Показатели критериев	«мотивы»	«содержание»	«навыки»
Содержание критериев оценки студентов будущих преподавателей Профессионального обучения по специализации Дизайн одежды	1. Наличие интереса к специальности; 2. Гносеологическая потребность в повышении уровня самообразования, квалификации; 3. Осознание значимости профессии; 4. Креативность; 5. Социальные качества личности; 6. Коммуникативность; 7. Адекватная система оценки.	<b>Знание сущности дизайна:</b> 1. Системное ориентирование во всех компонентах дизайна; 2. Знание механизмов построения проектно-педагогического процесса; 3. Знание целевой-деятельностной сущности проектно-педагогического процесса. <b>Знание сущности модуля «Проектирование костюма»:</b> 1. Знание сущности дизайна как предмета педагогического процесса; 2. Знание компонентов проектно-педагогического формирования Профессиональной компетентности; 3. Знание критериев адекватной оценки работы; 4. Знание проектно-педагогических условий и их использования в учебно-воспитательном процессе.	1. Владеть теоретическими и практическими знаниями по Проектированию костюма; 2. Уметь организовывать все виды деятельности, связанные с Проектированием костюма; 3. Владеть аналитико-прогностическими умениями; 4. Уметь обеспечить проектную деятельность; 5. Владеть технологией проведения и конструированием проектно-педагогического процесса.

Создание критериев оценки обусловили педагогическое проектирование Модели на основе изучения научно-теоретических основ Профессиональной компетентности, представленных выше.

**Модель** Формирования профессиональной компетентности, является комплексной системой, объединяющая соответственно самостоятельные подсистемы, которые сохраняют свои цели и задачи, специфические особенности. Модель определяет структурные компоненты, организует процесс Формирования профессиональной компетентности и проводит Мониторинг всем компонентам и процессам. Схема Модели состоит из основных блоков (см. рис. 3):

1. Знания, умения, отношение.

2. Компетенции.
3. Профессиональная компетентность будущих преподавателей Профессионального обучения по специализации Дизайн одежды, включающая: факторы (внешние и внутренние), условия (нормативные, педагогические, дизайнерские), критерии (мотивационный, содержательный, процессуальный).
4. Организация процесса Формирования профессиональной компетентности, включающая: требования, траекторию обучения, организационные формы.
5. Мониторинг.

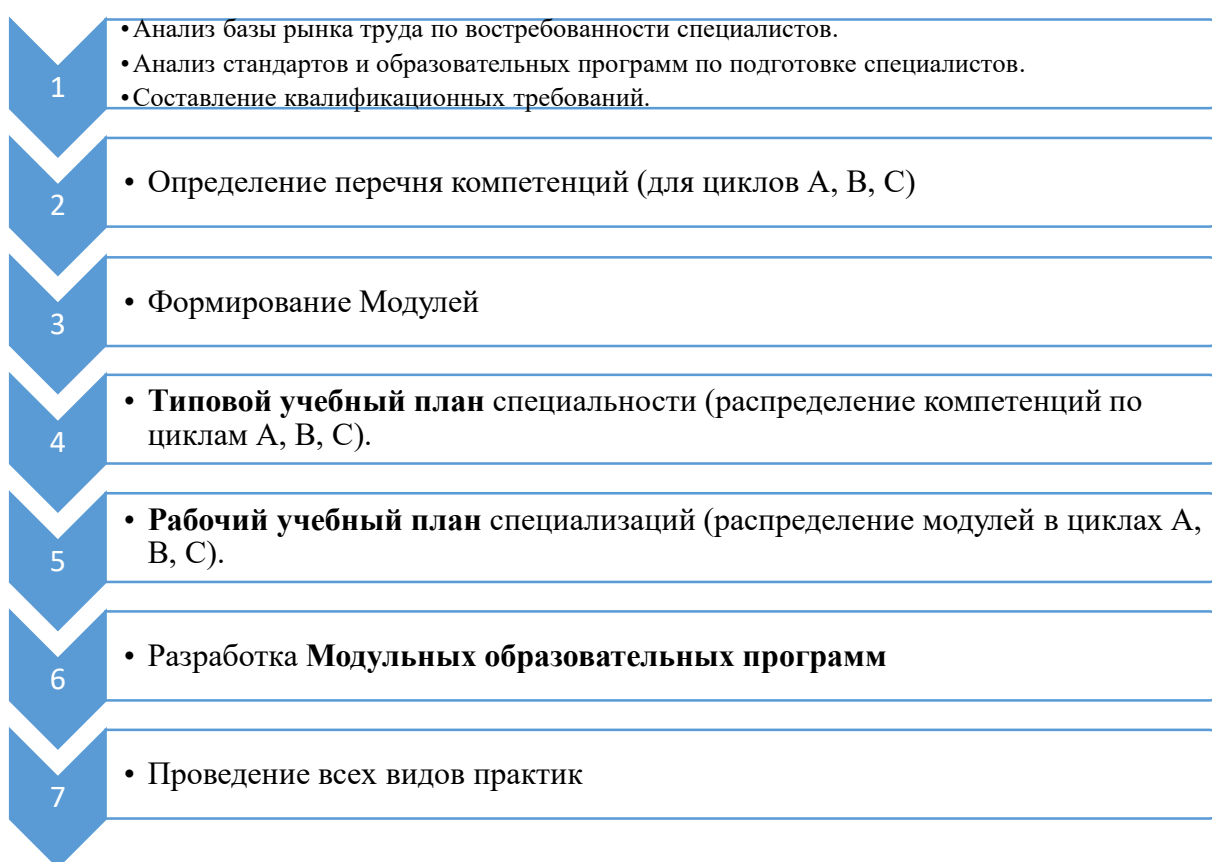


3. рис. Схема Модели Формирования профессиональной компетентности студентов будущих преподавателей Профессионального обучения по специализации Дизайн одежды

Fig.3 The Scheme of Model of the Formation professional competence of students of the future teachers of Vocational training for specialization Cloth Design

**Модель** организует процесс Формирования профессиональной компетентности и проводит Мониторинг всем компонентам и процессам, включающей компоненты **Методики**: этапы Формирования профессиональной компетентности студентов будущих преподавателей, цели профессиональной компетентности, методы, функции методов, дидактические принципы, формы работы, новые дидактические методы в исследовании, которые составляют Модульную программу «Проектирование костюма».

На основании теоретического анализа, приведенного выше в исследовании, были определены разработаны этапы формирования траектории обучения и технологические основы проектирования компетентностно-ориентированных **Модульных образовательных программ**.



4. рис. **Этапы формирования траектории обучения**  
*Fig.4 Stages of formation the trajectory of learning*

Структуризация Методики обусловлена научно-теоретическими основами Формирования профессиональной компетентности.

С целью усовершенствования и модернизации траектории и методов обучения, в Методике были внедрены актуальные аспекты международного опыта и содержания Формирования профессиональной компетентности.

С учетом специфики тенденций современной профессиональной подготовки специалистов в вузе, в Методике отражены актуальные требования системы образования через Модель, организацию процесса и Мониторинг Формирования профессиональной компетентности студентов будущих преподавателей Профессионального обучения по специализации Дизайн одежды.

Организация и результаты опытно-экспериментальной работы по Формированию профессиональной компетентности студентов будущих преподавателей Профессионального обучения по специализации Дизайн одежды обусловлена этапами, включающими данные теоретических исследований и результаты анкетирования (студентов, преподавателей, работодателей; стран: Казахстан, Латвия, Литва, Англия), а также рекомендации, на основе программ Excel и SPSS. Структура педагогического эксперимента представлена в таблице 3.

Таблица 3. Структура педагогического эксперимента  
Table 3 The structure of the pedagogical experiment

Наименование этапов	Задачи
<i>Констатирующий этап</i>	определение начального уровня сформированности профессиональной компетентности
<i>Формирующий этап</i>	построение процесса обучения с учетом введения критериев оценки Формирования профессиональной компетентности и реализации Модульной образовательной программы «Проектирование костюма»
<i>Контролирующий этап</i>	определение и сравнительный анализ уровней знаний, умений и навыков после обучающего этапа

В результате исследования были сделаны выводы:

- Совершенствование **формирования профессиональной компетентности** студентов будущих преподавателей Профессионального обучения в системе высшего образования в Казахстане обусловлено интеграционными процессами в условиях международного опыта интернационализации образования на основе Болонской декларации по кредитно-модульной системе обучения.
- Разработанная **Модель и Методика** на основе **Модульной образовательной программы** дают возможность повысить профессиональную компетентность студентов будущих преподавателей Профессионального обучения по специализации «Дизайн одежды» через внедрение новых дидактических методов в исследовании на основе дидактических принципов и форм работы.

- **Критерии оценки** способствуют стимулированию формирования профессиональной компетентности с учетом новых дидактических методов в исследовании для координации, упорядочивающей все виды деятельности (организационную, исследовательскую, учебно-познавательную, практическую, самостоятельную) в компонентах образования (преподаватели и студенты вузов, процесс и система образования) и в компонентах профессиональной деятельности (отрасль производства и работодатели).

### Summary

By the results of research were received findings:

- Improving the **Formation of professional competence** of students of the future teachers of Vocational training in the Higher education system in Kazakhstan is due to the integration processes in the conditions of international experience in the internationalization of education based on the Bologna Declaration on the credit - module system of education.
- The developed **Model** and **Method** based on **Modular educational program** provide an opportunity to improve the professional competence of students of Vocational Training student future teachers with specialization „Cloth design” through the introduction of new teaching methods in the study based on the didactic principles and forms of work.
- Evaluation the **Criteria** helps to stimulate the formation of professional competence to take account of new teaching methods in the study to coordinate, organize all kinds of activities (organizational, research, educational - cognitive, practical, independent) in the education components (teachers and students of higher educational institutions, the process and the system of education) and in components of professional activity (manufacturing industry and employers).

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# **ИНТЕРАКТИВНЫЕ ТЕХНОЛОГИИ КАК СРЕДСТВО ФОРМИРОВАНИЯ ОБЩЕКУЛЬТУРНЫХ И ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНЫХ КОМПЕТЕНЦИЙ У СТУДЕНТОВ ПЕДАГОГИЧЕСКОГО ВУЗА**

*Interactive Technologies as a Means of Formation of Common  
Cultural and Professional Students' Competencies in Pedagogical  
Institutes*

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**Abstract.** *The article describes the interactive forms and technologies that contribute to the formation of common cultural and professional competencies in students in pedagogical high school.*

*Interactivity - is „the ability to interact with or be in the mode of dialogue” When traditional methods of teaching dialogue is possible only as the interaction between „teacher - student” and „teacher - student group (audience)”, then the interactive learning in addition to this dialogue is constructed as the interaction „disciple - disciple” (work in pairs), „student - student group” (group work), „student - audience” or „group of students - the audience” (presentation of group work), „student - computer”, „student - a work of art.*

*According to the authors, the implementation in practice of the Higher School of interactive teaching methods improve the efficiency of the educational process, will teach students on the basis of acquired knowledge, not only to deepen the understanding of the theory, but also to solve the problematic issues, to analyze complex teaching situations, to work together, allow to enrich their own experience, to develop the necessary common cultural and professional competence of future teachers, and most importantly - ensures successful operation and competitiveness of graduates in their chosen professional field.*

**Keywords:** *competence approach; higher pedagogical education; interactivity; interactive technologies.*

## **Введение** ***Introduction***

Содержание образования в вузе как педагогически адаптированный социальный опыт, обеспечивающий, с одной стороны, успешную адаптацию будущего специалиста на рынке труда, с другой, – создание условия для его профессионального саморазвития, является важнейшим условием формирования как общих, так и профессиональных компетенций будущих специалистов.

Традиционный для вузовской педагогики подход, ориентированный на сообщение обучающемуся комплекса фундаментальных теоретических знаний, структурированный по областям знаний, для формирования компетенций обучающихся явно недостаточен. Содержание образования должно определяться четырехкомпонентной моделью, включающей знания, умения, опыт творческой деятельности и опыт эмоционально-ценностного отношения. При этом адаптационные функции содержания образования, связанные с освоением базовых профессиональных и общекультурных знаний и умений, в обязательном порядке должны интегрироваться с креативными – овладением способами творческой деятельности и опытом ценностного отношения к профессиональной деятельности (Zhestkova, 2016a).

В связи с этим преподавателям необходимо целенаправленно овладеть интерактивными формами и технологиями проведения занятий в вузах.

Интерактивность – это «способность взаимодействовать или находиться в режиме диалога» (Быхун, 2015). Если при традиционных методах обучения диалог возможен лишь как взаимодействие «учитель - ученик» или «учитель - группа учащихся (аудитория)», то при интерактивном обучении в дополнение к этому диалог строится как взаимодействие «ученик - ученик» (работа в парах), «ученик - группа учащихся» (работа в группах), «ученик - аудитория» или «группа учащихся - аудитория» (презентация работы в группах), «ученик - компьютер», «ученик - художественное произведение» и т.д. »

Изучением вопросов, связанных с интерактивным обучением как с одним из актуальных направлений современного образовательного процесса, занимались В. В. Гузеев (Гузеев, 2006), М. В. Кларин (Кларин, 2014), Г. М. Коджаспирова (Коджаспирова, 2016), О. П. Осипова (Осипова, 2015), Н. В. Суворова (Суворова, 2000).

Ученые в качестве этапов организации занятия в интерактивном режиме выделяют вычленение проблемы в учебном материале, поиск решения проблемы в группах, обсуждение представленных решений, выбор наиболее оптимального решения, обязательная рефлексия. Одним из важных компонентов такого занятия является диалог.

Цель настоящей статьи заключается в описании интерактивных форм и технологий, способствующих формированию общекультурных и профессиональных компетенций у обучающихся в педагогическом вузе.

### **Постановка проблемы** *Formulation of the problem*

В традиционной организации учебного процесса в качестве способа передачи информации используется односторонняя форма коммуникации - пассивный метод, суть которого заключается в трансляции преподавателем информации и в ее последующем воспроизведении обучающимся (Жесткова, 2015). Основным источником обучения является опыт педагога. Обучающийся находится в ситуации, когда он только читает, слышит, говорит об определенных областях знания, занимая лишь позицию воспринимающего. Иногда односторонность может нарушаться (например, когда обучающийся что-либо уточняет или задает вопрос), и тогда возникает двусторонняя коммуникация. Характерно, что односторонняя форма коммуникации присутствует не только на лекционных занятиях, но и на семинарских. Отличие только в том, что не преподаватель, а обучающийся транслирует некоторую информацию. Это могут быть ответы на поставленные преподавателем до начала семинара вопросы, рефераты, воспроизведение лекционного материала (Косолапова, 2012).

Такая форма коммуникации, существующая столь долгое время, неприемлема сегодня по нескольким причинам. Прежде всего, это связано с пассивностью обучающегося во время занятия, его функция – слушание, в то время как педагогические и социологические исследования показывают, что от пассивного участия в процессе обучения очень скоро не останется и следа.

Существует определенная закономерность обучения, описанная американскими исследователями Р. Карникау и Ф. Макэлроу (Григорьева, 2015): человек помнит 10 % прочитанного; 20 % – услышанного; 30 % – увиденного; 50 % – увиденного и услышанного; 80 % – того, что говорит сам; 90 % – того, до чего дошел в деятельности

Вторая причина еще более проста: односторонняя коммуникация оправдана лишь в случае недостатка информации, невозможности ее

получения другим способом, кроме как из рассказа лектора. Сегодня в большинстве случаев это не так. Преподаватель, как правило, использует материал, который не является оригинальным. Оригинальны лишь способы его конструирования, логика и манера изложения. Это, безусловно, ценно и свидетельствует об уровне и мастерстве преподавателя, но мало чем способствует в конструировании знания обучающимся – чужая конструкция знания никогда не становится своей.

В отличие от традиционных методов интерактивные ориентированы на более широкое взаимодействие студентов не только с преподавателем, но и друг с другом и на доминирование активности студентов в процессе обучения. Место преподавателя на интерактивных занятиях сводится к направлению деятельности студентов на достижение целей занятия. Преподаватель также разрабатывает план занятия (обычно, это интерактивные упражнения и задания, в ходе выполнения которых студент изучает материал), даёт консультации, контролирует время и порядок выполнения намеченного плана. Участники обращаются к социальному опыту – собственному и других людей, при этом им приходится вступать в коммуникацию друг с другом, совместно решать поставленные задачи, преодолевать конфликты, находить общие точки соприкосновения, идти на компромиссы (Опарина, 2015).

Психологами было установлено, что в условиях учебного общения наблюдается повышение точности восприятия, увеличивается результативность работы памяти, более интенсивно развиваются такие интеллектуальные и эмоциональные свойства личности, как – устойчивость внимания, умение его распределять; наблюдательность при восприятии; способность анализировать деятельность партнера, видеть его мотивы, цели (Сидорская, 2015).

Результаты проведенного анкетирования студентов факультета дошкольного и начального образования Арзамасского филиала ННГУ им. Н. И. Лобачевского по использованию интерактивных форм проведения занятий показывают, что их преимущества заключаются в следующем:

- пробуждают у обучающихся интерес (73 %);
- поощряют активное участие каждого в учебном процессе (81 %);
- обеспечивают взаимопонимание, взаимодействие, взаимообогащение (59 % );
- способствуют эффективному усвоению учебного материала (94 %);
- оказывают многоплановое воздействие на обучающихся (62 %);
- осуществляют обратную связь (ответная реакция аудитории) (83 %);

- формируют у обучающихся мнения и отношения; жизненные навыки (82 %);
- способствуют изменению поведения (98 %).

Анализ проведенного анкетирования показывает важность и целесообразность использования интерактивных форм и технологий, прежде всего, потому, что способствует формированию у будущих учителей навыка организации образовательного процесса, развивающего личность ученика и раскрывающего его творческие способности.

### **Опыт использования интерактивных технологий в педагогическом вузе**

#### ***Experience in the use of interactive technology in pedagogical high school***

Остановимся на характеристике отдельных интерактивных средств, которые имеют место в образовательном процессе высшей школы и уже зарекомендовали себя как наиболее эффективные в плане реализации компетентностного подхода в подготовке будущего педагога.

Лекция, безусловно, занимает важное место в образовательном процессе высшей школы, однако традиционная форма её проведения не всегда удовлетворяет современным требованиям и позволяет активизировать познавательную активность и развивать у студентов самостоятельность мышления. Традиционная лекция чаще всего приучает студентов к пассивному восприятию субъективной позиции педагога по поводу освещаемого вопроса, хотя и исключить её из образовательного процесса невозможно.

В качестве альтернативной можно рассматривать проблемную лекцию, в процессе которой существенно изменяются роль и функции преподавателя и студентов.

Основная суть проблемной лекции – привлечение студентов к активному обсуждению и решению одной из научных проблем определенной области знаний. Данный тип лекции предполагает диалогическое общение в процессе изложения темы. При этом диалогическое общение включается в те структурные компоненты лекции, где это целесообразно. Кроме этого опор делается на внутренний диалог студентов, основанный на самостоятельном осмыслении проблемы. Во время проблемной лекции преподаватель совместно со студентами решает поставленную проблему в процессе живого обсуждения и коллегиального нахождения путей её решения. Следует отметить, что ответ на один проблемный вопрос может породить массу других и стимулировать студентов и преподавателя к дальнейшему совместному поиску. Большинство ученых отмечают, что именно высокая степень

диалогичности лекции свидетельствует об её проблемности (Zhestkova, 2016b).

Структуру проблемной лекции можно представить в виде ряда взаимосвязанных этапов (рисунок 1).



Рисунок 1. Структура проблемной лекции  
*Figure 1 Structure of a problematic lecture*

Рассмотрим прохождение всех обозначенных выше этапов на примере темы «Особенности воспитания ребенка в неблагополучной семье» из курса «Семейная педагогика», которую студенты изучают на первом курсе. Выбор темы неслучаен, изначально сама её формулировка носит проблемный характер.

Поскольку одним из ключевых моментов вводной части лекции является создание мотивации студентов, начинается она с просмотра короткометражного фильма Р. Быкова «Я больше сюда никогда не вернусь». Это фильм – трагедия, который всего за несколько минут показывает трагичность судьбы девочки, воспитывающейся матерью-алкоголичкой. Все проблемы неблагополучной семьи представлены буквально в нескольких сюжетах: неадекватное поведение пьяной матери, боль и страх ребенка, отражение в игре модели жестокого и аморального поведения матери со своими детьми, трагичный конец истории – смерть ребенка как уход от невыносимой жизни.

Просмотр фильма позволяет овладеть вниманием аудитории, настроить студентов на обсуждение одной из самых сложных и важных проблем не только изучаемой дисциплины, но и нашего общества в целом, позволяет акцентировать внимание на её актуальности.

После просмотра педагог обозначает проблему, анализирует имеющиеся в ней противоречия, приводит авторитетные высказывания, статистические и научные данные, подтверждающие актуальность изучаемой проблемы. При этом преподаватель акцентирует внимание на определенных сходствах и различиях в подходах. Всё это позволяет ему в совместном обсуждении со студентами сформулировать проблему и вычленив из неё более частные, позволяющие более детально её рассмотреть с разных позиций. Примерное определение проблем темы лекции представлено на рисунке 2.

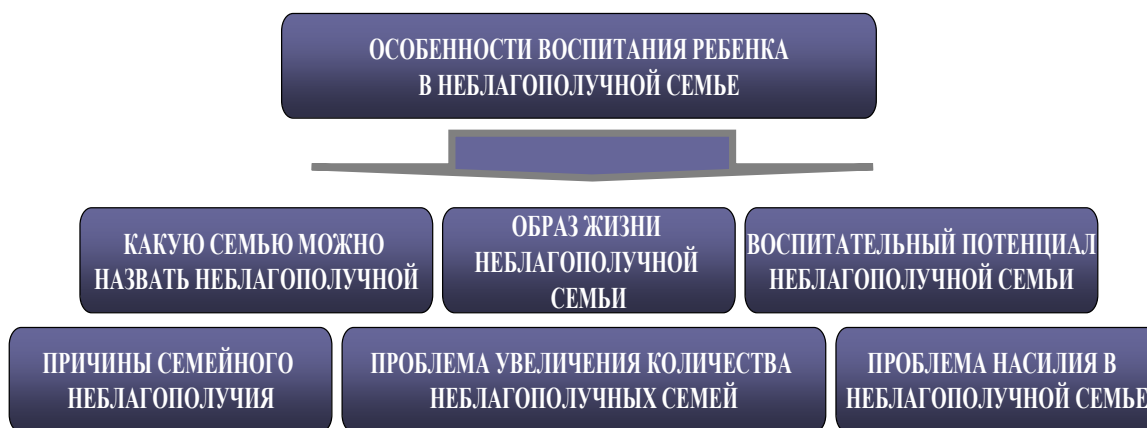


Рисунок 2. Вычленение проблем лекции  
 Figure 2 Distinction of the problems in the lecture

Вычленение проблем сопровождается определением конкретных вопросов, раскрывающих их сущность, обоснованием логики и общей схемы решения проблемы, выстраиванием гипотез, определением возможных результатов.

В основной части лекции раскрывается сущность главной проблемы. Включить студентов в активное решение проблемы позволяют продуманные педагогом вопросы, основной характеристикой которых является нестандартность решения заключенной в них проблемы и её новизна. Например, прежде чем рассматривать понятие «неблагополучная семья», студентам можно задать проблемные вопросы, например: «Какую семью можно назвать неблагополучной?», «По каким признакам мы определяем неблагополучие семьи?», «Какие критерии лежат в определении благополучия семьи обществом?», «Как соотносится благополучие ребенка и определение благополучия семьи?». Педагог предлагает для обсуждения несколько определений понятия «неблагополучная семья», в ходе совместного анализа студенты должны выбрать понятие, наиболее полное и точное, позволяющее систематизировать результаты совместных рассуждений. Схема этого процесса представлена на рисунке 3.



Рисунок 3. Схема обсуждения и определения понятия  
 Figure 3 Outline of the discussion and definition of notions



Таким образом, в процессе совместной поисковой деятельности решается одна из основных целей проблемной лекции – активизация мышления студентов и формирование собственной позиции и субъективного отношения к изучаемой проблеме.

Подобного алгоритма придерживается педагог в изложении материала по всем выделенным совместно со студентами подпроблемам.

В процессе обсуждения проблемы воспитания ребенка в неблагополучной семье будущие педагоги учатся устанавливать причинно-следственные связи между образом жизни семьи (как правило, асоциальным), воспитательным потенциалом семьи (чаще крайне низким уровнем, формирующим у ребенка асоциальную модель общественного поведения), благополучием ребенка и траекторией его физического, интеллектуального и личностного развития (насилие, психологические травмы, страх и стыд, неврологические заболевания, задержка в развитии).

Педагогу приходится достаточно сложно в процессе организации живого обсуждения освещаемой им проблемы, особенно если студенты не имеют соответствующих навыков, затрудняются в формулировке своего мнения или боятся его высказать в присутствии однокурсников и преподавателя. Но не менее сложным является заключительный этап лекции, в ходе которого необходимо грамотно резюмировать всё сказанное, вычлнить самое существенное и сконцентрировать на нём внимание аудитории, сформулировать полученный в ходе совместного решения результат, сделать научно обоснованные и объективные выводы. В контексте нашей проблемы это определение основных особенностей воспитания ребенка в неблагополучной семье.

Проблемные лекции способствуют творческому усвоению учебного материала будущими педагогами на основе принципов и закономерностей изучаемой науки, активизируют учебно-познавательную деятельность студентов, развивают творческое мышление, формируют у них познавательный интерес к содержанию предмета и проекцию использования изучаемого материала в профессиональной деятельности (Zhestkova, 2016). Таким образом, знания, полученные в ходе проблемной лекции, более гибки и практико-ориентированы.

Безусловно, ограничиваться только описанным типом лекции не стоит. Наш опыт показывает, что они лаконично сочетаются с традиционными лекциями, направленными на включение студентов в активное восприятие, в аналитическую деятельность, в активное обсуждение проблемы, в самостоятельное или совместное с педагогом её решение (лекции-беседы, лекции с запланированными ошибками, лекции

пресс-конференции, лекции вдвоём, лекция-визуализация и др.) (Губанихина, 2016).

Использование интерактивных технологий успешно осуществляется на практических, семинарских и лабораторных занятиях. Это элементы дискуссии, решение практических задач и анализ практических ситуаций, мозговой штурм, деловая игра, технологии индивидуальной и коллективной мыслительной деятельности, индивидуальная и коллективная исследовательская и проектная деятельность с использованием ИТ и другие (Губанихина, 2014).

В контексте реализации компетентного подхода при изучении одной темы может использоваться целый комплекс технологий, позволяющих преобразовать теоретическую информацию в конкретный методический продукт, необходимый будущему педагогу в его профессиональной деятельности. Например, при изучении темы «Нормативно-правовые основы семейного воспитания» студенты знакомятся с основным нормативным документом - «Семейным кодексом». Они не только изучают его содержание, но и учатся применять полученные знания на практике (рисунок 4).

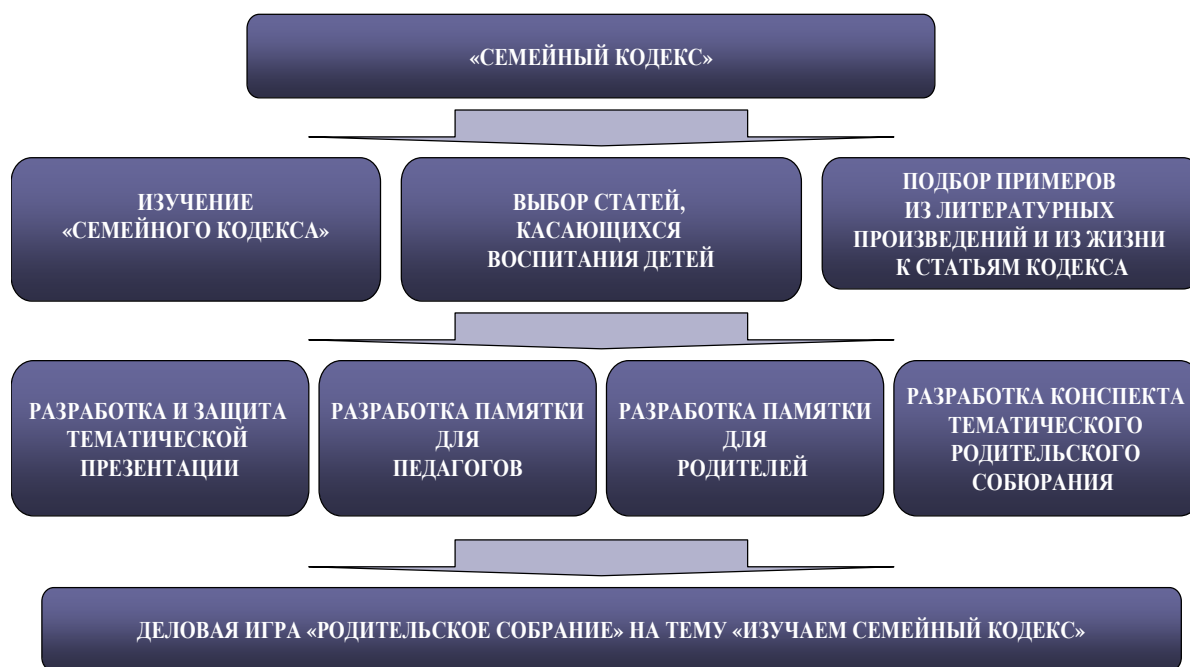


Рисунок 4. Преобразование знания по одной из тем в методический продукт  
 Figure 4 Transformation of knowledge according to one of the topics in the methodical product

## **Выводы** *Conclusions*

В результате исследования поставленной проблемы сделаны следующие выводы:

1. Интерактивное обучение - это способ познания, осуществляемый в формах совместной деятельности обучающихся: все участники образовательного процесса взаимодействуют друг с другом, обмениваются информацией, совместно решают проблемы, моделируют ситуации, оценивают действия участников и свое собственное поведение, погружаются в реальную атмосферу делового сотрудничества по разрешению проблем.
2. Внедрение в практику высшей школы интерактивных методов обучения повысит эффективность образовательного процесса, научит студентов на основе полученных знаний не только углубить понимание теории, но и решить проблемные вопросы, проводить анализ сложных педагогических ситуаций, работать сообща, позволит обогатить их собственный опыт, выработать необходимые общекультурные и профессиональные компетенции у будущих учителей, а главное - обеспечивает успешность работы и конкурентоспособность выпускника в избранной профессиональной сфере.

## **Summary**

The content of education in high school as a pedagogically adapted social experience, which provides, on the one hand, the successful adaptation of the future expert in the labor market, on the other, - the creation of conditions for its professional self-development is essential to the formation of both general and professional competencies of future professionals.

The traditional university pedagogy oriented approach to post training complex fundamental theoretical knowledge, structured according to areas of knowledge, for the formation of competencies of students is clearly insufficient. The content of education should be determined by the four-model, including knowledge, skills, experience, creativity and experience emotional and value relationships. In this adaptive function of educational content related to the development of basic professional and general cultural knowledge and skills, must necessarily integrate with the creative - the mastery of methods of creative activity and experience of the valuable relation to professional activity.

In this regard, teachers need to learn purposefully interactive forms and technologies of training in higher educational institutions.

Interactivity - is „the ability to interact with or be in the mode of dialogue” When traditional methods of teaching dialogue is possible only as the interaction between „teacher - student” and „teacher - student group (audience)”, then the interactive learning in addition to this dialogue is constructed as the interaction „disciple - disciple” (work in pairs), „student - student group” (group work), „student - audience” or „group of students - the audience” (presentation of group work), „student - computer”, „student - a work of art, „etc. „

The authors rely on the work Guzeeva, Clarina, Suvorov and others.

This article describes the interactive forms and technologies are actively applied in the course of training at pedagogical university. According to the authors, the implementation in practice of the Higher School of interactive teaching methods improve the efficiency of the educational process, will teach students on the basis of acquired knowledge, not only to deepen the understanding of the theory, but also to solve the problematic issues, to analyze complex teaching situations, to work together, allow to enrich their own experience, to develop the necessary common cultural and professional competence of future teachers, and most importantly - ensures successful operation and competitiveness of graduates in their chosen professional field.

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## METHODOLOGICAL CONCEPTS OF BUILDING UP THE CREATIVITY TYPOLOGY

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***Abstract.** The article traces the historical dynamics of the initial concepts of creativity. It is shown how the concepts of Russian methodology provided a principally new approach to studies of creativity psychology and building up the creativity typology. The original method of the Creative Field allows defining stimulus-productive, heuristic and creative types of the approaches to creativity. The conditions of carrying out the experiment using this method are described.*

*Further the research results are given referring characteristics of the motivational profile in groups, defined according to the creativity typology.*

***Keywords:** creativity, analysis unit, the Creative Field method, motivational profile.*

### Introduction

The concept of creativity is one of scientific paradoxes. Along with the fact that it characterizes a phenomenon of genus essence of a human, it still does not have a whole clarification not only in mass cognition, but also in scientific literature. Popular definition of creativity as a creation of something new does not contradict common sense, but characterizes it only by its product neglecting the nature of the process itself. In the same time it justifies absence of differentiation of wide, heterogeneous phenomenology of creativity, transferring all its types in the same plane, leveling their differences and diluting the concept of specifics of creativity as it is.

Genial discoveries advancing contemporary science for ages and solving a problem by a schoolboy are still considered in the same plane. To creativity belongs building up a scientific theory along with solving of a puzzle.

Experimental research of creativity leaving the concept of cognition as reproductive process within the framework of associationism and reaching its understanding as productivity in gestalt-psychology could not move further. An insight providing solving problem situations could appeal to intellect only,

making it equal with creativity. Thus, creativity was defined merely as intellect level. That led to the situation when creative abilities were diagnosed using tests with a set of tasks for presence of intellectual operations or solving “creative problems”. The tendency was strengthened by the requirements of psychometric paradigm, which Stern defined with maximum clearance: “The need of measurement leads to narrowing of a concept” (Stern, 1997). Thus, understanding the concept of creativity was based on a technique of measuring certain elements. This fact underlined the tendency which Vygotsky named “element-wise analysis”, i.e. reducing the whole to one component. But “on the way of identification of the whole with an element, a problem is not solved, it is just passed over” (Vygotsky, 1982, p. 13).

A crucial factor that defined the direction of research of these phenomena was Vygotsky’s methodological directive on two ways of scientific development. This is a direct way of complication of a structure and its functions, which Nature took; and a reverse way outgoing from knowledge of the highest form. The direct way comes to describing a psychic phenomenon, basing on concrete empirically established by any possible way characteristics. Due to the absence of exact criteria for the highest form all the forms can be considered as having equal significance. We can see it nowadays when we accept that there is a variety of concepts of giftedness and creativity. Either an insight (in gestalt-psychology) or divergent thinking (Guilford, 1959) or perhaps association by similarity (James, 1950) provides a flash of inspiration of a genius. Kudriavtsev (2015) uses the concept of “potentiation” (Schelling’s term) as growth of child’s abilities. And the whole phenomenology of productive thinking is creativity. And each one has his own truth.

An opposite way is based on a theoretical definition of a higher form reflecting the essence of the under study phenomenon. However, the analysis of the highest form is important for identifying the simplest form, which according to Aristotle reflects the essence of analysis (analysis unit). In his appeal to psychology willing to study complex phenomena Vygotsky demands to change methods of resolution to methods of analysis that isolates units. This approach provides finally the way of understanding of creativity nature not by its product, but by its mechanism.

Francis Galton came closer to the point than the others as he mentioned devotion to a cause as a characteristic feature of gifted persons, but he did not make the final step (and in was not possible at that moment). We managed to justify theoretically and methodologically the phenomena he noticed empirically.

The objective of studying the action losing a form of response demands designing a new model of experiment, opposite to the methods built by the “stimulus-reaction” principle, “a challenge by our self-will” (Chelpanov, 1999).

Only on the way of realization of Vygotsky's methodological principles it became possible to define the mechanism of creation of new forms. It is on the way of defining and theoretical justifying the highest form of creativity where we consider creativity phenomena, losing the form of response. These are "porism" (a term introduced by ancient Greeks) as an unforeseen going out into "not-specified" and types of discoveries described by Claparède (2007) and by Hadamard (1945). Those are discoveries that are not connected with solving of given tasks, but unexpected discovery of a new fact. For studying this kind of creativity a new type of experimental model had to be built up. In its turn, this new model allowed us to introduce a new psycho-diagnostics method for convenience called The Creative Field.

An experiment using this method allowed identifying the creativity analysis unit, which is the ability of a person to develop the accepted activity by one's initiative. Basing on this creativity analysis unit first creativity typology was built up, i.e. the differentiation of the whole heterogeneous phenomenology of creativity was carried out (Bogoyavlenskaya, 2009).

### **The model of experiment**

The estimation of personal potential within a certain time period requires space for following train of thought outside the limitations of solution of the initial problem. A new experimental model should be represented by the activity which is variable, but in a different way comparing with tests including a set of various tasks. It has to be homogeneous and to have differences at the same time. The system of problems of the same type meets these requirements. They are solved the same way, but differ by a certain parameter. Thus, we can watch the process of mastering an activity and at the first stage estimate mental abilities of a testee by characteristics of one's educability and all its indexes (rate of advancing, level of generality, consciousness, independence). That allows overcoming imperfection of testing, defining intellect more and more precisely (Bogoyavlenskaya, 2009).

The next stage of the experiment allows following the process after mastering activity and identifying the phenomenon of creativity itself as the going out the limitations of given situation. Since the system of single-type problems has a range of common patterns, it provides building up a two-layer model of activity. The first, surface layer is the given activity consisting of solving of certain problems. The second, subsurface layer (masked by the first layer and not obvious for a testee) is the activity of defining hidden patterns, included into system of problems. The discovering of those is not needed for direct problem solving, thus, the space for observing the activity development process is created.

## **The Creative Field method**

The studying of a principle which loses the shape of response requires the realization of the first principle – absence of outer and inner evaluative stimuli. It becomes possible due to the fact that the second layer is not given explicitly in the experimental situation, but is kept there surreptitiously or implicitly. The richer this layer of activity is the wider is the system of patterns, the more discrete is their hierarchy, the more diagnostic and prognostic value has a certain diagnostic technique.

Since the abilities of a testee can reveal themselves only in situation of overcoming and leaving the bounds of the initial situation, the “ceiling” (a limitation connected with a certain way of solving a problem) is given but it has to be overcome or withdrawn. The structure of the experimental material should provide a system of such false, apparent “ceilings”, but the system itself should have no limits. This is its difference from “open” problems. Thus, the second principle lies in the requirement of absence of a “ceiling” which restricts the activity in whole.

Full-fledged, methodologically consistent realization of these principles is possible only if testee’s activity is not limited by time frame and if the experiment is repeated (the third principle).

We would like to emphasize that a long-time research of the same sample has led us to the conclusion that the studying of creativity should be multiple and be carried out in the conditions not limited by any time frame.

Besides, in order to provide real durability and recurrence of studies, the activity should be variable, permanent and heterogeneous on various stages of the experiment.

The above-mentioned principles create a method which was called the Creative Field for convenience. The realization of this technique is possible only on the assumption of fulfilment of the principles in their unity as well as by individual testing, whereas by group (mass) testing as Chelpanov stated in the beginning of the last century “the individuality of each testee is lost, originality of mental process running in his mind is concealed. Facts to be essential for conclusions are wasted” (Chelpanov, 1999, p. 368).

## **The Typology of Creativity**

The technique of the Creative Field allows marking out various levels of performance and differentiating the whole complex and heterogeneous phenomenology of creativity. This concept provides designing of typology of creativity according to cognition levels.

The activities stimulated by outer factors (including high level of performance) belong to the first type called “**stimulus-productive**”. The cognition process of this level focuses on the certain situation and is performed on the level of single, according to the philosophical classification. The major part of mankind belongs to this type.

The activity that is developed by the person’s initiative belongs to the second type – “**heuristic**”. This is the level of art and laws discovering, which was referred by Rubinstein (1935) as “**explosion of layers of things in existence**”. This is the cognitive process on the level of special. It is **gift** that is characterized that way in the philosophic literature.

The last level – the creative – is characterized not only by discovering new patterns, but by their theoretical proving as well. It is the level of building up theories and defining new problems. The cognitive process is performed on the level of the whole. Such process provides cognition of the essence of an object. Furthermore, having known the essence of a phenomenon, one can predict qualitative leaps in its development and this characterizes the prognostic abilities of a subject. According to philosophers, it is this ability that more than anything defines a genius who predicts future on hundreds of years ahead.

Thus, high indexes on the first (stimulus-productive) level prove just high intellectual abilities of a subject. Last two levels (heuristic and creative) identify creative abilities, i.e. depth of cognition. The necessity of marking two levels explains using the term “**creative**”, which in this context is an alternative of understanding of creativity as divergent productivity.

Alongside with that the ability to develop activity by one's initiative can be explained just by the characteristics of intellect. It is a quality of integrated personality, reflecting the interaction of cognitive and emotional spheres in their unity, where abstraction of one of the sides is impossible, as they are inseparable. That “**alloy**” of capabilities and personality possesses a quality of generality, i.e. belongs to the whole as to the unity and corresponds to the methodological requirements to the analysis unit of the creativity.

The validity of the Creative Field method is proved in several cycles of research supervised by Diana B. Bogoyavlenskaya. The results of the research are presented in previously published works. In the same time an issue of the characteristics of motivational sphere of adults belonging to various creativity types (defined by the Creative Field method) remains little-studied.

### **Research aim and methods**

The aim of the current research is studying motivational characteristics reflecting to main personality orientations (consuming and productive) in groups, defined by the Creative Field method.

For reaching this aim the following objectives are settled: (1) marking out the typological groups by the Creative Field method; (2) defining the typology of motivational structure in each group.

For studying motivational structure the Milman's technique the Diagnostics of Personal Motivational Structure (further on - DPMS) is used (Milman, 2005). According to the author's conception the motivational scales reflect the main personal orientations – consuming and productive.

The DPMS technique includes seven motivational scales. For the completeness of diagnostics of personal motivational sphere each scale is divided to four more scales, reflecting: whole-life motivation (concerning the whole sphere of life activity); working (learning) motivation; “ideal” state of the motive understood by the author as “a level of a drive to act”; real state – the degree of satisfaction of a certain motive at present as well as forces applied for reaching satisfaction of this motive.

The total index of personal motivational sphere according to the testing results consists of 28 scales of motivational profile. If needed, various scales can be consolidated. The whole personal motivational picture is reflected in a personal motivational profile representing in quantitative or graphical form the correlations between various motivational scales, registered by a psychodiagnostic method. A character of motivational profile (MP) can be defined according to the profiles typology. After defining the characteristics of motivational sphere of each testee, his/her motivational profile can be attributed to one of the following types: progressive, regressive, expressive, impulsive, flat or combined.

The obtained data were processed by mathematics and statistics methods; the comparative analysis was applied.

### **Research design and sample characteristics**

The research was carried out in 2016. The research sample consisted of university students (N=135, age 19-20 years). The participation in the research was completely voluntary without using any motivational factors. The meetings with participants took place in social-psychological service facilities, in assessment centres. The specialists of the services were engaged in the research procedures after completing a special training related the research techniques.

### **Research results**

Let us consider the results obtained by using of the Creative Field technique.

According to the results obtained by using this method three groups of participants are defined, corresponding to three creativity types: stimulus-productive (SP), heuristic (H) and creative (C).

As mentioned above, the Creative Field method allows defining three qualitative creativity types: stimulus-productive, heuristic and creative. In case of participant's rejection of a task after its introduction, his/her creative activity is considered as low-productive.

In the process of research there are respondents who are agree to participate in the research, but refuse it after introduction of the problems (of even after having solved a part of them). This group is marked is the N-group.

The following distribution according to the creativity type is obtained: stimulus-productive type – 61.5 % (SP group), heuristic type – 8.5 % (H group), creative – 1.5 % (Cr-group).

Such distribution corresponds in general to the results obtained by other researchers in samples of adults (Bogoyavlenskaya & Bogoyavlenskaya, 2013). Those data show that the majority of people belong to the stimulus-productive type.

The next objective of the research is defining motivational profile type in the groups of stimulus-productive, heuristic and creative type. At first, the motivational profile type of every participant is defined, and then the distribution (percentage) of motivational profiles in each group is described.

In the SP-group the following distribution of motivational profiles types is found: progressive – 7 %, regressive – 18 %, expressive – 63 %, impulsive – 5 %, flat – 0 %, progressive-expressive (combined) – 7 %, progressive-impulsive – 0 %, regressive-impulsive – 0 %, and regressive-expressive – 0 %.

The expressive type related to self-affirmation in the society, developed ambition, eccentricity, a tendency to a constant rising of aspiration level, appears to dominate in this group.

In the H-group (heuristic type of creativity) the distribution of motivational profile type is following: progressive – 49.6 %, regressive – 11 %, expressive – 13.4 %, impulsive – 5 %, flat – 0 %, progressive-expressive (combined) – 11 %, progressive-impulsive – 5 %, regressive-impulsive – 5 %, and regressive-expressive – 0 %. As it is seen in the distribution the progressive type of motivational profile dominates in this group. In accordance with Milman's ideas, such type of profile positively correlates with "successful working and studying activities. Most often this type of the MP is met among creative people... At the same time, this kind of profile is typical for a socially-oriented person and that fact can be included into a concept of creative and productive orientation of a person" (Milman, 2005, p. 42).

In the Cr-group (the creative type) which includes just 2 participants of the research, the only type of the motivational type dominates – the progressive-expressive one. Taking into the account the small number of participants in this group it is impossible to make a conclusion on the firm correlations in the group.

In the N-group the following types of motivational profiles are marked out: progressive – 0 %, regressive – 39.2 %, expressive – 14.5 %, impulsive – 8.2 %, flat – 0 %, progressive-expressive – 3.7 %, progressive-impulsive – 1.48 %, regressive-impulsive – 14.5 %, regressive-expressive – 4.4 %. The tendency to domination of the regressive profile should be mentioned. The regressive type of profile is characterized by exceeding of general level of consuming motives above productive or developing ones.

### Conclusion

Summarizing the obtained data, on our opinion, it is possible to make a conclusion on the existence of stable connections between personal motivational orientation and creative activity. In the research it is shown that the persons with heuristic type of creative activity have a pronounced motivation aimed at development of the activity by one's initiative and that identifies its creative character.

In the group of stimulus-productive type dominates the expressive type of the motivational profile, related to the tendency of self-affirmation in the society, developed ambition, eccentricity and a tendency to a constant rising of aspiration level.

The presented theoretical approach is believed to have an important meaning for educational practice.

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## ĢIMENES VIDE: ĢIMENES VIDES SKALAS “REĀLĀS” FORMAS ADAPTĀCIJA LATVIJAS KULTŪRVIDĒ

### *Family Environment: the Adaptation of Ideal Form of Family Environment Scale in the Cultural Environment of Latvia*

**Aivis Dombrovskis**

Rīgas Pedagoģijas un izglītības vadības akadēmija

**Abstract.** *The tool for research the family environment, Family Environment Scale (FES) which is created by Moos and Moos in Latvia wasn't adopted, that why is important to adopt this tool in environment of Latvia, because this will be chance for specialists to use good and multidimensional tool for research of family environment.*

*The main goal of this article is to show the results of FES - R scale adaptation, this is why author in this article shows Family Environment Scale's (Moos & Moos, 2009) Real form of scale adaptation in the environment of Latvia, the way of adaptation and comparative data for adapted and original version. FES - R had been adopted by using linguistic adaptation and statistical analysis for getting the general psychometric data which are necessary for process of the test adaptation and providing of validity for adaptation version of the test. At the result of process of adaptation with some insignificant changes in items of subscales of FES – R form, but with effort keep similarity with original version, finally was gotten adaptation version the FES – R form, which is usable for research in future.*

**Keywords:** *Adaptation; Family; FES; Family Environment Scale; Latvia. Moos.*

### **Ievads**

#### ***Introduction***

Katras valsts pamatā ir tās iedzīvotāji, sabiedrība. Sabiedrību pamatā veido ģimenes. Kā norāda Ā. Karpova, tad ģimene ir sabiedrības pamatšūna (Karpova, 2006). Džonsons ar kolēģiem (Jonson et al., 2006) norāda, ka, jo stiprākas būs ģimenes, jo stiprāka būs sabiedrība. Lai gan viennozīmīgas definīcijas par to, kas ir ģimene līdz šim brīdim nav, tomēr ģimene ir sociāls institūts (Smelser, 1988) un tieši ģimene ir visvecākā sabiedriskā institūcija (DeFrain & Asay, 2007).

Rietumos ģimenes parasti tiek klasificētas pēc formas – nukleāra vai paplašināta; pēc vecāku laulības formas – monogāma, poligāma vai poliandra, vai pēc tiesiskajām mantojuma tiesībām – pēc vīriešu līnijas, pēc sieviešu līnijas vai

abām līnijām (Smelser, 1988); pēc bērnu esamības – bezbērnu ģimene, vientuļas mātes ģimene, heteroseksuāla (Karpova, 2006) un homoseksuāla ģimene jeb, kā to nosauc Knohs un Skatčs, postmoderna ģimene (Knox & Schacht, 2008).

Mūs un Mūsa (Moos & Moos, 2009) ir klasificējuši ģimenes pēc ģimenes klimata (vides) rādītājiem, izstrādājot aptauju Ģimenes vides skala (ĢVS) (Family Environment Scale (FES)). Kā norāda Adams ar kolēģiem, ĢVS ir ļoti veiksmīgi izstrādāts dažādu ģimenes aspektu izpētes instruments (Adam et al., 2010).

Mūs un Mūsa (Moos & Moos, 2009) klasificējuši ģimenes septiņos ģimenes vides tipos: uz neatkarību orientēta ģimene, uz sasniegumiem orientēta ģimene, intelektuāli kulturāli orientēta ģimene, morāli reliģiski orientēta ģimene, uz atbalstu orientēta ģimene, uz konfliktiem orientēta ģimene, dezorganizēta ģimene. Ar ĢVS aptauju nosaka ģimenes vides tipus: uz sadarbību orientēta ģimene, kurā ģimenes locekļi uzticas, atbalsta un palīdz cits citam; uz konfliktiem orientēta – savstarpējie konflikti starp ģimenes locekļiem; uz neatkarību orientēta – cik brīvi katrs ģimenes loceklis var pats pieņemt lēmumus; uz sasniegumiem orientēta ģimene; intelektuāli kulturālā orientācija ģimenē; uz aktīvu atpūtu orientēta ģimene; ģimenes vide ar morāli reliģisku uzsvāru – ģimenē svarīgi morālie un reliģiskie jautājumi un vērtības; orientācija uz kontroli – norāda, cik daudz noteikumu un likumu jāievēro ģimenes dzīvē, un orientācija uz organizāciju – kā ģimenē tiek ievērota kārtība, kā tiek plānotas ģimenes aktivitātes. Tiek izdalītas trīs ģimeņu grupas: uz personības izaugsmi orientēta ģimene, uz attiecībām orientēta ģimene, uz sistēmas uzturēšanu orientēta ģimene.

Psihologijā, pētot personību ģimenes kontekstā, ir nepieciešamība pēc ģimeņu klasifikācijas, Mūsa un Mūsas (Moos & Moos, 2009) ĢVS dod plašu ģimenes vides klasifikāciju, kā arī Latvijā jau ir sperti pirmie soļi šī instrumenta izmantošanā, ko iesākusi Ļubļenko (Ļubenko, 2011), tāpēc būtu nozīmīgi psiholoģijas zinātni papildināt ar Latvijas vidē adaptētu instrumentu ģimenes vides izpētei un klasifikācijai. Šī raksta mērķis ir iepazīstināt profesionāļus ar Ģimenes vides skalas oriģinālajiem un adaptācijas procesā iegūtajiem psihometriskajiem rādītājiem.

### **ĢVS – R adaptācija** ***Adaptation of FES – R***

#### **Instrumenta apraksts**

Ģimenes vides skala (ĢVS) (*Family Environment Scale, FES*), reālā forma "R", šī brīža ģimenes vide (ĢVS – R), kuru izveidoja Mūs un Mūsa (Moos & Moos, 2009). Latvijas kultūrvidē šis instruments vēl nav ticis adaptēts.

Ļubenko, pētot pusaudžu pašefektivitāti un ģimenes vides eksternalizētās un internalizētās problēmas Latvijā (Ļubenko, 2011), ir izmantojusi šo instrumentu

modificētā versijā, pielāgojot Likerta tipa aptaujas skalu. Ļubenko pētījumā skalas modificētā versija ir metodes jautājumu vairākkārtējs tulkojums un metodes analīze, bet tā netiek adaptēta kā pilns instruments atbilstoši oriģinālajam instrumentam Latvijas kultūrvidē.

Aptauja Ģimenes vides skala (*Family Environment Scale, FES*) sastāv no 3 pieaugušo formām (90 jautājumiem katrā formā) un vienas bērnu formas. Autors pētījumā izmanto un apraksta ĢVS–R formu, t.i. reālo ģimenes vidi, kurā respondents audzis. Bez šīs formas ir vēl divas formas – Ideālā un Gaidas. Gan ideālā, gan gaidu forma saskan (Moos & Moos, 2009) ar reālās ģimenes vides skalu, jo jautājumi pēc satura ir tādi paši kā reālajā (R) formā, tie atšķiras tikai ar laika apzīmējumu. Tāpat visām formām ir vienādas struktūras un satura atbilžu veidlapas, kurās atbildes uz jautājumiem tiek sniegtas ar norādi „P” piekrītu vai „N” nepiekrītu. Visas atbildes sakārtotas 10 apakšskalās, kas atbilžu lapā veido 10 vertikālas kolonnas (Moos & Moos, 2009):

- 1) Sadarbība (*Cohesion*) – norāda uz uzticēšanās, atbalsta un palīdzības pakāpi, kādu ģimenes locekļi nodrošina viens otram;
- 2) Ekspresija (*Expressiveness*) – norāda uz ģimenes locekļu atbalstu emociju un izjūtu tiešām, atklātām, intensīvām izpausmēm;
- 3) Konflikti (*Conflict*) – brīvi pausto dusmu un konfliktu ekspresijas summa ģimenes locekļiem kopumā;
- 4) Neatkarība (*Independence*) – norāda, kurš ģimenes loceklis ir dogmatisks, kurš ir pašpietiekams un realizē savus lēmumus;
- 5) Orientācija uz sasniegumiem (*Achievement orientation*) – norāda, cik daudz ģimenes locekļi iesaistās aktivitātēs (piemēram, skolā, darbā vai citur), kas tiek veiktas, lai gūtu sasniegumus;
- 6) Intelektuālā kultūras orientācija (*Intellectual-cultural orientation*) – norāda uz ģimenes interešu līmeni politiskās, intelektuālās un kultūras aktivitātēs;
- 7) Aktīva atpūta (*Active-recreational orientation*) – kopējais apjoms ģimenes līdzdalībai sociālās un atpūtas aktivitātēs;
- 8) Morāli reliģiskais uzsvars (*Moral-religious emphasis*) – ģimenē tiek likts uzsvars uz ētiku, reliģiskiem rakstiem un vērtībām;
- 9) Organizācija (*Organization*) – svarīguma pakāpe saprotamībai un struktūrai, plānojot ģimenes aktivitātes un atbildību;
- 10) Kontrole (*Control*) – cik daudz likumu un noteikumu tiek lietots ģimenes dzīvē.

10 apakšskalas tiek sadalītas trīs dimensijās (Moos & Moos, 2009):

I. Attiecību dimensija iekļauj 1. Sadarbības, 2. Ekspresijas un 3. Konfliktu apakšskalas;

II. Personiskās izaugsmes (vai mērķorientācijas) dimensija iekļauj 4. Neatkarības, 5. Orientācijas uz sasniegumiem, 6. Intelektuālo, 7. Aktīvas atpūtas, 8. Morāli reliģisko apakšskalas.

III. Sistēmas uzturēšanas dimensija iekļauj 9. Organizācijas un 10. Kontroles apakšskalas.

Attiecību un sistēmas uzturēšanas dimensija atspoguļo, pirmkārt, ģimenes iekšējās vides funkcionalitāti, savukārt personīgās izaugsmes dimensija atspoguļo saikni starp ģimeni un plašāku sociālo vidi (Moos & Moos, 2009).

Skalas reālā forma (Moos & Moos, 2009) palīdz aprakstīt to, kā respondents pašreiz uztver savu ģimeni. Pēc iegūtajiem datiem var izveidot ģimenes vides profilu. Izmantojot personības izaugsmes, attiecību un sistēmas uzturēšanas raksturojumus, Mūs un Mūsa (Moos & Moos, 2009) identificēja astoņus ģimeņu tipus. Lūk, šo ģimeņu iedalījums trīs dimensiju grupās:

#### *Uz personības izaugsmi orientētas ģimenes*

Šī tipa ģimenēm ir novērojama vismaz viena paaugstināta apakšskala (T vērtība  $\geq 60$ ) personības izaugsmes sfērā, izņemot aktīvas atpūtas orientāciju. Šeit iekļaujas:

- Uz neatkarību orientētas ģimenes (14,2 %; neatkarība  $\geq 60$  un neatkarība  $\geq$  sasniegumi, intelektuāli kulturāla un morāli reliģiskā apakšskalas);
- Uz sasniegumiem orientētas ģimenes (11,2 %; sasniegumi  $\geq 60$  un sasniegumi  $\geq$  intelektuāli– kulturālā un morāli reliģiskās apakšskalas).
- Morāli reliģiski orientētās ģimenes iedala divos tipos:
  - 1) Strukturētas morāli reliģiskās ģimenes (17,6 %; morāli reliģiskais  $\geq 60$ , morāli reliģiskais  $\geq$  intelektuāli kulturālais un organizācija  $> 50$ );
  - 2) Destrukturizētas morāli reliģiskās ģimenes (6,0 %; morāli reliģiskais  $\geq 60$ , morāli reliģiskais  $\geq$  intelektuāli kulturālais un organizācija  $\leq 50$ ).
- Intelektuāli–kulturāli orientēta ģimene (13,1 %; intelektuāli kulturālais  $\geq 60$ ).

#### *Uz sadarbību orientētas ģimenes:*

Šīs ģimenes nevar klasificēt kā uz personības izaugsmi orientētas ģimenes un tajās ir vismaz viena paaugstināta apakšskala attiecību jomā. Tās sevī iekļauj:

- Uz atbalstu orientētas ģimenes (15,3 %; sadarbība vai ekspresija, vai abas kopā  $\geq 60$  un vai citādākā skatījumā– sadarbība vai ekspresija  $\geq$  konflikti);
- Konfliktorientētās ģimenes (5,2 %; konflikts  $\geq 60$ ).

#### *Uz sistēmas uzturēšanu orientētas ģimenes:*

Šeit iekļaujas tās ģimenes, kuras netiek kategorizētas kā uz personības izaugsmi vai uz sadarbību orientētās ģimenes. Šajā grupā iekļaujas:

- Dezorganizētas ģimenes (7,5 %; organizācija  $\leq 50$ ).

Kā norāda metodikas autori, šajās septiņās ģimeņu kategorijās iekļaujas 90 % no ģimeņu profiliem (Moos & Moos, 2009). Oriģinālās Ģimenes vides skalas iekšējās saskaņotības rādītāji apakšskalām ir robežās no  $\alpha = 0,61$  līdz  $\alpha = 0,78$ .

### **Aizpildīšanas procedūra**

Pirmajā lapā ir aprakstīta aptaujas aizpildīšanas instrukcija, tai seko 2 lapaspuses ar 90 apgalvojumiem par ģimeni, bet beigās ir viena atbilžu lapa, kurā ir tukša atbilžu tabula ar 90 rūtiņām un atbilžu paraugiem – P patiens vai lielākoties patiens un N nepatiens vai lielākoties nepatiens un atbilstošais apgalvojums atzīmējams ar slīpkrustu „X” virs vai zem apgalvojuma numura. Respondenti tika iepazīstināti ar aptaujas aizpildīšanas prasībām, izskaidrots aizpildīšanas piemērs. Respondenti netika ierobežoti laikā, kurā viņiem bija jāaizpilda aptaujas, katrs strādāja savā ātrumā un pēc savām spējām.

### **Izlase**

Adaptācijas izlasē tiek apstrādāti un analizēti dati par 501 respondentu (N=501) vecumā no 18 līdz 27 gadiem (M= 20,33; SD= 1,94).

Pēc dzīves vietas - 38,3 % dzīvo kopā ar vecākiem - 28,9 % dzīvo savā mājvietā, bet 32,7 % dzīvo augstskolas dienesta viesnīcā. Bērni 47,7 % respondentes pavadīja dzīvojot pilsētā, bet 52,3 % laukos. Pēc ģimenes stāvokļa pētījuma veikšanas brīdī 73,5 % respondentes bija neprecētas, 6,8 % - precētas, 18,6 % dzīvoja kopā ar draugu vai draudzeni, bet 1,2 % respondentēm laulība bija šķirta.

Analizējot izlasi pēc bērnu esamības, 89,8 % respondentēm bērnu nav, bet 10,2 % ir viens vai vairāki bērni.

Lielākā respondentu grupas daļa ir gan mātei, gan tēvam no pirmās laulības (N=370, 73,9 %). Tālāk seko grupa: mātei no pirmās, tēvam no otrās laulības (N=45; 9 %), tēvam no pirmās, mātei no otrās laulības (N=29; 5,8 %), mātei cits variants, tēvam cits variants (N=26; 5,2 %) un mātei no otrās, tēvam no otrās laulības (N=14; 2,8 %). Pārējie vecāku laulību variantu sadalījumi respondentēm ir mazāki, un tie ir robežās no 1,8 % līdz 0,2 % no izlases.

Lielāko izlases daļu pēc tautības veido latvietes (N=424; 84 %), tad seko krievietes (N=57; 11,4 %), polietes (N=8; 1,6 %), baltkrievietes (N=7; 1,4 %). Citas tautības ir ļoti maz pārstāvētas: lietuvietes (N= 3; 0,6 %), čigāniete (N=1; 0,2 %) un tatāriete (N=1; 0,2 %).

### **Rezultāti**

*Ģimenes vides skalas „R” formas (ĢVS–R) lingvistiskā adaptācijas procedūra*

Aptauja tika tulkota no angļu uz latviešu valodu divas reizes. Tulkojumi tika salīdzināti un analizēti Latvijas kultūrvides kontekstā. Tika izveidota ekspertu grupa, kura veica tulkojumu analīzi. Tad iegūtais latviskais materiāls tika tulkots atpakaļ uz angļu valodu un veikta satura un jēgas salīdzināšana. Tulkojumu veica vairākas savstarpēji neatkarīgas personas, kuras pārzina gan latviešu, gan angļu valodu, komisijas sastāvā bija persona, kuras dzimtā valoda ir angļu, bet pārvalda arī latviešu valodu dzimtās valodas līmenī. Tika izvēlēts labākais tulkojums un organizēta testa pantu pārbaude pēc jēgas un formulējuma. Testa pārbaudes gaitā tika organizēta respondentu grupa, kas sastāvēja no 4 cilvēkiem, lai noskaidrotu viņu viedokli par testa pantu formulējumu skaidrību, instrukciju izpratni un nepieciešamo testa izpildes laiku (Raščevska, 2005). Rezultātā tika pieņemts lēmums par labāko tulkojumu.

#### *Ģimenes vides skalas „R” formas (ĢVS–R) psihometriskā adaptācija*

Apakšskalā *Saskaņa* pantu Kronbaha alfa = 0,77, kas ir tuvu oriģinālās versijas  $\alpha = 0,78$  (Moos & Moos, 2009). Oriģinālajai apakšskalai  $M = 6,73$ ;  $SD = 1,47$  adaptētajai versijai  $M = 0,72$ ;  $SD = 0,26$ . Diskriminācijas indekss ir robežās no 0,20 līdz 0,57, kā norāda Raščevska, tad pantu diskriminācijas indeksi nedrīkst būt ļoti tuvi nullei, bet vislabākie ir tie panti, kuru grūtības un diskriminācijas indeksi atrodas robežās no 0,2 līdz 0,8 (Raščevska, 2005).

Pantu grūtības indeksi ir robežās no 0,60 līdz 0,91. Apakšskala *Saskaņa* sastāv no: 1; 11; 21; 31; 41; 51; 61; 71; 81 pantiem.

Apakšskalā *Saskaņa* psihometriskie rādītāji uzskatāmi par atbilstošiem psihometriskajām prasībām un izmantojami turpmākajā pētnieciskajā darbā.

Izanalizējot apakšskalā *Ekspresivitāte* psihometriskos rādītājus un veicot izmaiņas apakšskalā struktūrā, 72. pants tika izslēgts no aptaujas zemā diskriminācijas indeksa dēļ ( $d_{72} = -0,02$ ), jo tas nepietiekami diferencē respondentus pēc mērāmās pazīmes (Raščevska, 2005). Pārējie panti uzrāda diskriminācijas indeksus robežās no 0,10 līdz 0,37. Pantu grūtības indeksi adaptācijas izlasei no 0,18 līdz 0,84. Adaptētās versijas  $\alpha = 0,52$ , kura tuvinās oriģinālās versijas Kronbaha alfai = 0,69. Oriģinālajai apakšskalai  $M = 5,54$ ;  $SD = 1,61$  (Moos & Moos, 2009) adaptētajai versijai  $M = 0,60$ ;  $SD = 0,20$ .

Apakšskala *Ekspresivitāte*, kas sastāv no 8 pantiem: 2; 12; 22; 32; 42; 52; 62; 82.

Rezultātā *Ekspresivitāte* tiek pieņemts lēmums apakšskalu izmantot pētniecībā.

Apakšskalā *Konflikti* oriģinālā Kronbaha  $\alpha = 0,75$  (Moos & Moos, 2009), adaptācijas versijai  $\alpha = 0,74$ . Pantu Diskriminācijas indeksi ir robežās no 0,21 līdz 0,55. Apakšskalā *Konflikti* grūtības indeksi ir robežās no 0,11 līdz 0,70. Zemākos grūtības indeksus uzrāda 53. pants „Ģimenes locekļi dažreiz viens otru sit” (grūtības indekss 0,11), un 73. pants „Ģimenes locekļi bieži cenšas viens otru

apsteigt vai pārspēt”, lai arī šie panti ir viegli, tie pietiekoši labi izskaidro faktoru *Konflikti*, jo diskriminācijas indeksi ir  $d_{53}=0,28$  un  $d_{73}=0,21$ . Oriģinālajai apakšskalai  $M = 3,18$ ;  $SD = 1,91$  adaptētajai versijai  $M = 0,32$ ;  $SD = 0,25$ .

Apakšskalas *Konflikti* psihometriskie rādītāji atbilst vispārējām psihometrisko rādītāju prasībām psiholoģiskajiem testiem (Rašcevska, 2005) un apakšskala izmantojama pētījumiem.

Apakšskalas *Neatkarība* psihometriskie rādītāji. Apakšskalas *Neatkarība* iekšējās saskaņotības rādītājs  $\alpha = 0,57$ , kas ir tuva oriģinālajai  $\alpha = 0,61$  (Moos & Moos, 2009), kas arī nav īpaši augsta (Rašcevska, 2005). Oriģinālajai apakšskalai  $M = 6,66$ ;  $SD = 1,26$  adaptētajai versijai  $M = 0,64$ ;  $SD = 0,19$ .

Apakšskalas grūtību indeksi ir robežās no 0,61 līdz 0,83, bet diskriminācijas indeksi robežās no 0,023 līdz 0,39. 24. un 54. panti tiek izņemti no apakšskalas, zemo diskriminācijas un grūtības indeksu dēļ. Rezultātā apakšskala *Neatkarība*, sastāv no 7 pantiem: 4., 14., 34., 44., 64., 74., 84.

Apakšskalas *Orientācija uz sasniegumiem* iekšējās saskaņotības rādītājs adaptācijas versijā  $\alpha = 0,44$ , kas nav ļoti augsta, bet tā ir tuvāka oriģinālajai  $\alpha = 0,64$  (Moos & Moos, 2009). Ja no skalas izņem 25., 55. un 85. pantu, tad Kronbaha alfa paaugstinās, tiek nolemts: 25., 55. un 85. pantu izņemt no aptaujas un pētījumiem izmantot apakšskalu *Orientācija uz sasniegumiem*, kas sastāv no 6 pantiem: 5., 15., 35., 45., 65., 75. Oriģinālajai apakšskalai  $M = 5,47$ ;  $SD = 1,62$  adaptētajai versijai  $M = 0,50$ ;  $SD = 0,17$ .

Apakšskalas *Intelektuāli kulturāla orientācija* psihometriskie rādītāji liecina, ka skala darbojas atbilstoši psihometrisko rādītāju prasībām, jo  $\alpha = 0,67$ , kas ir tuva oriģinālajai skalas  $\alpha = 0,78$  (Moos & Moos, 2009), bet diskriminācijas indeksi atrodas robežās no 0,20 līdz 0,44, viszemākais diskriminācijas indekss 0,20 ir 56. pantam „Ģimenē kāds spēlē mūzikas instrumentu”, bet grūtības indeksi ir robežās no 0,38 līdz 0,75. Oriģinālajai apakšskalai  $M = 5,56$ ;  $SD = 1,82$  adaptētajai versijai  $M = 0,55$ ;  $SD = 0,25$ .

Apakšskalas *Intelektuāli kulturāla orientācija* psihometriskie rādītāji ir apmierinoši un skala ir izmantojama psiholoģiskajā izpētē bez būtiskām korekcijām, saglabājot apakšskalā 9 pantus: 6; 16; 26; 36; 46; 56; 66; 76; 86.

Apakšskalas *Aktīva atpūta* psihometriskie rādītāju aprēķini liecina, ka  $\alpha = 0,71$ , kas ir pat augstāka nekā oriģinālā  $\alpha = 0,67$  (Moos & Moos, 2009). Adaptācijas procesā 7. pants tika izmainīts: „Brīvo laiku un nedēļas nogales mūsu ģimene lielākoties pavada mājās” un diskriminācijas indekss pieauga līdz 0,26, bet grūtības indekss ir 0,36. Apakšskalas *Aktīva atpūta* rādītāji ir apmierinoši un skala ir izmantojama izpētē saglabājot apakšskalā 9 pantus: 7; 17; 27; 37; 47; 57; 67; 77; 87. Oriģinālajai apakšskalai  $M = 5,33$ ;  $SD = 1,96$  adaptētajai versijai  $M = 0,50$ ;  $SD = 0,27$ .

Apakšskalas *Morāli reliģiskais uzsvars* (skat.1.tab.).

1.tab. ĢVS apakšskalas *Morāli reliģiskais uzsvars* psihometriskie rādītāji ĢVS-R adaptācijas versijai

Table 1 FES subscale *Moral-religious emphasis*, data of adaptation version for FES-R form

Panta nr.	N=501	
	Diskriminācijas indekss	Grūtības indekss
8	0,49	0,14
R18	0,49	0,20
28	0,37	0,21
R38	0,31	0,55
48	0,11	0,81
58	0,20	0,67
R68	0,09	0,23
78	0,47	0,19
88	0,14	0,39
Originālā versija	Adaptētā versija	
$\alpha = 0,78^M$	$\alpha = 0,62$	
$M = 4,75^M$	$M = 0,38$	
$SD = 2,03^M$	$SD = 0,21$	

Piezīmes. R – apgriezti kodētie panti. M - Dati no oriģinālās ĢVS (FES) rokasgrāmatas, N= 1'324 (Moos & Moos, 2009). Adaptētā versija N = 501.

Avots: Dombrovskis, 2014.

Dotā apakšskala specifiski raksturo ģimenes attiecības ar ētiku, reliģiskiem rakstiem un vērtībām. Ņemot vērā Latvijas kultūrvides vēsturisko attīstību no laika perioda PSRS ietvaros, kad reliģija un ētikas mācība tika noliegta, līdz mūsdienām, kad reliģijas un ētikas mācības ir legalizētas un sabiedrībā leģitīmas, tiek nolemts abus pantus saglabāt un izmantot aptaujas skalā, lai saglabātu apakšskalas pietuvinātību oriģinālajai apakšskalai. Arī Krievijas pētnieks Kuprijanovs, kurš ir adaptējis ĢVS Krievijā, lai izpētītu Krievijas ģimenes, norāda, ka šī apakšskala strādā vāji. To viņš pamato ar PSRS kultūrvides, politiskās ideoloģijas un vērtību ietekmi uz sabiedrību – ģimenes vērtībām (Куприянов, 1985).

Ņemot vērā šo vēsturisko specifiku, panti, kuru psihometriskie rādītāji normālā situācijā būtu vērtējami kā nepietiekoši (skat.1.tab.) un panti būtu jāizņem no aptaujas, apakšskalas saturs netika izmantīts.

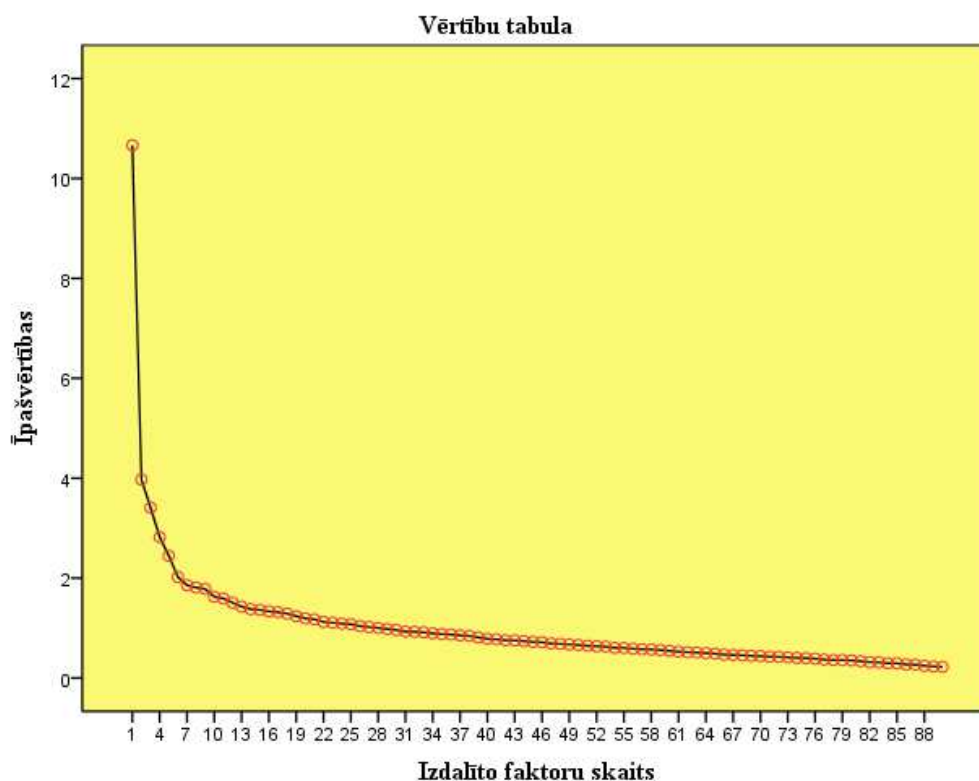
Apakšskalas *Organizēšana* iekšējās saskaņotības rādītājs  $\alpha = 0,59$ , pantu Diskriminācijas indeksi ir robežās no 0,17 līdz 0,38, bet Grūtības indeksi ir robežās no 0,47 līdz 0,86. Oriģinālajai apakšskalai  $M = 5,47$ ;  $SD = 1,9$  adaptētajai versijai  $M = 0,66$ ;  $SD = 0,19$ . Izvērtējot apakšskalas *Organizēšana* adaptācijas



versijā iegūtos psihometriskos rādītājus, tika pieņemts lēmums apakšskalū atstāt deviņu pantu: 9; 19; 29; 39; 49; 59; 69; 79; 89, sastāvā un izmantot pētniecībā.

Apakšskalas *Kontrole*  $\alpha = 0,54$ , kas ir tuva oriģinālajai  $\alpha = 0,67$ . Diskriminācijas indeksi ir robežās no 0,16 līdz 0,39, zemākie Diskriminācijas indeksi ir 50 ( $d_{50}=0,16$ ) un 90 ( $d_{90}=0,16$ ) pantiem. 50. pants: "Ģimenē ļoti stingri ievēro paradumus, ģimenes tradīcijas un iekšējos noteikumus" un 90.pants: „Es neko daudz nevaru izmainīt savas ģimenes dzīvē”, bet Grūtības indeksi ir robežās no 0,15 līdz 0,63. Oriģinālajai apakšskalai  $M = 4,26$ ;  $SD = 1,84$  adaptētajai versijai  $M = 0,40$ ;  $SD = 0,22$ . Kopumā apakšskalas *Kontrole* psihometriskie rādītāji atbilst vispārpieņemtajām psihometrisko rādītāju prasībām un apakšskala *Kontrole* ir izmantojama turpmākajā pētnieciskajā darbā.

### Faktoriālā validitāte



2.att. ĢVS-R izdalītie faktori (ar faktoru skaita ierobežojumu 10)

Fig.2 The extracted factors of FES-R with quantity limitation of 10 factors

Avots: Dombrovskis, 2014.

Pantu faktoriālā analīze tika veikta, izdalot faktorus ar Galveno komponentu analīzes metodi, un izvēlēta Varimaksa rotācijas metode ar Kaisera normalizāciju. Analizējot faktoru sākuma īpašvērtības, iegūst 28 faktorus, kuru īpašvērtība ir lielāka par 1. 28 faktoru modelis izskaidro 60,78 % no kopējās pantu variācijas. 10 faktoru modelis izskaidro tikai 36 % no kopējās variācijas un tajā neiekļaujas

22 panti. Analizējot 10 faktoru izdalīšanas attēlojumu grafiski (skat. 2.att.) var izdalīt 7 līknes lūzuma vietas, kas ļauj pieņemt, ka panti veido 7 faktoru modeli, tas pats novērojams, ja faktoru izdalīšanas procesā netiek norādīts izdalāmo faktoru skaits. Līdz ar to var secināt, ka 10 faktoru modelis nepietiekami izskaidro kopējo variāciju un faktoranalīze nav apstiprinājusies. ĢVS autori instrumenta rokasgrāmatā norāda, ka faktori vairāk ir salikti pēc loģiskā principa nevis pēc psihometrisko rādītāju izmantošanas principiem (Moos & Moos, 2009).

#### *Konstruktu validitāte*

Konstruktu validitāte tika pārbaudīta atbilstoši instrumenta oriģinālās versijas izstrādes procesā izmantotajiem kritērijiem. Mūs un Mūsa konstruktu validitātes pārbaudei izmantoja ĢVS faktorus: *Sadarbība*, *Ekspresija*, *Konflikti*, *Intelektuāli kulturālā orientācija*, *Orientācija uz aktīvu atpūtu*, *Morāli reliģiskais uzsvars* (Moos & Moos, 2009).

Konstruktu validitātes pārbaudei tika izvirzītas divas hipotēzes: 1) faktoriem *Sadarbība\_R* un *Ekspresija\_R* būtu negatīvi jākorrelē ar *Konfliktiem\_R*, 2) *Intelektuāli kulturālāi orientācijai\_R*, *Orientācijai uz aktīvu atpūtu\_R* un *Morāli reliģiskajam uzsvaram\_R* būtu jāveido savstarpēji pozitīvas korelācijas.

Iegūtie rezultāti uzrādīja, ka korelācija starp *Sadarbību\_R* un *Konfliktiem\_R* ir divpusēji statistiski nozīmīgi negatīva ( $r_s = -0,59$ ;  $p < 0,01$ ), korelācija starp *Ekspresiju\_R* un *Konfliktiem\_R* ir divpusēji statistiski nozīmīga negatīva ( $r_s = -0,34$ ;  $p < 0,01$ ), izvirzītā hipotēze ir pierādījusies. Korelācija starp *Intelektuāli kulturālo orientāciju\_R* un *Orientāciju uz aktīvu atpūtu\_R* ir divpusēji statistiski nozīmīga ( $r_s = 0,52$ ;  $p < 0,01$ ). Arī korelācija starp *Intelektuāli kulturālo orientāciju\_R* un *Morāli reliģisko uzsvaru\_R* ir divpusēji statistiski nozīmīga ( $r_s = 0,12$ ;  $p < 0,01$ ). Var secināt, ka Ģimenes vides skalas „R” formas konstruktu validitāte ir pierādīta.

Salīdzinot Ģimenes vides skalas „R” formas apakšskalu savstarpējo korelāciju ar instrumenta autoru datiem par apakšskalu savstarpējām korelācijām (gan pieaugušajiem, gan pusaudžiem), varēja novērot līdzīgus rezultātus. Instrumenta autori nav norādījuši korelācijas nozīmības līmeņus un korelācijas metodi. Mūs un Mūsa norāda, ka *Sadarbībai* jākorrelē ar *Ekspresiju*, *Intelektuāli kulturālo orientāciju*, *Organizāciju*. Pēc adaptācijas datiem *Sadarbība\_R* korrelē ar *Ekspresiju\_R* ( $r_s = 0,49$ ;  $p < 0,01$ ), autoru norādītie dati pieaugušajiem  $r = 0,40$ . Pēc adaptācijas datiem korelācija starp *Intelektuāli kulturālo orientāciju\_R* un *Sadarbību\_R*  $r_s = 0,34$ ,  $p < 0,01$ , autoru norādītie dati pieaugušajiem  $r = 0,38$ . Pēc adaptācijas datiem korelācija starp *Sadarbību\_R* un *Organizāciju\_R* ir  $r = 0,54$ ;  $p < 0,01$ , autoru norādītie dati pieaugušajiem  $r = 0,41$ . *Intelektuāli kulturālāi orientācijai* un *Orientācijai uz aktīvu atpūtu* arī būtu savstarpēji jākorrelē. Šī korelācija adaptācijas procesā:  $r_s = 0,52$ ;  $p < 0,01$ , instrumenta autoru iegūtie dati pieaugušajiem  $r = 0,45$ . Tādējādi varēja secināt, ka ĢVS „R” formas adaptētās

versijas faktoru savstarpējā korelācija ir ļoti tuva autoru (Moos & Moos, 2009) norādītajiem oriģināldatiem, kas apliecina, ka adaptētā versija kopumā ir veiksmīgi adaptēta un ir tuva oriģinālajam instrumentam.

### **Secinājumi** **Conclusion**

Izvērtējot šīs skalas iekšējo saskaņotību, faktoriālo, diverģento un konverģento validitāti, var secināt, ka adaptētā Ģimenes vides skalas „R” forma atbilst svarīgākajām psihometriskajām prasībām. Tā ir uzskatāma par valīdu un turpmāk ir izmantojama pētniecībā un praktiskajā darbā.

### **Summary**

Nowadays exist many classifications of families. The families are classified according to historical principles, for example – the dominant role of one of parents or belonging to one or another religion, by existing of children or in nowadays classification; postmodern, family of feminisation.

Psychologists, exactly in field of research, they need indicators of classification and these indicators must be adopted in specific (Latvia) environment. As useable system of family’s classification the author had found The Family Environment Scale (FES) from Moos and Moos (Moos & Moos, 2009). FES consist of three scales - real “R”, ideal “I” and expectations “E” scales. This tool of measurement for family environment hadn’t been adopted in Latvia before, that why author adopted FES – R in Latvia. The main goal of this article is to show the process and results of adaptations of FES – R.

In the process of adaptation was done linguistic adaptation and psychometric adaptation. The process of adaptation has been gone successfully and finally FES – R form had been adopted in environment of Latvia, which is close to original FES – R form and it could be used for practical researches in science.

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## APMIERINĀTĪBA AR ĢIMENES VIDĪ: ĢIMENES VIDES SKALAS “IDEĀLĀS” FORMAS ADAPTĀCIJA LATVIJAS KULTŪRVIDĒ

### *Satisfaction with Family Environment: the Adaptation of Ideal Form of Family Environment Scale in the Cultural Environment of Latvia*

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**Abstract.** *In the article “Satisfaction with Family Environment: The adaptation of Ideal form of Family Environment Scale in The cultural environment of Latvia”, author presents results and way of adaptation of Family Environment Scale – I form (FES-I) in cultural environment of Latvia, because this tool wasn’t adapted. Representative sample of research consisted from 501 respondents in age from 18 to 27 (M = 20,33; SD= 1,94). At the same time author shows how to determine satisfaction with family environment using the Satisfaction with Family Environment – Real form and FES – I form. There are used methods of statistic which are recommended for processes of tests’ adaptation, namely, Cronbach’s alpha, factorial, divergent and convergent validity, linguistic validity. The main goal was to provide a qualitative process of FES- I adaptation in cultural environment of Latvia, to provide a qualitative tool for specialists to research family environment. During the research the main psychometric indicators of the tests were calculated and the tool was successfully adapted in cultural environment of Latvia.*

**Keywords:** *Family; FES; FES – I; Ideal form; Family Environmental Scale; Latvia; Moos.*

### **Ievads**

#### **Introduction**

Mūss un Mūsa (Moos & Moos, 2009) ir klasificējuši ģimenes pēc ģimenes klimata (vides) rādītājiem, izstrādājot aptauju Ģimenes vides skala (ĢVS) (*Family Environment Scale (FES)*). Kā norāda Adams ar kolēģiem, ĢVS ir ļoti veiksmīgi izstrādāts dažādu ģimenes aspektu izpētes instruments (Adam et al., 2010).

Mūss un Mūsa (Moos & Moos, 2009) klasificējuši ģimenes septiņos ģimenes vides tipos: uz neatkarību orientēta ģimene, uz sasniegumiem orientēta ģimene, intelektuāli kulturāli orientēta ģimene, morāli reliģiski orientēta ģimene, uz

atbalstu orientēta ģimene, uz konfliktiem orientēta ģimene, dezorganizēta ģimene. Ar ĢVS aptauju nosaka ģimenes vides tipus: uz sadarbību orientēta ģimene, kurā ģimenes locekļi uzticas, atbalsta un palīdz cits citam; uz konfliktiem orientēta – savstarpējie konflikti starp ģimenes locekļiem; uz neatkarību orientēta – cik brīvi katrs ģimenes loceklis var pats pieņemt lēmumus; uz sasniegumiem orientēta ģimene; intelektuālā - kultūras orientācija ģimenē; uz aktīvu atpūtu orientēta ģimene; ģimenes vide ar morāli reliģisku uzsvāru – ģimenē svarīgi morālie un reliģiskie jautājumi un vērtības; orientācija uz kontroli – norāda, cik daudz noteikumu un likumu jāievēro ģimenes dzīvē, un orientācija uz organizāciju – kā ģimenē tiek ievērota kārtība, kā tiek plānotas ģimenes aktivitātes. Tiek izdalītas trīs ģimeņu grupas: uz personības izaugsmi orientēta ģimene, uz attiecībām orientēta ģimene, uz sistēmas uzturēšanu orientēta ģimene.

Mūsa un Mūsas (Moos & Moos, 2009) Ģimenes vides skalas Reālās vides (ĢVS - R) forma, Latvijā adaptējis A. Dombrovskis (2014), dod plašu ģimenes vides klasifikāciju un pēc šīs klasifikācijas var noteikt kādā ģimenes vidē pētāmais dzīvo, bet pēc šīs vienas skalas nav nosakāms vai pētāmais ir apmierināts ar šo vidi, vai nav apmierināts, tāpēc būtu nozīmīgi psiholoģijas zinātni papildināt ar Latvijas vidē adaptētu instrumentu ĢVS- I formu (Ģimenes Vides Skalas Ideālā forma). Salīdzinot reālo situāciju ar vēlmēm pēc ideālās situācijas, var spriest par pētāmā apmierinātību ar reālo situāciju. Ja reālā situācija sakrīt ar ideālo situāciju, tad tas norāda, ka pētāmais ir apmierināts ar reālo situāciju. Šī raksta mērķis ir iepazīstināt profesionāļus ar Ģimenes vides skalas Ideālās formas (ĢVS- I) oriģinālajiem un adaptācijas procesā iegūtajiem psihometriskajiem rādītājiem, to atbilstību vispārējām testu adaptācijas prasībām.

## **ĢVS – I adaptācija** *Adaptation of FES - I*

### **Instrumenta apraksts**

Ģimenes vides skala (ĢVS) (*Family Environment Scale, FES*), ideālā forma "I", ideālā ģimenes vide (ĢVS – I), kuru izveidoja Mūs un Mūsa (Moos & Moos, 2009), Latvijas kultūrvīdē vēl nav tikusi adaptēta.

Aptauja Ģimenes vides skala (*Family Environment Scale, FES*) sastāv no 3 pieaugušo formām: Reālā; Ideālā un Gaidas (90 jautājumiem katrā formā) un vienas bērnu formas. Autors pētījumā izmanto un apraksta ĢVS–I formu, t.i. ideālo ģimenes vidi, ģimenes vidi, kādu respondents vēlētos sev nākotnē (Moos & Moos, 2009).

Visām formām ir vienādas struktūras un satura atbilžu veidlapas, kurās atbildes uz jautājumiem tiek sniegtas ar norādi „P” piekrītu vai „N” nepiekrītu. Visas atbildes sakārtotas 10 apakšskālās, kas atbilžu lapā veido 10 vertikālas kolonnas (Moos & Moos, 2009):

- 1) Sadarbība (*Cohesion*) – norāda uz uzticēšanās, atbalsta un palīdzības pakāpi, kādu ģimenes locekļi nodrošina viens otram;
- 2) Ekspresija (*Expressiveness*) – norāda uz ģimenes locekļu atbalstu emociju un izjūtu tiešām, atklātām, intensīvām izpausmēm;
- 3) Konflikti (*Conflict*) – brīvi pausto dusmu un konfliktu ekspresijas summa ģimenes locekļiem kopumā;
- 4) Neatkarība (*Independence*) – norāda, kurš ģimenes loceklis ir dogmatisks, kurš ir pašpietiekams un realizē savus lēmumus;
- 5) Orientācija uz sasniegumiem (*Achievement orientation*) – norāda, cik daudz ģimenes locekļi iesaistās aktivitātēs (piemēram, skolā, darbā vai citur), kas tiek veiktas, lai gūtu sasniegumus;
- 6) Intelektuālā kultūras orientācija (*Intellectual-cultural orientation*) – norāda uz ģimenes interešu līmeni politiskās, intelektuālās un kultūras aktivitātēs;
- 7) Aktīva atpūta (*Active-recreational orientation*) – kopējais apjoms ģimenes līdzdalībai sociālās un atpūtas aktivitātēs;
- 8) Morāli reliģiskais uzsvars (*Moral-religious emphasis*) – ģimenē tiek likts uzsvars uz ētiku, reliģiskiem rakstiem un vērtībām;
- 9) Organizācija (*Organization*) – svarīguma pakāpe saprotamībai un struktūrai, plānojot ģimenes aktivitātes un atbildību;
- 10) Kontrole (*Control*) – cik daudz likumu un noteikumu tiek lietots ģimenes dzīvē.

10 apakšskalas tiek sadalītas trīs dimensijās (Moos & Moos, 2009):

I. Attiecību dimensija iekļauj 1. Sadarbības, 2. Ekspresijas un 3. Konfliktu apakšskalas;

II. Personiskās izaugsmes (vai mērķorientācijas) dimensija iekļauj 4. Neatkarības, 5. Orientācijas uz sasniegumiem, 6. Intelektuālo, 7. Aktīvas atpūtas, 8. Morāli reliģisko apakšskalas.

III. Sistēmas uzturēšanas dimensija iekļauj 9. Organizācijas un 10. Kontroles apakšskalas.

Attiecību un sistēmas uzturēšanas dimensija atspoguļo, pirmkārt, ģimenes iekšējās vides funkcionalitāti, savukārt personīgās izaugsmes dimensija atspoguļo saikni starp ģimeni un plašāku sociālo vidi (Moos & Moos, 2009).

Skalas reālā forma (Moos & Moos, 2009) palīdz aprakstīt to, kā respondents pašreiz uztver savu ģimeni. Pēc iegūtajiem datiem var izveidot ģimenes vides profilu. Izmantojot personības izaugsmes, attiecību un sistēmas uzturēšanas raksturojumus, Mūs un Mūsa (Moos & Moos, 2009) identificēja astoņus ģimeņu tipus. Lūk, šo ģimeņu iedalījums trīs dimensiju grupās:

Uz personības izaugsmi orientētas ģimenes

Šī tipa ģimenēm ir novērojama vismaz viena paaugstināta apakšskala (T vērtība  $\geq 60$ ) personības izaugsmes sfērā, izņemot aktīvas atpūtas orientāciju. Šeit iekļaujas:

- Uz neatkarību orientētas ģimenes (14,2 %; neatkarība  $\geq 60$  un neatkarība  $\geq$  sasniegumi, intelektuāli kulturāla un morāli reliģiskā apakšskalas);
- Uz sasniegumiem orientētas ģimenes (11,2 %; sasniegumi  $\geq 60$  un sasniegumi  $\geq$  intelektuāli– kulturālā un morāli reliģiskās apakšskalas).
- Morāli reliģiski orientētās ģimenes iedala divos tipos:
  - 1) Strukturētas morāli reliģiskās ģimenes (17,6 %; morāli reliģiskais  $\geq 60$ , morāli reliģiskais  $\geq$  intelektuāli kulturālais un organizācija  $> 50$ );
  - 2) Destrukturizētas morāli reliģiskās ģimenes (6,0 %; morāli reliģiskais  $\geq 60$ , morāli reliģiskais  $\geq$  intelektuāli kulturālais un organizācija  $\leq 50$ ).
- Intelektuāli–kulturāli orientēta ģimene (13,1 %; intelektuāli kulturālais  $\geq 60$ ).

Uz sadarbību orientētas ģimenes:

Šīs ģimenes nevar klasificēt kā uz personības izaugsmi orientētas ģimenes un tajās ir vismaz viena paaugstināta apakšskala attiecību jomā. Tās sevī iekļauj:

- Uz atbalstu orientētas ģimenes (15,3 %; sadarbība vai ekspresija, vai abas kopā  $\geq 60$  un vai citādākā skatījumā– sadarbība vai ekspresija  $\geq$  konflikti);
- Konfliktorientētās ģimenes (5,2 %; konflikts  $\geq 60$ ).

Uz sistēmas uzturēšanu orientētas ģimenes:

Šeit iekļaujas tās ģimenes, kuras netiek kategorizētas kā uz personības izaugsmi vai uz sadarbību orientētās ģimenes. Šajā grupā iekļaujas:

- Dezorganizētas ģimenes (7,5 %; organizācija  $\leq 50$ ).

Kā norāda metodikas autori, šajās septiņās ģimeņu kategorijās iekļaujas 90 % no ģimeņu profiliem (Moos & Moos, 2009). Oriģinālās Ģimenes vides skalas iekšējās saskaņotības rādītāji apakšskalām ir robežās no  $\alpha = 0,61$  līdz  $\alpha = 0,78$ .

### **Aizpildīšanas procedūra**

Pirmajā lapā ir aprakstīta aptaujas aizpildīšanas instrukcija, tai seko 2 lapaspuses ar 90 apgalvojumiem par ģimeni, bet beigās ir viena atbilžu lapa, kurā ir tukša atbilžu tabula ar 90 rūtiņām un atbilžu paraugiem – P patiens vai lielākoties patiens un N nepatiens vai lielākoties nepatiens un atbilstošais apgalvojums atzīmējams ar slīpkrustu „X” virs vai zem apgalvojuma numura. Respondenti tika iepazīstināti ar aptaujas aizpildīšanas prasībām, izskaidrots



aizpildīšanas piemērs. Respondenti netika ierobežoti laikā, kurā viņiem bija jāaizpilda aptaujas, katrs strādāja savā ātrumā un pēc savām spējām.

### Izlase

Adaptācijas izlasē tiek apstrādāti un analizēti dati par 501 respondentu (N = 501) vecumā no 18 līdz 27 gadiem (M = 20,33; SD = 1,94). Pēc dzīves vietas - 38,3 % dzīvo kopā ar vecākiem - 28,9 % dzīvo savā mājvietā, bet 32,7 % dzīvo augstskolas dienesta viesnīcā. Bērniņu 47,7 % respondentes pavadīja dzīvojot pilsētā, bet 52,3 % laukos. Pēc ģimenes stāvokļa pētījuma veikšanas brīdī 73,5 % respondentes bija neprecētas, 6,8 % - precētas, 18,6 % dzīvoja kopā ar draugu vai draudzeni, bet 1,2 % respondentēm laulība bija šķirta.

Lielāko izlases daļu pēc tautības veido latvietes (N = 424; 84 %), tad seko krievietes (N = 57; 11,4 %), polietes (N = 8; 1,6 %), baltkrievietes (N = 7; 1,4 %). Citas tautības ir ļoti maz pārstāvētas: lietuvietes (N = 3; 0,6 %), čigāniete (N = 1; 0,2 %) un tatāriete (N = 1; 0,2 %).

### Rezultāti

Ģimenes vides skalas „I” formas (ĢVS–I) lingvistiskā adaptācijas procedūra Aptauja tika tulkota no angļu uz latviešu valodu divas reizes. Tulkojumi tika salīdzināti un analizēti Latvijas kultūrvides kontekstā. Tika izveidota ekspertu grupa, kura veica tulkojumu analīzi. Tad iegūtais latviskais materiāls tika tulkots atpakaļ uz angļu valodu un veikta satura un jēgas salīdzināšana. Tulkojumu veica vairākas savstarpēji neatkarīgas personas, kuras pārzina gan latviešu, gan angļu valodu, komisijas sastāvā bija persona, kuras dzimtā valoda ir angļu, bet pārvalda arī latviešu valodu dzimtās valodas līmenī. Tika izvēlēts labākais tulkojums un organizēta testa pantu pārbaude pēc jēgas un formulējuma. Testa pārbaudes gaitā tika organizēta respondentu grupa, kas sastāvēja no 4 cilvēkiem, lai noskaidrotu viņu viedokli par testa pantu formulējumu skaidrību, instrukciju izpratni un nepieciešamo testa izpildes laiku (Raščevska, 2005). Rezultātā tika pieņemts lēmums par labāko tulkojumu.

Ģimenes vides skalas „I” formas (ĢVS–I) psihometriskā adaptācija

Apakšskalās Saskaņa – I pantu Kronbaha alfa = 0,7, kas ir tuvu oriģinālās versijas  $\alpha = 0,78$  (Moos & Moos, 2009). Oriģinālajai apakšskalai M = 8,10, SD = 1,20 adaptētajai versijai M = 0,92, SD = 0,13. Diskriminācijas indekss ir robežās no 0,17 līdz 0,50, kā norāda Raščevska, tad pantu diskriminācijas indeksi nedrīkst būt ļoti tuvi nullei, bet vislabākie ir tie panti, kuru grūtības un diskriminācijas indeksi atrodas robežās no 0,2 līdz 0,8 (Raščevska, 2005).

Pantu grūtības indeksi ir robežās no 0,82 līdz 0,99. Apakšskala Saskaņa sastāv no pantiem: 1; 11; 21; 31; 41; 51; 61; 71; 81.

Apakšskalās Saskaņa psihometriskie rādītāji uzskatāmi par atbilstošiem psihometriskajām prasībām un izmantojami turpmākajā pētnieciskajā darbā.

Izanalizējot apakšskalās Ekspresivitāte – I psihometriskos rādītājus un veicot izmaiņas apakšskalās struktūrā 12. pants un 72. pants tika izslēgti no aptaujas zemo diskriminācijas indeksu dēļ: 12.pants: „Ģimenes locekļi mājas varēs teikt jebko” ( $d_{12} = 0,09$ ) un 72. pants: „Ģimenes locekļi parasti rūpīgi apsvērs to, ko viņi saka viens otram” ( $d_{72} = 0,06$ ), jo tie nepietiekami diferencē respondentus pēc mērāmās pazīmes (Raščevska, 2005). Pārējie panti uzrāda diskriminācijas indeksus robežās no 0,13 līdz 0,25. Pantu grūtības indeksi adaptācijas izlasei no 0,23 līdz 0,89. Adaptētās versijas  $\alpha = 0,43$ , bet oriģinālās versijas Kronbaha alfa = 0,69. Oriģinālajai apakšskalai  $M = 6,67$ ,  $SD = 1,49$  (Moos & Moos, 2009) adaptētajai versijai  $M = 0,71$ ,  $SD = 0,17$ . Apakšskala Ekspresivitāte – I sastāv no 7 pantiem: 2; 22; 32; 42; 52; 62; 82.

Neraugoties uz zemo Kronbaha alfu adaptētajā versijā, bet, lai saglabātu ĢVS-I pietuvinātu oriģinālajai ĢVS-I struktūrai, tika pieņemts lēmums: Ekspresivitāte - I apakšskalu izmantot pētniecībā.

Apakšskalās Konflikti - I oriģinālā Kronbaha  $\alpha = 0,75$  (Moos & Moos, 2009), adaptācijas versijai  $\alpha = 0,65$ . Pantu diskriminācijas indeksi atrodas robežās no 0,08 līdz 0,43, bet pantu grūtības indeksi atrodas robežās no 0,02 līdz 0,48. Vissliktāko pantu diskriminācijas indeksu otrajā adaptācijas versijā uzrāda 13. pants: „Ģimenes locekļi visai reti atklāti dusmosies” ( $d_{13} = 0,08$ ). Tāpēc 13. pants no apakšskalās tiek izslēgts, jo šī panta diskriminācijas indekss ir ļoti zems un nepietiekami diferencē respondentus pēc mērāmās pazīmes (Raščevska, 2005). Apakšskalās Konflikti - I grūtības indeksi ir robežās no 0,02 līdz 0,48. Zemāko grūtības indeksu uzrāda 53. pants „Ģimenes locekļi dažreiz viens otru sitīs” (grūtības indekss 0,02), lai šis pants ir viegls, tas pietiekoši labi izskaidro faktoru Konflikti - I, jo diskriminācijas indeksi ir  $d_{53} = 0,43$ . Oriģinālajai apakšskalai  $M = 2,55$ ,  $SD = 1,54$  adaptētajai versijai  $M = 0,08$ ,  $SD = 0,14$ . Apakšskala Konflikti – I sastāv no pantiem: 3; 23; 33; 43; 53; 63; 73; 83.

Apakšskalās Konflikti - I psihometriskie rādītāji atbilst vispārējām psihometrisko rādītāju prasībām psiholoģiskajiem testiem (Raščevska, 2005) un apakšskala izmantojama pētījumiem.

Apakšskalās Neatkarība – I psihometrisko rādītāju analīze: adaptācijas versijā diskriminācijas indeksi atrodas robežās no 0,02 līdz 0,26. Viszemākie diskriminācijas indeksi ir 4., 14., 44., 64., 74., 84. pantiem, pantu grūtības indeksi atrodas robežās no 0,21 līdz 0,91. Sakarā ar zemiem diskriminācijas indeksiem no apakšskalās Neatkarība - I tiek izņemts 44. pants „Mūsu ģimenē viss piederēs visiem un būs ļoti maza personīgā telpa” ( $d_{44} = 0,02$ ), 64. pants „Ģimenē tiks respektēts un atbalstīts citu viedoklis un vēlmes” ( $d_{64} = 0,09$ ), 74. pants „Ģimenē būs jāsaskaņo un jāvienojas par vienu kopējo viedokli” ( $d_{74} = 0,04$ ) un 84.pants „Ģimenē neatbalstīs viedokļu dažādību” ( $d_{84} = 0,02$ ). Apakšskala uzrāda ļoti

zemu iekšējās saskaņotības koeficientu Kronbaha alfa = 0,33. Apakšskalas Neatkarība - I oriģinālā Kronbaha alfa ir 0,61, kas tikai nedaudz pārsniedz 0,5. Tomēr, kā norāda Raščevska, tad reizēm personības testos ir pieļaujama Kronbaha alfa, kas ir zemāka par 0,5, tāpat viņa norāda, ka skalām ar lielāku pantu skaitu ir potenciāla iespēja uzrādīt labāku iekšējās saskaņotības indeksu (Raščevska, 2005), bet dotā apakšskala sastāv no 5 pantiem: 4; 14; 24; 34; 54. Oriģinālajai apakšskalai  $M = 7,03$ ,  $SD = 1,24$  adaptētajai versijai  $M = 0,55$ ,  $SD = 0,22$ . Apakšskala Neatkarība – I izmantojama pētniecībā.

Orientācija uz sasniegumiem – I pantu diskriminācijas indeksi ir robežās no – 0,01 līdz 0,23 un pantu grūtības indeksi robežās no 0,13 līdz 0,93. Viszemākos diskriminācijas indeksus uzrāda 25. pants "Ģimenē mēs „neskaitīsim naudu otra makā” ( $d_{25} = -0,01$ ), 55. pants „Ģimenē reti uztrauksimies par ģimenes locekļu karjeras iespējām, atzīmēm skolā utt., būs labi tā kā ir” ( $d_{55} = 0,08$ ), 85. pants „Ģimenes locekļu sasniegumi vienmēr tiks salīdzināti ar citu cilvēku sasniegumiem darbā, mācībās utt.” ( $d_{85} = 0,03$ ). Šie trīs panti tiek izņemti no aptaujas zemo pantu diskriminācijas indeksu dēļ. Arī 15. un 75. pants uzrāda zemus pantu diskriminācijas indeksus: 15. pants: „Ģimenei būs ļoti svarīgi tikt dzīvē uz priekšu” ( $d_{15} = 0,14$ ) un 75. pants: „Padari darbu un tikai tad domā par izklaidi!” – tas kļūs par ģimenes likumu” ( $d_{75} = 0,13$ ). Tomēr 15. un 75. pants tiek atstāti aptaujā, lai maksimāli saglabātu adaptētās versijas pietuvinātību oriģinālajai versijai. Iekšējās saskaņotības rādītājs Kronbaha alfa = 0,40, oriģinālā Kronbaha alfai = 0,64. Apakšskala Orientācija uz sasniegumiem – I sastāv no pantiem: 5; 15; 35; 45; 65; 75. Oriģinālajai apakšskalai  $M = 7,11$ ,  $SD = 1,44$  adaptētajai versijai  $M = 0,52$ ;  $SD = 0,16$ .

Tiek pieņemts lēmums, ka ĢVS-I formas apakšskala Orientācija uz sasniegumiem - I izmantojama turpmākajos pētījumos.

Apakšskalas Intelektuāli kulturāla orientācija - I psihometriskie rādītāji: Pantu diskriminācijas indeksi atrodas robežās no 0,21 līdz 0,41, bet pantu grūtības indeksi atrodas robežās no 0,45 līdz 0,91, kas ir uzskatāmi par labiem. Iekšējās saskaņotības rādītājs - standartizētā Kronbaha alfa = 0,63, bet apakšskalas oriģinālā Kronbaha alfa ir 0,78. Oriģinālajai apakšskalai  $M = 5,84$ ;  $SD = 1,65$  adaptētajai versijai  $M = 0,80$ ;  $SD = 0,20$ . Apakšskala sastāv no 9 pantiem: 6; 16; 26; 36; 46; 56; 66; 76; 86.

Tiek pieņemts lēmums: pamatojoties uz to, ka ĢVS - I formas apakšskala Intelektuāli kulturāla orientācija - I uzrāda labus psihometriskos skalas rādītājus, skalu izmantot turpmākajā pētnieciskajā darbā.

Apakšskalas Aktīva atpūta - I psihometriskie rādītāji: Pantu diskriminācijas indeksi ir robežās no 0,27 līdz 0,50, bet pantu grūtības indeksi ir no 0,60 līdz 0,91, kas atbilst labiem psihometriskajiem rādītājiem pēc vispārpieņemtajām prasībām testu adaptācijai. Apakšskalas iekšējās saskaņotības rādītājs Kronbaha alfa = 0,66, apakšskalas oriģinālā Kronbaha alfa = 0,67. Oriģinālajai apakšskalai  $M = 7,70$ ;

SD = 1,41 (Moos & Moos, 2009), adaptētajai versijai M = 0,83; SD = 0,19. Apakšskala sastāv no 9 pantiem: 7; 17; 27; 37; 47; 57; 67; 77; 87. Apakšskalas psihometriskie, adaptētās versijas, rādītāji ir ļoti tuvi oriģinālajiem psihometriskajiem rādītājiem, tāpēc tiek nolemts, ka apakšskala Aktīva atpūta - I ir izmantojama turpmākajā pētnieciskajā darbā.

ĢVS-I apakšskalas Morāli reliģiskais uzsvars – I pantu psihometriskā analīze: Pantu diskriminācijas indeksi ir robežās no 0,09 līdz 0,50, bet pantu grūtības indeksi ir robežās no 0,26 līdz 0,81, viszemāko pantu diskriminācijas indeksu uzrāda 68. pants ( $d_{68} = 0,09$ ), tāpēc tiek nolemts 68. pantu izslēgt no apakšskalas.

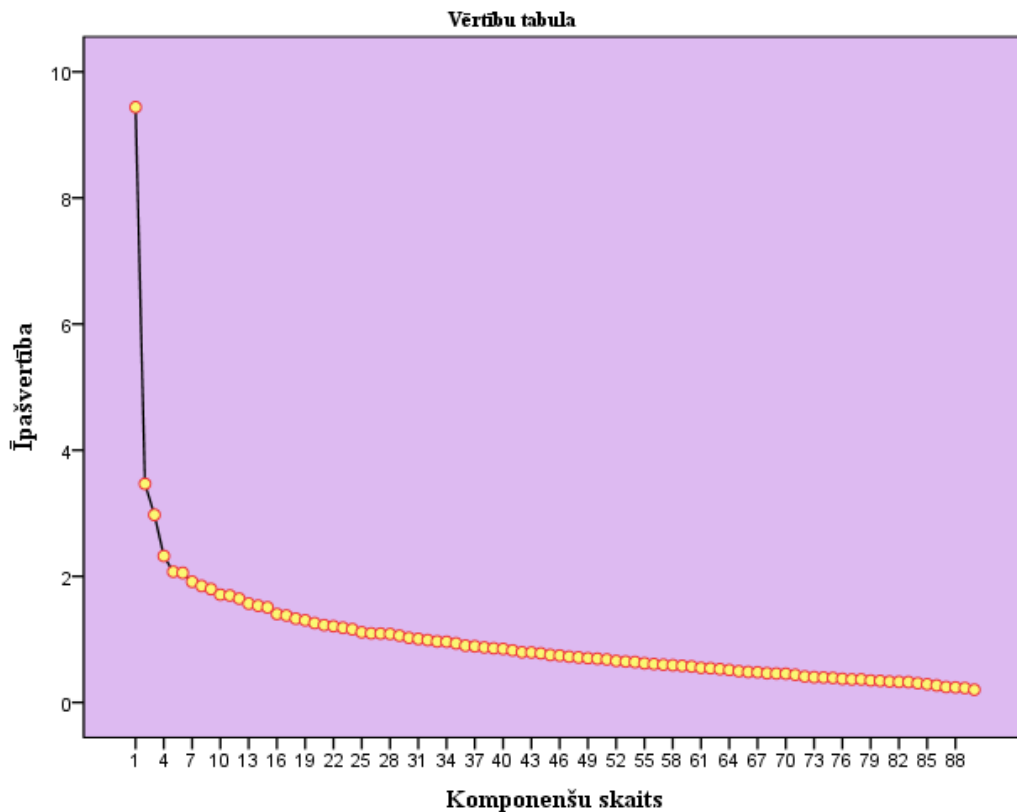
Apakšskalas iekšējās saskaņotības rādītājs - standartizētā Kronbaha alfa = 0,68, bet apakšskalas oriģinālā Kronbaha alfa = 0,78. Oriģinālajai apakšskalai M = 5,76; SD = 2,22 (Moos & Moos, 2009), adaptētajai versijai M = 0,49; SD = 0,24. Apakšskala sastāv no 8 pantiem: 8; 18; 28; 38; 48; 58; 78; 88. Tiek nolemts, ka apakšskala Morāli reliģiskais uzsvars – I atbilst vispārpieņemtajām testu adaptācijas psihometriskajām prasībām un ir izmantojama turpmākajā pētnieciskajā darbā.

ĢVS-I apakšskalas Organizēšana - I psihometrisko rādītāju analīze uzrāda, ka pantu diskriminācijas indeksi ir robežās no 0,09 līdz 0,36, bet pantu grūtības indeksi ir robežās no 0,53 līdz 0,94. Apakšskalas iekšējās saskaņotības rādītāji Kronbaha alfa = 0,56, apakšskalas Organizēšana - I oriģinālā Kronbaha alfa = 0,76. Oriģinālajai apakšskalai M = 6,33; SD = 1,88 (Moos & Moos, 2009), adaptētajai versijai M = 0,84; SD = 0,15. Izvērtējot apakšskalas Organizēšana - I adaptācijas versijā iegūtos psihometriskos rādītājus, tika pieņemts lēmums apakšskalu atstāt deviņu pantu: 9; 19; 29; 39; 49; 59; 69; 79; 89, sastāvā un izmantot pētniecībā.

ĢVS-I apakšskalas Kontrole - I psihometriskie rādītāji: Pantu diskriminācijas indeksi ir robežās no -0,01 līdz 0,23, bet Grūtības indeksi robežās no 0,09 līdz 0,82. viszemākie diskriminācijas indeksi ir 10 pantam "Ģimenes locekļi reti centīsies izkomandēt viens otru" un 90 pantam „Es neko daudz nevaru izmainīt savas ģimenes dzīvē” - ( $d_{10} = 0,07$ ;  $d_{90} = -0,01$ ), šos pantus izņem no apakšskalas to zemo diskriminācijas indeksu dēļ. Apakšskalas Kontrole - I iekšējās saskaņotības rādītājs standartizētā Kronbaha alfa = 0,4, bet oriģinālā Kronbaha alfa = 0,67. Oriģinālajai apakšskalai M = 3,78; SD = 1,75 (Moos & Moos, 2009), adaptētajai versijai M = 0,36; SD = 0,18. Apakšskala Kontrole – I sastāv no 6 pantiem: 20; 30; 40; 50; 60; 70; 80. Lai gan Standartizētā Kronbaha alfa ir zema tomēr, ņemot vērā Raščevskas norādi, ka ir arī pieļaujami pētījumi, kuriem KRONBaha alfa ir zemāka par 0,5 (Raščevska, 2005), tiek nolemts, ka apakšskala Kontrole - I izmantojama turpmākajā pētnieciskajā darbā.

### Faktoriālā validitāte

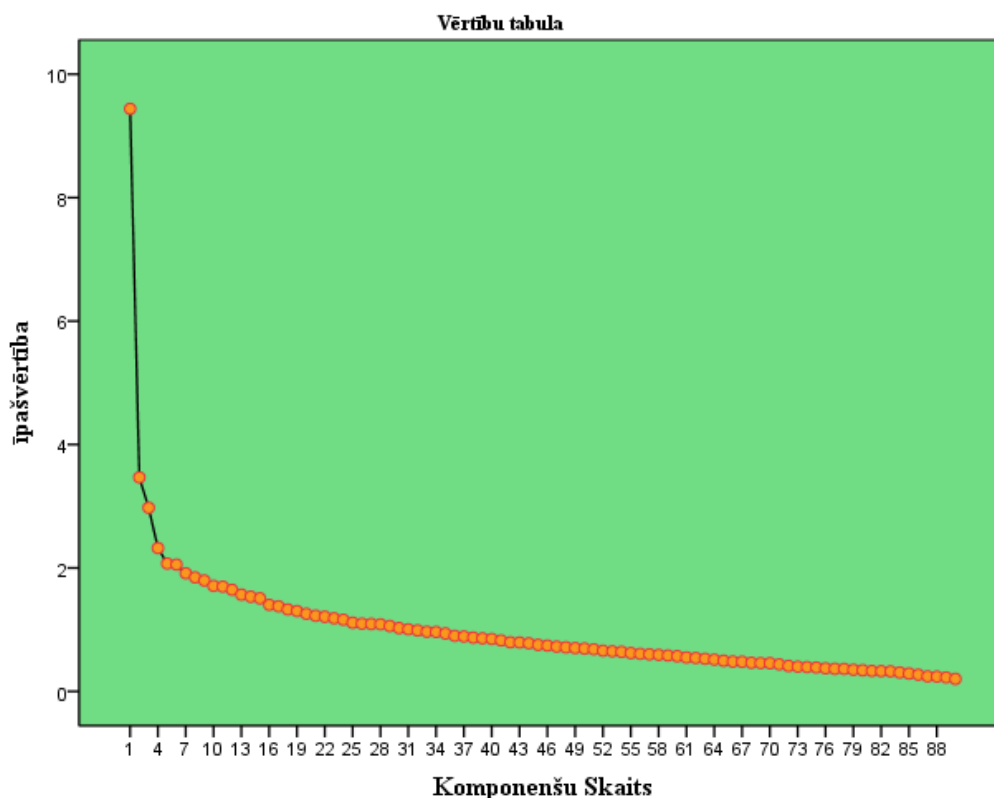
Pantu faktoriālā analīze tika veikta ar Galveno komponentu analīzes metodi, izvēlēta Varimaksa rotācijas metode ar Kaisera normalizāciju. Analizējot faktoru sākuma īpašvērtības iegūst 31 faktoru, kuru īpašvērtība ir lielāka par 1. 31 faktora modelis izskaidro 62,76 % no kopējās pantu variācijas. Izdalot 10 faktoru modeli (skat.2. att.), tas izskaidro tikai 32,89 % no kopējās variācijas. 10 faktoru modeli neiekļaujas 32 panti. Analizējot 10 faktoru izdalīšanas attēlojumu grafiski var izdalīt 5 līknes lūzuma vietas, kas ļauj pieņemt pieņēmumu, ka panti veido 5 faktoru modeli, tas pats novērojams, ja faktoru izdalīšanas procesā netiek norādīts (ierobežots) izdalāmo faktoru skaits (skat. 1.att.). Tiek secināts, ka 10 faktoru modelis nepietiekami izskaidro kopējo variāciju un faktoranalīze nav apstiprinājusies. Kā jau norādīts iepriekš, ĢVS autori instrumenta rokasgrāmatā ziņo, ka faktori vairāk ir salikti pēc loģiskā principa nevis pēc psihometrisko rādītāju izmantošanas principiem (Moos & Moos, 2009).



1.att. ĢVS-I izdalītie faktori (bez faktoru skaita ierobežojuma)

Fig.2 The extracted factors of FES-I without quantity limitation of factors

Avots: Dombrovskis, 2014.



2.att. ĢVS-I izdalītie faktori (ar faktoru skaita ierobežojumu 10)

Fig.2 The extracted factors of FES-I with quantity limitation of 10 factors

Avots: Dombrovskis, 2014.

### Konstruktu validitāte

Konstruktu validitāte tika pārbaudīta atbilstoši tiem kritērijiem, kādi ir izmantoti instrumenta oriģinālajā versijā, izstrādājot metodi. Mūs un Mūsa konstruktu validitātes pārbaudei izmantoja ĢVS-I faktoros Sadarbība - I, Ekspresija - I, Konflikti - I, Intelektuāli kulturālā orientācija - I, Orientācija uz aktīvu atpūtu - I, Morāli reliģiskais uzsvars - I (Moos & Moos, 2009).

Konstruktu validitātes pārbaudei tiek izvirzītas divas hipotēzes: 1) faktoriem Sadarbība - I un Ekspresija - I būtu negatīvi jākorrelē ar Konfliktiem - I, 2) Intelektuāli kulturālajai orientācijai - I, Orientācijai uz aktīvu atpūtu - I un Morāli reliģiskajam uzsvaram - I būtu jāveido savstarpēji pozitīvas korelācijas.

Iegūtie rezultāti: korelācija starp Sadarbību - I un Konfliktiem - I ir divpusēji statistiski nozīmīgi negatīva ( $r_s = -0,37$ ;  $p < 0,01$ ) un korelācija starp Ekspresija - I un Konfliktiem - I ir divpusēji statistiski nozīmīga negatīva ( $r_s = -0,21$ ;  $p < 0,01$ ), izvirzītā hipotēze ir pierādījusies. Korelācija starp Intelektuāli – kulturālo orientāciju - I un Orientāciju uz aktīvu atpūtu - I ir divpusēji statistiski nozīmīga ( $r_s = -0,43$ ;  $p < 0,01$ ) un arī starp Intelektuāli – kulturālo orientāciju - I un Morāli reliģisko uzsvaru - I ir divpusēji statistiski nozīmīga ( $r_s = -0,12$ ;  $p < 0,01$ ). No

iegūtajiem rezultātiem var secināt, ka ĢVS-I formas konstruktū validitāte ir pierādīta.

Tika salīdzināti ĢVS-I formas apakšskalū savstarpējās korelācijas ar instrumenta autoru datiem par apakšskalū savstarpējām korelācijām. Instrumenta autori gan nav norādījuši korelācijas nozīmības līmeņus un metodi. Mūs un Mūsa norāda (Moos & Moos, 2009), ka Sadarbībai jākorelē ar Ekspresiju, Intelektuāli kulturālo orientāciju, Organizāciju. Pēc adaptācijas datiem Sadarbība - I korelē ar Ekspresiju - I ( $r_s = 0,25$ ;  $p < 0,01$ ), autoru norādītie dati pieaugušajiem ( $r = 0,40$ ). Korelācija starp Intelektuāli kulturālo orientāciju - I un Sadarbību - I ( $r_s = 0,35$ ;  $p < 0,01$ ), autoru norādītie dati pieaugušajiem  $r = 0,38$ . Korelācija starp Sadarbību - I un Organizāciju - I ( $r_s = 0,39$ ;  $p < 0,01$ ), autoru norādītie dati pieaugušajiem  $r = 0,41$ . Intelektuāli kulturālajai orientācijai - I un Orientācijai uz aktīvu atpūtu - I arī būtu savstarpēji jākorelē. Šī korelācija adaptācijas procesā:  $r_s = 0,43$ ;  $p < 0,01$ .

Tādējādi var secināt, ka ĢVS-I adaptētās versijas faktoru savstarpējā korelācija ir ļoti tuva autoru (Moos & Moos, 2009) norādītajiem oriģināldatiem, kas apliecina, ka adaptētā versija kopumā ir veiksmīgi adaptēta un ir tuva oriģinālajam instrumentam.

1.tab. ĢVS - I testa – retesta rezultāti.

Tab.1 FES – I results of Test – Retest

Pētījuma instruments	Apakšskalās	Normālie parametri		Kolmogorova-Smirnova Z tests	Divpusējās nozīmības līmenis
		Vidējie	Standartnovirze		
ĢVS - I	Sadarbība I	0,92	0,13	7,13	$p < 0,01$
	Ekspresija I	0,71	0,17	3,55	$p < 0,01$
	Konflikti I	0,08	0,14	8,03	$p < 0,01$
	Neatkarība I	0,54	0,22	4,17	$p < 0,01$
	Orientācija uz sasniegumiem I	0,52	0,16	3,13	$p < 0,01$
	Intelektuāli kulturālā orientācija I	0,76	0,20	3,94	$p < 0,01$
	Aktīva atpūta I	0,83	0,19	4,90	$p < 0,01$
	Morāli reliģiskais uzsvārs I	0,49	0,26	2,70	$p < 0,01$
	Organizēšana I	0,84	0,15	5,33	$p < 0,01$
	Kontrole I	0,36	0,18	3,32	$p < 0,01$

### Secinājumi Conclusion

Izvērtējot šīs skalās iekšējo saskaņotību, faktoriālo, diverģento un konverģento validitāti var secināt, ka adaptētā ĢVS-I atbilst svarīgākajām testu psihometriskajām prasībām (Raščevska, 2005). Tā ir uzskatāma par valīdu un turpmāk ir izmantojama pētniecībā un praktiskajā darbā.

## Summary

In the article "Satisfaction with Family Environment: The adaptation of Ideal form of Family Environment Scale in The cultural environment of Latvia", author presents with results and way of adaptation of Family Environment Scale – I form (FES-I) in cultural environment of Latvia, because this tool wasn't adapted. Representative sample of research make up 501 respondents in age from 18 to 27 ( $M = 20,33$ ;  $SD = 1,94$ ). At the same time author shows how to determine satisfaction with family environment using the Satisfaction with Family Environment – Real form and FES – I form.

In the process of adaptation are compared the results gotten during the adaptation with original FES – I tool designed by Moos and Moos.

Subscale Cohesion – I consist of items: 1; 11; 21; 31; 41; 51; 61; 71; 81. Apakšskala Expressiveness – I consist of 7 items: 2; 22; 32; 42; 52; 62; 82. Subscale Conflict – I consist of 8 items: 3; 23; 33; 43; 53; 63; 73; 83. Subscale Independence – I consist of 5 items: 4; 14; 24; 34; 54. Subscale Achievement orientation – I consist of items: 5; 15; 35; 45; 65; 75. Subscale Intellectual – cultural orientation- I consist of 9 items: 6; 16; 26; 36; 46; 56; 66; 76; 86. Subscale Active – recreational orientation - I consist of 9 items: 7; 17; 27; 37; 47; 57; 67; 77; 87. FES - I Subscale Moral – religious emphasis – I consist of 8 items: 8; 18; 28; 38; 48; 58; 78; 88. Subscale Organization - I consist of 9 items: 9; 19; 29; 39; 49; 59; 69; 79; 89. FES- I Subscale Control - I consist of 6 items: 20; 30; 40; 50; 60; 70; 80.

At conclusion can say that the FES – I the main methods of statistic which are recommended for processes of tests' adaptation - Cronbach alpha; factorial, divergent and convergent validity, linguistic validity is appropriated requirements and tool can be used for future research.

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# TEHNOFERENCE, APMIERINĀTĪBAS AR PĀRA ATTIECĪBĀM SAISTĪBA AR KONFLIKTA VADĪBAS STRATĒGIJAS IZVĒLI

## *Technoference, Couple's Relationship Satisfaction Correlation Between Conflict Management Strategies Choice*

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**Abstract.** *The aim of this scientific research article is to describe the satisfaction with pairs' relationship and conflict management strategies choice correlation between technoference. Pairs' relationship, their formation and long-term existence is influenced by different factors, however, important to prescribe their existence is both partners' satisfaction with them. Quality of the relationship depends on overall life satisfaction. Studies on satisfaction with the pairs relations have a tendency to grow, as evidenced by the number of research databases. For example, in 2015 the database APAPsychNet they are 32 studies, but by June 2016 already 20 studies of the relationship, which are studied more new aspects that are not so far been adequately studied. Studies have been conducted on the use of technology devices impact on pairs' relationships satisfaction with the relationship (for example, Sidelinger, Avash, et.al., 2008, Coyne, et al., 2011). Available sources is a study that analyzes satisfaction with the pairs' relationships correlation with technoference (technical devices in use caused by disruption in the pairs mutual communication), which leads to the conclusion that in this perspective the topic has not yet been adequately studied (Coyne McDaniel, 2016). This study will be determined not only technoference correlation with the satisfaction of pairs relationship and conflict management strategies choice of partners, but will also explore what device causing the most disruption and whether there is technoference correlation with conflict management strategies.*

**Keywords:** *relationship satisfaction, conflict management strategies, technoference.*

### **Ievads**

#### ***Introduction***

Pēdējos gados ir noticis sprādziens tehnoloģiju izmantošanā ikdienā, arī ģimenes sadzīvē, jo tiek bieži lietots internets, mobilais tālrunis, klēpjdators, planšete un sazināšanās tiešsaistē, vairākiem ir izveidots profils sociālajā vietnē.

Tehnoloģijas ierīču lietošana pāru saskarsmē ievieš partneru tehnoloģijas izmantošanas ieplūšanu vai pārtraukumus. Tehnoference var notikt jebkura veida starppersonu attiecībās, tā “aci pret aci” sarunās veido pārtraukumus tad, kad partneris pārbauda ierīci, ziņu plūsmu utt., tajā brīdī viņš nav sapratis mirkļa nozīmību un veidojas konflikts (Coyne & McDaniel, 2016). Konflikts var veidoties, kad partneris nejūtas saprasts un novērtēts (Berna group, 2011).

Pētījumā (Coyne et al., 2011) tika noteikti tehnoloģiju veidi, kādus biežāk pāri izmanto, jāatzīmē, ka tika izpētīta vienas ierīces izmantošana, bet tehnoference ir daudzšķautņaina, tā nav tikai kā vienkārša sazināšanās ar citiem, piemēram, indivīdi var pārbaudīt e-pastu, spēlēt spēles, vērot video, klausīties mūziku, iepirkties tiešsaitē, noskaidrot laika apstākļus u.tml., vairāki īsi pārtraukumi varētu būt arī dēļ ierīču apgaismojuma, skaņām un paziņojumiem. Citi pētījumi parāda, ka tehnoloģiju izmantošana pati par sevi ne vienmēr var būt problemātiska romantiskās attiecībās (piemēram, Coyne et al., 2012) konstatēts, ka videospēlēs pavadītais laiks nebija tieši saistīts ar negatīviem rezultātiem romantiskās attiecībās, bet attiecību problēmas var izraisīt konfliktu daudzums par spēļu biežumu, laiku un nekvalitatīvu klātbūtni. Piemēram, kad viens partneris ilgi spēlē videospēles katru dienu, var izraisīt konfliktu un ietekmēt neapmierinātības ar pāru attiecībām veidošanos (Coyne et al., 2012)

Ņemot vērā iepriekš minētos pētījumus, šī pētījuma mērķis ir izpētīt vai pastāv sakarība apmierinātībai ar pāru attiecībām un *tehnoferencei* un vai pastāv sakarība apmierinātībai ar pāra attiecībām un konflikta vadības stratēģijai izvēlei.

### **Pētījuma teorētiskie aspekti** *Theoretical Aspects*

Pētnieki ir sākuši izvērtēt, kā tehnoloģijas var traucēt vai palīdzēt partneriem un laulātajiem satuvināties vienam ar otru. Nesen pētījumā konstatēts, ka lielākā daļa ģimenes locekļu domā, ka tehnoloģiju ietekmei ir bijis pozitīvs raksturs uz viņu ģimenes dzīvi, un tikai 18 % dalībnieku, ka tās pasliktina pāru attiecības (Barna Group, 2011). Tehnoloģijas ļauj pāriem kontaktēties visu dienu (Pettigrew, 2009) un panākt, lai viens otru mierinātu, ja partneris piedzīvo stresu (Dietmar, 2005). Bez tam daži pētījumi liecina, ka tehnoloģijas palīdz satuvināties ar biežu uzmanības pievēršanu viens otram, kas pozitīvi ietekmē apmierinātību ar attiecībām (Sidelinger, Avash, Godorhazy, & Tibbles, 2008) un komunikāciju (Coyne, Stockdale, Busby, Iverson, & Grant, 2011). Lai gan šie pētījumi liecina, ka tehnoloģiju lietošanai var būt pozitīva ietekme attiecībās, daži pētījumi tomēr liecina par pretējo, ka tehnoloģiju izmantošana ikdienā var veidot problēmas romantiskās attiecībās, palielinot konfliktus un izraisot neapmierinātību ar attiecībām (Ahlstrom, Lundberg, u.c., 2012; Coyne et al., 2012.; Schade, Sandberg, Bean, Busby, & Coyne, 2013). Tehnoloģiju izmantošana ir kļuvusi

uzbāzīga ikdienas dzīvē. jo kļūst tik nozīmīga, ka indivīdiem sāk rasties problēmas ar draugiem un ģimenes locekļiem (Elphinston & Noller, 2011; Gentile, Coyne, & Bricolo, 2013).

Agresijas izlāde interneta vidē ļauj atslābināties, tādējādi, samazinot psiholoģisko un fizisko vardarbību partneru attiecībās, kas bija pretēji gaidītajiem pētījuma rezultātiem (Schnurr, Mahatmya, & Basche, 2013).

Pētījumi parāda, ka cilvēki mēģina kontrolēt tehnoloģiju izmantošanu un iesaisti “aci pret aci” komunikācijas laikā, bet izjūt grūtības atteikties pārbaudīt savu ierīci (Jarvenpaa & Lang, 2005., Middleton & Cukier, 2006; Oulasvirta, Rattenbury, Ma, & Raita 2012.; Rainie & Keeter, 2006, in Coyne et al., 2011). 38 % no pētījuma dalībniekiem ziņoja, ka īsziņu vai e-pastu sūtīšana notikusi laikā, kad bijušas sarunas ar saviem partneriem (Coyne et al., 2011).

Veiktie pētījumi liecina, ka tehnoloģijas var traucēt attiecības, jo viena ceturtā un vairāk no Amerikas pieaugušajiem ir izjutuši, ka tūlīt ir jāatbild uz telefona zvanu pat tad, kad vajag pārtraukt maltīti vai tikšanos (piemēram, Rainie & Keeter, 2006).

Pētījumi atklāja, ka mobilo tālrunu izmantošana nojauc robežas starp darbu un mājām, kā rezultātā, rodas negatīvs noskaņojums, un neapmierinātība ar ģimenes dzīvi (Chesley 2005; Mazmanian et al., 2005). Darba ņēmēji bieži rada izjūtu, ka kontrolē ar tehnoloģiju un ierīču izmantošanu, bet pētnieki iebilst, ka šī kontroles izjūta ir vairāk kā ilūzija (Middleton & Cukier, 2006). Pētījumi liecina, ka daži tehnoloģijas izmantošanas veidi ir uzbāzīgi un traucē attiecībām ikdienas dzīvē.

Apmierinātība ar attiecībām termins psiholoģijā norāda uz to, cik persona ir laimīga konkrētajās attiecībās (Rusbult, Martz, & Agnew, 1998). Būtībā apmierinātības funkcija ir kā globāls attiecību „izjūtu termometrs”. Apmierinātība ar attiecībām, vispārēji, ir kā konstruktors, ar ko var izpētīt saikni starp attiecību kvalitāti un mērķu progresu (Hendrick, 1988; Bradbury, Fincham, & Beach, 2000). Apmierinātībai ar pāru attiecībām definēta noteikta nozīme vai tā saucamais „uzskats” (daži cilvēki caurmērā ir vairāk apmierināti ar attiecībām, nekā pārējie), vienlaikus termina izpratnē kā galvenā sastāvdaļa jāmin apmierinātības ar attiecībām svārstīgums, atkarībā no tā, kāda tā ir patreizējā brīdī (Bradbury et al., 2000).

Pētījumu rezultāti parāda, ka apmierinātību ar pāru attiecībām definē kā galveno novērtējumu laulībai vai tuvām attiecībām, apmierinātību ar pāru attiecībām var ietekmēt konfliktu biežums (Fincham & Bradbury, 1987).

Pāru attiecībās nepieciešama orientācija uz otru cilvēku (māka saprast viņu, būt uzmanīgam pret otru, ņemot vērā viņa gaumi, intereses un vēlmes), saskarsme bez konfliktiem, uzticēšanās un empātija (patiesa līdzpārdzīvošana otram, emocionāla atsaucība attiecībā uz viņa likstām, aktīva palīdzība), intīmā dzīve un mājas, kas ir ne tikai apdzīvojamā platība, bet gan vieta, kur var atpūsties kopā un

katrs no tās locekļiem, t.i., viss, kas pilnā mērā izpaužas ģimenes attiecībās (Kovaļovs, 1987).

Tehnoloģijas var traucēt sarunas “aci-pret-aci” intimitātei divos galvenajos veidos. Pirmkārt, cilvēki var attīstīt “tuvību” ar elektroniskām ierīcēm uz reālās dzīves intimitātes rēķina. Jāņem vērā, ka izmantojot elektroniskās ierīces, komunikācija kļūst īsāka, un indivīdi var sākt biežāk izvēlēties tiešsaistes saskarsmi, nevis tiešo kontaktu (Coyne et al., 2011).

Pašreiz bieži var redzēt, ka pāri tikšanās laikā ir pārņemti ar saviem tālruniem, nevis iesaistīšanos sarunā, viens no partneriem var izjust, ka ierīces ietekmē viņu attiecības un komunikāciju (Coune et al., 2011).

Jau deviņdesmitajos gados veiktie pētījumi liecināja, ka interneta izmantošana negatīvi korelē ar personas labizjūtu, ģimenes attiecību kvalitāti, jo vairāk izmantots internets, jo vientuļāka un depresīvāka personība, maz socializējas un ģimenē attiecības pasliktinās (Kraut, Patterson, Lundmark, Kiesler, Mukopadhyay, & Scherlis, 1998). Tiem, kuri izjūt biežāku tehnoferences ietekmi, ir lielāka tieksme uz konfliktiem par tehnoloģiju lietošanu un ir zemāka attiecību apmierinātība, vairāk depresīvo simptomu un zemāks labizjūtas līmenis. Vienlaikus tehnoloģijas palīdz pāriem sazināties (Coyne et al., 2011) tehnoloģiju lietošana, kad pāris nav kopā, lai sazinātos, laiku pa laikam, spēj attiecības pat uzlabot.

Analizējot iepriekš veiktos pētījumus, pētnieki ir nonākuši pie atziņas, ka nepieciešamas apmācības, kurās būtu iespējams apgūt tehnoloģiju lietošanas etiķeti, kurās veidotu izpratni par to, kad ierīci nevajadzētu izmantot vai ko darīt, ja telefons *iepiķstas* sarunas vidū u.tml., kas liek reizē veltīt uzmanību gan tehnoloģijai, gan partnerim. Tā kā tehnoloģiju izmantošana ir kļuvusi ikdienišķa parādība, tad pāra komunikācijas apmācību programmas ir nepieciešamas, lai palīdzētu uzlabot apmierinātību ar attiecībām (Coyne & McDaniel, 2016).

Apmierinātībai ar attiecībām, pētījumi ir parādījuši, ja konstatēta nomāktība, tad ir lielāka ģimenes pastāvēšanas apdraudētība un destruktīvu konfliktu risināšanas veidu parādīšanās, biežāki konflikti un neadekvāti to risinājumi, kas var ietekmēt pat attiecību pastāvēšanu (Coyne, Thompson, & Palmer, 2002).

Nozīmīgi ir izpētīt vai tehnoferencei pastāv saistība ar konflikta vadības stratēģijas izvēli. Konflikta vadības stratēģijas ir aprakstījuši (Thomas & Kilmann, 2008) un izveidojuši mērinstrumentu, kas nosaka konflikta vadības stratēģijas: konkurence/sāncensība - *cīņas* stratēģija, uzvar tas, kuram lielāka vara, resursi un mazāka vajadzība pēc attiecībām; kompromiss - abas puses upurē daļu savu interešu otras puses labā, apzinoties, ka abas ne tikai zaudēs, bet arī iegūs; sadarbība- abas puses meklē optimālāko konflikta risinājumu, respektē un izzina viena otras intereses; izvairīšanās (aiziešana no konflikta) - atliek uz vēlāku laiku konflikta risināšanu, kad emocionālais vilnis mazinājies un pielāgošanās - apmierina vienas puses intereses piekāpties ne pārāk svarīgā jautājumā šodien,

kas nozīmē pretimnākšanu rīt. Katrai no aprakstītajām konflikta vadības stratēģijām ir savas pozitīvās un negatīvās puses (Omarova, 2006; Thomas & Kilmann, 2008).

### **Pētījuma metodoloģija** **Research Methodology**

Pētījuma dalībnieki ir 30 respondenti (n=30) (15 vīrieši un 15 sievietes) Respondentu vecums no 23 līdz 54 gadiem, vidējais vecums 35 gadi. Pētījumā piedalījās dalībnieki, kuri ir pāra attiecībās. Pāra attiecību ilgums bija no 1 gada, vidējais attiecību ilgums 6 gadi. Respondentiem ir dažādi izglītības līmeņi un tie ir dažādu nozaru pārstāvji.

Pētījumā pielietotās metodikas: Apmierinātības ar attiecībām mērīšanai tika izmantots Krastas E. 2015. gadā lingvistiski adaptētā Funk & Rogge, 2007, Pāru apmierinātības indekss (CSI) skala. Tests ietver 32 jautājumus, kurā katram atbilžu variantam tiek piešķirts noteikts punktu skaits. Jo lielāka kopējā punktu gala vērtība, jo augstāka apmierinātība ar pāra attiecībām respondentam (Kronbaha alfa 0.86).

Tehnoloģijas izmantošanas biežuma noteikšanai tiek lietots Coyne, S. M., McDaniel Tehnoloģijas ierīču iejaukšanās skala (Technology Device Interference Scale (TDIS) 2016), kur uzdots jautājums cik bieži Jūsu saskarsmē ar partneri iejaucas vai pat pārtrauc kāda tehniskā ierīce (tālrunis, TV, dators, planšete), atbilde jānovērtē 5 punktu skalā (0-5), kur iespējamie varianti no nekad līdz visu laiku.

Lai noteiktu konflikta vadības stratēģiju izvēli izmantots K. Tomasa – R. Kilmerna tests Konflikta risināšanas instruments (The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (TKI), 2008; lingvistiski adaptējusi Krasta E., 2015), doti 30 apgalvojumi, no kuriem jāizvēlas A vai B variants, testa atslēgā saskaitot kopējo izvēlēto apgalvojumu skaitu atbilstoši stratēģijai, iespējams, konstatēt, kuru persona izvēlas visbiežāk.

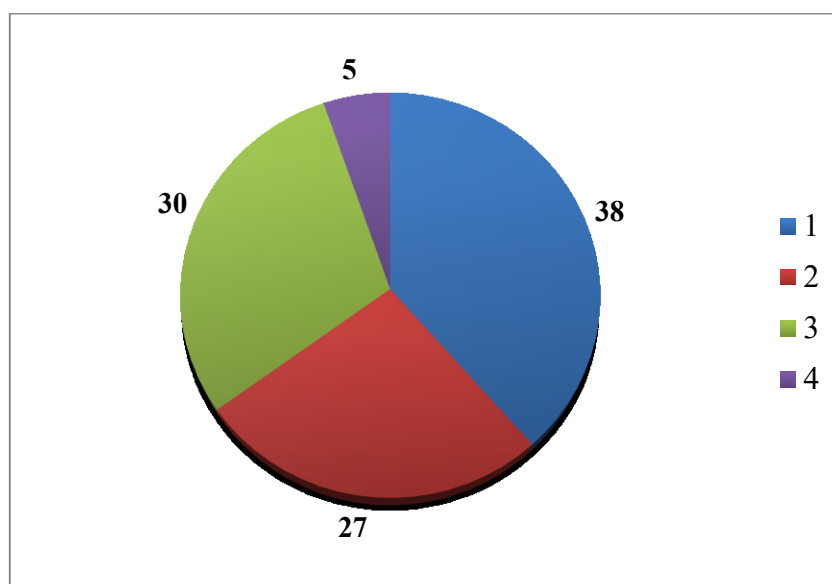
*Procedūra.* Pētījums tika veikts Latvijas teritorijā. Respondenti anketas aizpildīja individuāli, elektroniskā veidā. Dati ievākti laika posmā no 2016. gada maija līdz jūnijam. Dalībniekiem anketa tika izsūtīta ar elektroniskā pasta starpniecību, ar aicinājumu piedalīties pētījumā. Aptaujas sākumā bija instrukcija un jautājumi par demogrāfiskajiem rādītājiem, kā arī respondenti tika informēti, ka aptauja ir anonīma un dati netiks izpausti vai vērtēti individuāli.

Ievākto datu apstrādei izmantota SPSS programma.

### Pētījuma rezultātu analīze *Analysis of the Research Results*

Lai noskaidrotu vai pastāv sakarība apmierinātībai ar attiecībām, tehnoferencei un konflikta risināšanas stratēģijām, pētījumā sākotnēji tika noteikta konkrētu tehnisko ierīču lietošana ikdienā - tālruna, televizora, datora, un planšetes un noteikts to izmantošanas biežums (%), ko katrs respondents novērtē pēc gradācijas no nekad līdz visu laiku, atbilstoši skalai pašnovērtējums ir no 0 līdz 5 punktiem.

Apkopojot aptaujas rezultātus par tehnoloģisko ierīces lietošanas biežumu, kas var veidot pārtraukumus pāru komunikācijā, novērojams, ka visbiežāk: tālrunis 38 %, dators 30 %, TV 27 %, planšete 5 % (skat. 1. attēlu).



Apzīmējumi: 1-tālrunis, 2- TV, 3- dators, 4- planšete

1.att. Tehnoloģisko ierīču iejaukšanās dažādās dzīves situācijās skalas rezultāti  
*Fig.1 Technological devices intervention in various situations of life scale results*

Datu apstrādes rezultātā iegūti sekojoši pētāmo pazīmju aprakstošās statistikas rādītāji (skat. 1. tabula).

Novērtējot iegūtos rezultātus, var secināt, ka normālam sadalījumam pēc ekscesa koeficienta neatbilst Apmierinātības ar attiecībām skala (ekscesa vērtība pēc moduļa pārsniedz savu standartklūdu), kā arī Sāncensības un Sadarbības skalas. Novērtējot koeficientu zīmes (mīnuss vai pluss), var teikt, ka Apmierinātība ar attiecībām respondentu vidū tiek vērtēta neviendabīgi, tas ir, faktiski apmierinātība ar attiecībām tiek vērtēta ļoti dažādi plašā amplitūdā no neapmierinātības līdz apmierinātībai ( $|-0,92| > 0,83$ ). Līdzīgi rezultāti vērojami arī Sāncensības vērtējumā kā konfliktu risināšanas stratēģijas izvēlē ( $|-1,44| > 0,83$ ).

Savukārt, Sadarbības izvēle kā konfliktu risināšanas stratēģijas tiek vērtēta izteikti viendabīgi, jo iegūtais koeficients ir pozitīvs ( $1,32 > 0,83$ ).

1.tab. Tehnoreferences, apmierinātības ar attiecībām un konflikta risināšanas stratēģiju izvēles vērtējumu statistiskie rādītāji

Table 1 *Tehnoreference, satisfaction with the relationship and conflict resolution strategy choice assessments statistical indicators*

	N	M	SD	Asimetrija	Standart-	Ekscess	Standart-
	Vērtība	Vērtība	Vērtība	Vērtība	Kļūda	Vērtība	kļūda
Tehnoference	30	13,67	7,89	,38	,42	-,18	,83
Apmierinātība ar attiecībām	30	97,13	24,82	,34	,42	-,92	,83
Izvairīšanās	30	5,53	2,59	,09	,42	-,75	,83
Pielāgošanās	30	6,17	2,42	-,89	,42	,31	,83
Sāncensība	30	6,23	3,83	,06	,42	-1,44	,83
Kompromiss	30	6,40	1,97	,05	,42	-,59	,83
Sadarbība	30	5,67	2,00	-,55	,42	1,32	,83

Novērtējot asimetrijas koeficientu, jāsecina, ka normālam sadalījumam neatbilst Pielāgošanās skalas rezultāti, jo ( $|-0,89| > 0,42$ ), norādot, ka biežāk respondenti snieguši augstākus vērtējumus pielāgošanās kā stratēģijas vērtējumam nekā zemākus.

Tā kā pētījumā piedalījušos respondentu skaits atbilst mazas grupas apjomam, tad pētāmo pazīmju neatbilstība normālam sadalījumam ļauj tālākai sakarību starp pētāmām pazīmēm noskaidrošanai pielietot Pirsona korelācijas koeficientu. Rezultāti doti 2. tabulā.

2.tab. Apmierinātības ar attiecībām, tehnoreferences un konflikta risināšanas stratēģiju savstarpējo sakarību korelāciju matrica (n=30)

Table 2 *Relationship satisfaction, technoreference and conflict resolution strategy correlation matrix (n = 30)*

Pazīme	Tehnofere nce	Apmierinā tība ar attiecībām	Izvairīša nās	Pielāgoš anās	Sāncensīb a	Kompro miss	Sadarbī ba
Tehnoference	r	1	-,74**	,18	-,66**	,61**	-,23
	p		,00	,32	,00	,00	,20
Apmierinātība ar attiecībām	r	-,74**	1	-,27	,64**	-,70**	,58**
	p	,00		,14	,00	,00	,05

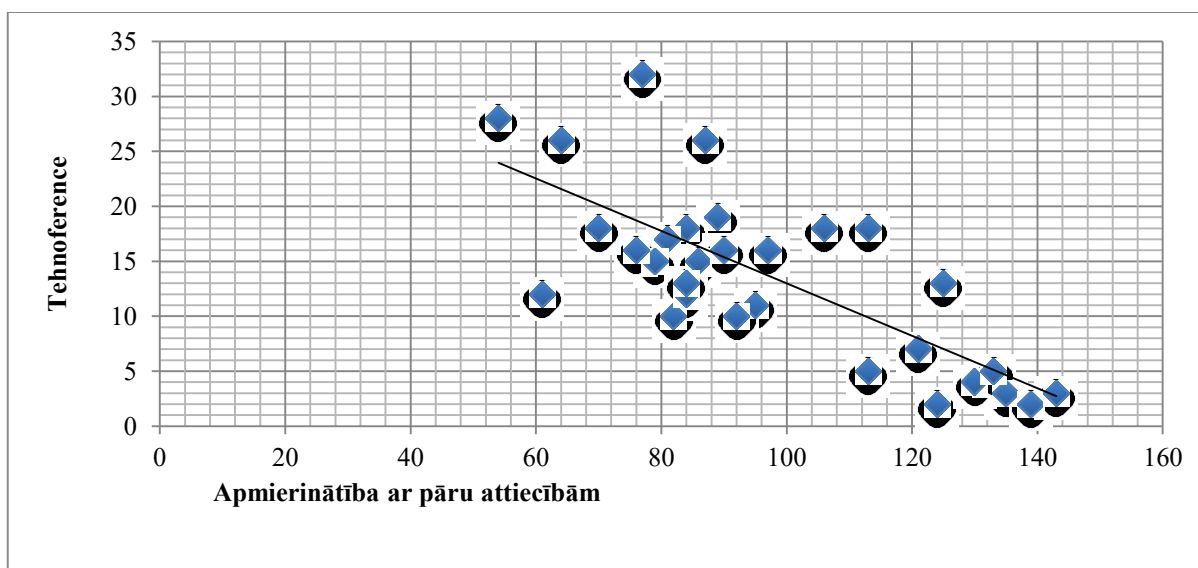
Tehnoference veido statistiski nozīmīgas pretējas sakarības arī ar pielāgošanās stratēģiju (-0,66) un sadarbība stratēģiju (-0,33).

Savukārt, ar sāncensību tehnoreference veido statistiski nozīmīgu pozitīvu sakarību (0,61).

Apmierinātība ar pāra attiecībām veido statistiski nozīmīgas pozitīvas sakarības ar pielāgošanās stratēģiju (0,64).

Apmierinātība ar pāra attiecībām veido statistiski nozīmīgas negatīvas sakarības ar sāncensību (-0,70). Rezultāti parāda, jo pāris ir apmierinātāks ar attiecībām, jo sadarbība un pielāgošanās kā stratēģijas tiek izvēlēta biežāk.

Iegūtie rezultāti parāda, ka sakarība ir statistiski nozīmīga apmierinātībai ar attiecībām un tehnofereces līmeni, bet pretēja, kas nozīmē, ka pieaugot tehnoferencei, samazinās apmierinātība ar pāra attiecībām un otrādi, jo tehnoference ir mazāka, jo apmierinātība ar attiecībām ir augstāka (skat. 2. attēlu).



2.att. Apmierinātības ar pāru attiecībām un tehnoferenci korelāciju diagramma  
Fig.2 Couple's relationships satisfaction and technoference correlation diagram

Iegūtie rezultāti parāda, jo lielāku apmierinātību ar attiecībām indivīds izjūt, jo mazāku *tehnoferenci* piedzīvo un, jo zemāks attiecību apmierinātības līmenis, jo lielāka *tehnoference* pāra attiecībās.

### Secinājumi Conclusions

Apkopojot iegūtos rezultātus, iespējams secināt:

1. Pastāv sakarība apmierinātībai ar pāra attiecībām un *tehnoferencei*. Konstatēts, jo lielāku apmierinātību ar pāra attiecībām indivīds izjūt, jo mazāku *tehnoferenci* var piedzīvot un, jo zemāks apmierinātības ar pāru attiecībām līmenis, jo lielāka *tehnoference* pāra attiecībās.
2. Visbiežāk pāru komunikācijā dažādās dzīves situācijās ir novērojama tehnoloģisko ierīču iejaukšanās: tālrunis – 38 %; dators – 30 %; TV – 27 %; planšete 5 %.



3. Rezultāti parāda, ka tehnoferece veido statistiski nozīmīgas pretējas sakarības arī ar pielāgošanās stratēģiju (-0,66) un sadarbības stratēģiju (-0,33).

Savukārt, ar sāncensību tehnoferece veido statistiski nozīmīgu pozitīvu sakarību (0,61).

*Apmierinātība ar pāru attiecībām* veido statistiski nozīmīgas pozitīvas sakarības ar pielāgošanās stratēģiju (0,64).

Iegūtie rezultāti liecina, ka pastāv sakarība konflikta vadības stratēģijas izvēlei un tehnoferecei, jo augstāka ir *tehnoferece*, jo zemāka ir apmierinātības ar pāru attiecībām indekss un augstāka sāncensības stratēģijas izvēle, turpretim, ja tehnoferecei vērojams zems līmenis, tad augstāks ir apmierinātības ar pāru attiecībām indekss un konflikta vadības stratēģijas izvēle ir kompromiss. Bet pielāgošanās stratēģijas izvēle ir novērojama, ja ir augstāks apmierinātības ar pāru attiecībām līmenis. Izvairīšanās stratēģijas izvēlei vērojama negatīva korelācija, jo augstāka apmierinātība attiecībās, jo mazāk izvēlas izvairīšanās stratēģiju.

### Diskusijai

Viens no pētījuma ierobežojumiem ir maza respondentu grupa, tādēļ rezultāti interpretējami tendences līmenī un to nevar attiecināt uz visu populāciju.

Jāņem vērā, ka tehnoloģiju lietošanas biežums ne vienmēr var prognozēt attiecību kvalitāti. Tomēr, kā parādīja šī pētījuma rezultāti, bieža tehnoloģiju lietošana var veidot pārtraukumus pāru komunikācijā, radot risku konflikta izcelsmei par biežu tehnoloģiju lietošanu.

Pētījuma izvēlētais temats ir nozīmīgs pāru attiecību uzlabošanai, iegūtie rezultāti uzskatāmi parāda, ka tehnoloģiju izmantošanas laikā var rasties ne tikai pārtraukumi partneru komunikācijā, bet arī pastāv saistība ar konflikta vadības stratēģijas izvēli. Iesākto pētījuma tematu ir iecerēts turpināt lielākā izlasē, salīdzinot grupas pēc pāru attiecību ilguma un citiem demogrāfiskiem faktoriem.

### Summary

In summary, technoferece may form due to frequent interruptions in communication technology use and negatively relate with the couple relationship satisfaction.

Found, the greater the satisfaction with the couple's relationship an individual feels, the less technoferece can experience and, the lower the satisfaction with the level of relationships of couples, the greater technoferece couple's relationship.

As the use of technology has become commonplace in everyday life and its use is the positive side, it should be the other side, that there may be risks of conflicts and establishment of deterioration in relations, as well as destructive conflict resolution strategy choices. In this study, it is like technofereces affect chooses rivalry.

Hence the need for couples communication technology training programs to include user interaction label that can improve the quality of relations, which has also been recognized by other researchers (Coyne et al., 2011).

The technology was not to be regarded as a negative, but rather to consider the limits of its use during the communication, since individuals have a desire to test his technology device use inopportune moment and thus interrupt the interaction with others.

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*Aija Dudkina, Lida Maslinovska. Tehnoference, apmierinātības ar pāra attiecībām saistība ar konflikta vadības stratēģijas izvēli*

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# SOCIĀLI EMOCIONĀLĀS KOMPETENCES INTEGRATĪVĀ MODEĻA IZVEIDES PAMATOJUMS

## *The Justification of Development of Integrative Model of Social Emotional Competence*

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**Abstract.** *Social emotional competence (SEC) is called as one of the most needed competences of 21<sup>st</sup> century. In the past dozen years, number of researches about SEC's relationship to many other crucial outcomes in psychosocial life of individual –performance, school readiness, success in participation and interaction with peers and adults, well-being, different clinical variables, in example, learning disabilities, depression, anxiety, withdrawal behavior etc. – have been published. Nevertheless, there is no agreement about the definition of SEC, which components comprises it, and there is no standardized measure for SEC assessment. There hasn't been sufficient qualitative scientific discussion about the topic in Latvia as well, although SEC or its components have been frequently researched here. The aim of this article was to provide a theoretical overview of the problems and challenges in SEC research in general and to justify the need of development of integrative model of SEC. The main objective was to develop its preliminary theoretical version.*

**Keywords:** *social emotional competence, integrative theoretical model.*

### **Ievads**

#### **Introduction**

Gan Latvijā, gan arī citur pasaulē sabiedriski nozīmīgi un aktuāli procesi aizvien biežāk atspoguļo nepieciešamību pievērsties un runāt par katra sabiedrības locekļa psihoemocionālo veselību un pilnvērtīgu sociālās funkcionēšanas spēju. Šo aktualitāti pasvīturo virkne pētījumu dažādos vadošajos zinātniskajos izdevumos Eiropā un ASV, kas analizē sociāli emocionālo kompetenci (SEK) vai tās atsevišķas dimensijas (piem., Denham, 2006; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Monnier, 2015 u.c.). Taču, neskatoties uz to, ka zinātnisko pētījumu skaits par SEK ir samērā liels, kā arī SEK ir radusi plašu atbalstu, atzinību un praktisko pielietojamību t.s. sociāli emocionālās

kompetences attīstības intervenču programmu (*social emotional learning programs, SEL*) ietvaros (Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor, & Schellinger, 2011), SEK līdzšinējā izpētē ir bijusi virkne dažādu nepilnību. Lai kvalitatīvi un jēgpilni veiktu zinātnisko pētniecību, kā arī efektīvi sasaistītu zinātni un praksi saistībā ar SEK, pietrūkst divu nozīmīgu aspektu. Pirmkārt, zinātnieku vidū nav vienprātības par to, kas ir SEK. Pastāv dažādas un pēc savas būtības gan līdzīgas, gan atšķirīgas definīcijas. Otrkārt, pastāv vairāki desmiti dažādu aptauju un testu, kas mēra SEK aspektus, taču būtiski pietrūkst vienotas standartizētas pieejas, instrumenta, kas būtu visaptveroši teorētiski pamatots un mērītu nevis SEK koncepta (angl. *construct*) atsevišķus aspektus jeb komponentes, bet atspoguļotu to savstarpējo saikni (Dirks, Treat, & Weersing, 2007; Durlak et al., 2011). Šāda diskusija zinātniskajā līmenī līdz šim nav notikusi arī Latvijā. Arvien top dažāda līmeņa zinātniskie darbi, kur tiek teorētiski analizēta un empīriski pētīta SEK vai tās komponentes dažādos vecumos un atšķirīgās vidēs (piem., Grīvza, 2015; Ozola, 2017), tajā pašā laikā var novērot, ka teorētiskā un metodoloģiskā pieeja ir izteikti fragmentāra un tā nesniedz pilnvērtīgu ieskatu šī koncepta būtībā. Šī raksta mērķis ir atspoguļot rietumu zinātnieku diskursu par SEK jēdzienu, SEK koncepta teorētiskajām nostādnēm un robežu noteikšanu, kā arī šī koncepta empīriskās izpētes problemātiku un pamatot integratīvā modeļa izveides nepieciešamību. Papildus mērķis ir, pamatojoties uz padziļinātu šī diskursa analīzi, teorētiskā līmenī izveidot jaunu SEK integratīvo modeli.

### **Sociāli emocionālās kompetences definēšanas problemātika** *Problems in defining social emotional competence*

Sociāli emocionālā kompetence ir plašs koncepts, kuram zinātnieki līdz šim nav raduši vienotu definīciju. Līdz ar neskaidrām teorētiskām robežām arī SEK koncepta empīriskā izpēte saskaras ar nopietniem izaicinājumiem. Neviens no pētījumiem neaptver pilnu SEK koncepta dimensiju spektru. Arī teorētiskās metaanalīzes fokusējas drīzāk uz atsevišķām SEK komponentēm specifiskajās izlasēs (Arnold & Lindner-Muller, 2012; Barblett & Maloney, 2011).

SEK ir koncepts, kas sastāv no emocionālās kompetences un sociālās kompetences komponentēm. Savukārt katru kompetences komponenti veido vairākas prasmes (Arnold – Lindner-Muller, 2012), un katru prasmi definē šaurāk definētu prasmju kopums. Kā atzīmē viena no jaunāko zinātnisko rakstu par SEK autorēm M. Monjē (Monnier, 2015), pašreizējā pieeja SEK definēšanai un empīriskai izpētei ir pārāk eklektiska. Šobrīd literatūrā netiek piedāvāta vienota SEK definīcija. Tā tiek definēta kā dažādu prasmju kopums. Proti, SEK veido komunikācijas un sadarbības prasmes, empātija, problēmu risināšanas prasme, pašefektivitāte, sevis apzināšanās prasme, savu un citu emociju atpazīšana, sociālo situāciju izpratnes prasme, savu vajadzību un mērķu sabalansēšana ar citu

vajadzībām un mērķiem u.c. (Ferreira, Simoesa, Matosa, Ramiroa, & Diniza, 2012; Halle, Darling-Churchill, 2016).

No vienas puses, zinātnieki nereti pievēršas vai nu vienai, vai arī otrai SEK komponentei, vai arī mēdz integrēt vienas komponentes dimensijas otrajā. Šāda pieeja nekādā veidā neveicina pētījumu validitāti un uzticamību. Autore atspoguļo radušos teorētisko apjukumu šī koncepta izpētē, minot, ka pašreiz emocionālie aspekti izteikti savijas ar sociālajiem, un secina, ka daudzas sociālās kompetences definīcijas un mērījumu instrumenti satur arī emocionālās kompetences aspektus, un otrādi. Piemēram, šādu eklektisko pieeju M. Monjē kritizē Bar-Ona (Bar-On, 2006) “emocionāli – sociālā intelekta” konceptā. Arī citi autori emocionālās kompetences komponentes redz kā sociālās kompetences modeļu sastāvdaļu (piem., Halberstadt, Denham, & Dunsmore, 2001). Teorētiski konceptuāli gan emocionālā, gan sociālā kompetence tiešām savijas. Mavrovelija un kolēģi (Mavroveli, Petrides, Sangareau, & Furnham, 2009), atsaucoties uz citiem pētījumiem (Haris, 2000; Izard, Schulz, Mostow, Ackerman, & Youngstrom, 2001), raksta, ka daudzas emocionālās kompetences dimensijas (piem., emociju apzināšanās) tiešā veidā korelē ar prosociālu uzvedību un pozitīvi ietekmē attiecību veidošanos, sekmē efektīvu komunikāciju, kas savukārt ir sociālās kompetences dimensijas. Tajā pašā laikā M. Monē (Monnier, 2015) piedāvā t.s. SEK koncepta teorētiski konceptuālo “attīrīšanu” (angl. “*A concept clean – up*”). Viņa iesaka striktāk atdalīt emocionālo kompetenci no sociālās. Tās ir jāaplūko kā viena koncepta neatkarīgas, tajā pašā laikā jēgpilnu vienumu veidojošās komponentes. Šī nošķiršana ir nepieciešama, jo SEK nav tikai teorētisks koncepts psiholoģijā, tas ir praktiski pielietojams dažādu intervenču ietvaros. Līdz ar to, lai mērītu intervences efektivitāti, vai arī izprastu, kas tieši intervences ietvaros ir jāveicina, ir jābūt skaidrām vadlīnijām par jebkura psiholoģiskā koncepta robežām. Tas savukārt nozīmēs arī atšķirīgas metodoloģiskās pieejas tā empīriskajā izpētē (Mavroveli et al., 2009).

### **Sociāli emocionālais intelekts, kompetence, prasmes?**

#### ***Social emotional intelligence, competence, skills?***

Kā vēl viens būtisks intrakonceptuāls apjukuma moments SEK definēšanā ir neviennozīmīga un haotiska terminu lietošana attiecībā uz to, kas ir intelekts (angl. *intelligence*), kompetence (angl. *competence*), prasmes (angl. *skills*). Šie jēdzieni nereti tiek lietoti gan kā sinonīmi, gan kā viens otra sastāvu veidojoši, gan kā pavisam atšķirīgi. Pētījumos teorētiski un metodoloģiski figurē gan emocionālā kompetence, gan emocionālais intelekts, gan emocionālās prasmes, gan sociālā kompetence, gan sociālais intelekts, gan sociālās prasmes, kā arī sociāli emocionālā kompetence un emocionāli sociālais intelekts, gan sociāli kognitīvā kompetence utt. Šī raksta ietvaros nav iespējams atspoguļot autoru

pieejas šo konceptu skaidrojumiem visā to pilnībā. Aptverošu un detalizētu analīzi par to, cik izplūdušas un neskaidras robežas ir šo jēdzienu lietošanā zinātniskajā literatūrā un empīriskajā pētniecībā sniedz M. Monjē (Monnier, 2015), uzverot, ka arī šeit ir nepieciešama lielāka konceptuāla skaidrība.

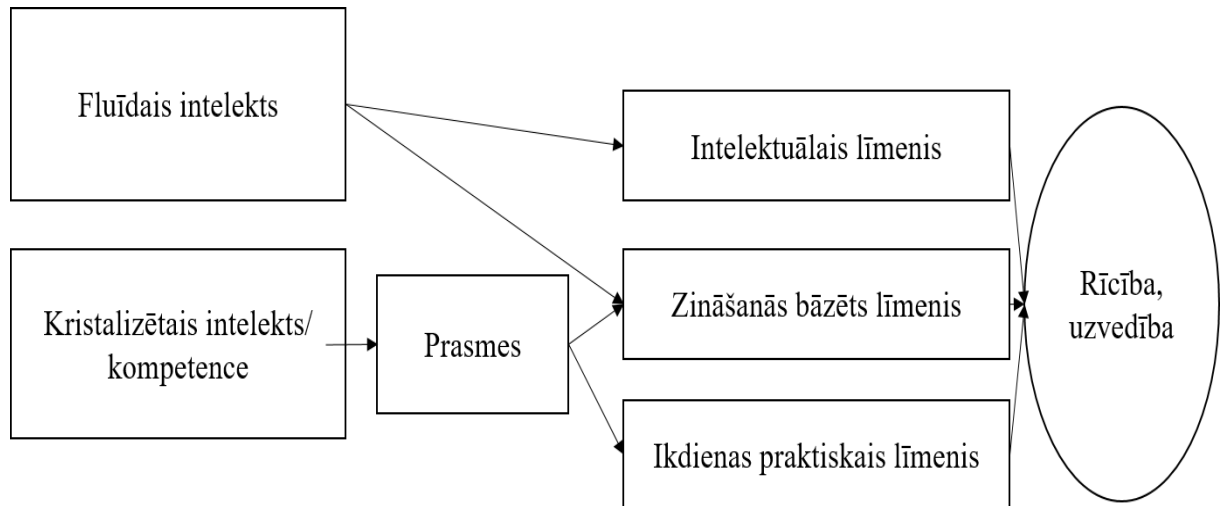
Pastāv daudz intelekta teoriju un definīciju. Kā vienu no tādām piedāvā D. Vekslers (D. Wechsler, 1896–1981), kurš intelektu raksturo kā “indivīda spēju vai visaptverošu kapacitāti rīkoties mērķorientēti, domāt racionāli, kā arī efektīvi tikt galā ar vidi” (Wechsler, 1958, p.7.)

Kā uzsver Ledeists un Vintertons (Le Deist & Winterton, 2005), atšķirībā no intelekta jēdziena, nepastāv vienotas starptautiskas definīcijas kompetences jēdzienam. Intelekta gadījumā runa ir par ārpus konteksta esošajām domāšanas spējām. Testi, kas mēra intelektu, neparāda specifiskajās jomās reprezentētās zināšanas un spējas (Wilhelm, 2005). Taču tieši uz to ir attiecināmi centieni, attīstot kompetences novērtējošos testus. “Tieši kompetenču “uztaustīšana” plašajā domāšanas spēju tīklojumā ir neatņemama, būtiska un kritiska nākotnes pētniecības sastāvdaļa” (Wilhelm, 2009, p. 24). Ja kompetences jēdzienu salīdzina ar fluidā intelekta jēdzienu, tad saturiski tie ir samērā viegli nošķirami un nesaplūst. Savukārt, ja kompetences jēdzienu salīdzina ar kristalizētā intelekta jēdzienu, tad var secināt, ka starp tiem pastāv atsevišķas līdzības (Wilhelm & Nickolaus, 2013). Monjē (Monier, 2015), atsaucoties uz citiem zinātniekiem (Jaeggi et al., 2008; Gray & Thompson, 2004), atzīmē, ka pētījumi parāda, ka fluīdais intelekts ir samērā “robusts pret mācīšanās un socializācijas procesiem, to lielā mērā nosaka iedzimtības faktori”. Savukārt kristalizētais intelekts var tikt attīstīts, apgūstot jaunas zināšanas un pieredzi.

Ņemot vērā iepriekš minēto, šī pētījuma ietvaros *kompetence* tiek izprasta kā to kognitīvo, motivācijas, morālo un sociālo prasmju kombinācija, kas indivīdam vai sociālajai grupai piemīt vai potenciāli var tikt iemācītas. Šo prasmju attīstību veicina izpratne un rīcība, kas attīstās, risinot un izpildot virkni prasību, uzdevumu, problēmu un mērķu (Weinert, 2001, p. 2433). Līdz ar to var uzskatīt, ka kristalizētajam intelektam ir cieša saistība ar kompetences jēdzienu, taču tie nav sinonīmi. “Kristalizētais intelekts drīzāk reprezentē spēju (angl. *abilities*) attīstīšanos un transformāciju kompetencēs (*competence*)” (Sternberg, 2005).

Arī robežas starp prasmēm (angl. *skills*) un kompetenci (angl. *competence*) literatūras avotos mēdz būt neskaidras. Saskaņā ar Ekonomiskās sadarbības un attīstības organizāciju (*Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, OECD*) kompetence ir kas vairāk par zināšanām un prasmēm. Tā sevī iekļauj spēju (angl. *ability*) izpildīt kompleksas prasības, mobilizēt psihosociālos resursus (tai skaitā spējas un attieksmes) konkrētā konteksta ietvaros (Rychen & Salganik, 2003).





1.att. Iespējamā saistība starp intelektu, kompetenci un prasmēm ar rīcības regulācijas pakāpēm (tulk. Elsiņa, 2017, avots Monnier, 2015)

*Fig. 1 A possible link between intelligence, competence and skills with modes of action regulation (transl. Elsiņa, 2017, from Monnier, 2015)*

Arī Monjē (Monnier, 2015), atsaucoties uz Veinertu (Weinert, 2001, p. 62) definē prasmes kā “spējas (angl. *abilities*), kas rīcību padara praktiski realizējamu”. No minētā izriet, ka, salīdzinot ar jēdzienu ‘kompetence’, ‘prasmes’ ir šaurāks jēdziens. Dažādas prasmes var konstruēt kādu konkrētu kompetenci. Prasmes tiek attīstītas praksē un tāpēc tiešā veidā ir saistītas ar iemācīšanos procesu (Arnold & Lindner – Muller, 2012). M. Monjē (Monnier, 2015) pieeja intelekta, kompetences un prasmju konceptuālā saistība atspoguļota 1. attēlā.

### **Sociāli emocionālās kompetences integratīvais modelis** *An integrative model of social emotional competence*

SEK viennozīmīgi ir daudzdimensionāls koncepts, taču zinātnieku vidū nepastāv vienotas nostājas, kādi tieši elementi (komponentes un to dimensijas) veido SEK (Barblett & Maloney, 2011; Monnier, 2015), kas atspoguļo šī koncepta teorētisko sarežģītību (Parker, Keefer & Wood, 2011). Turpmāk tiks sniegts īss pārskats par to, kādas SEK veidojošās komponentes tiek minētas dažādos literatūras avotos. Tajā pašā laikā ir jāatzīmē, ka diskurss par to zinātniskajā literatūrā ir ievērojami plašāks, ko detalizēti atspoguļo Monje un kolēģu (Monnier, 2015) publikācija.

#### *Emocionālās kompetences komponentes*

Emocijas no dažādu skatupunktu perspektīvas ir viens no visvairāk pētītajiem tematiem psiholoģijas zinātnē pēdējo desmitgažu laikā. Kāpēc tā? Emocijas iedarbina automātiskus uzvedības paternus, tās ir būtiskas izdzīvošanai,

taču primitīva emocionālā uzvedība rada problēmas sociālajā vidē. Ja emocijas nokļūst uzmanības centrā, tad uzvedības paterni vairs nav automātiski un neapzināti, pastāv lielākas iespējas adaptīvai sociālajai mijiedarbībai (Rieffe, Terwogt, Petrides, Cowan, Miers, & Tolland, 2007). “Emocionālā kompetence ir multidimensionāls koncepts, kas sevī ietver dažādas prasmes” (Beck, Kumischick, Eid, & Klann-Delius, 2011). Piemēram, prasmes atpazīt (angl. *recognize*) un izprast (angl. *understand*) savas un citu emocijas, prasmi izprast, kā emociju paušana (angl. *expression*) var ietekmēt mijiedarbību ar citiem, līdz ar to arī prasme regulēt (angl. *manage*) savas emocijas un uzvedību, atbilstoši situācijai, apzināties un nospraust savas robežas cieņpilnā veidā (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Emocionālā kompetence (turpmāk tekstā EK) ir arī indivīda prasme izvīrēt un sasniegt mērķus (Barblett & Malonet, 2011), kā arī tā ir saistāma ar sevis uztveri un novērtēšanu (angl. *self – assessment*), t.i., savu stipro un vājo pušu apzināšanos, pašefektivitāti (angl. *self – efficacy*) (Durlak et al., 2011) un citiem psiholoģiskiem konceptiem.

#### *Sociālās kompetences komponentes*

Sociālā kompetence (turpmāk tekstā SK) ir bieži pētīts, taču maz izprasts koncepts. SK ir indivīda veselīgas un veiksmīgas funkcionēšanas pamatā visas dzīves garumā (Stump, Ratliff, Wu, & Hawley, 2009). SK ir ievērojami grūtāk definējama nekā EK un zinātnieku vidū ir ļoti atšķirīgi viedokļi, kas ir SK komponentes (Monnier, 2015). SK var raksturot kā spēju integrēt domāšanu, jūtas un uzvedību, orientējot to uz veiksmīgas sociālās mijiedarbības veidošanos un nostiprināšanu (Barblett & Malinet, 2011). SK tiek saistīta ar prasmi veidot noturīgas un savstarpēji atbalstošas attiecības caur spēju sadarboties un efektīvi risināt konfliktsituācijas. Tā ir arī spēja būt iejūtīgiem un tolerantiem attiecībā pret atšķirīgo (piem., viedokļiem, kultūrām, nacionalitātēm utt.). Sociāli kompetents indivīds pieņem prosociālus, atbildīgus lēmumus, izvērtējot, kā tie var ietekmēt pašu un citus, spēj vadīt (angl. *manage*) attiecības ar citiem, viņam piemīt labas komunikatīvas prasmes (Denham, 2006; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009).

### **Sociāli emocionālās kompetences empīriskās izpētes izaicinājumi** *Problems of empirical evidence of social emotional competence*

Kā minēts iepriekš, SEK ir plašs un daudzdimensionāls koncepts, kuram zinātnieki līdz šim nav raduši vienotu definīciju, nav radījuši vienotu mērījumu instrumentu. Līdz ar to arī šī koncepta empīriskā izpēte saskaras ar nopietniem izaicinājumiem.

Pirmkārt, SEK validu un kvalitatīvu empīrisko pētījumu viens no šķēršļiem ir iepriekšminētais un analizētais konsekvences trūkums terminoloģijas lietojumā (Barlett & Maloney, 2011; Monnier, 2015).

Kā vienu no izaicinājumiem SEK empīriskajā izpētē ir jāmin arī tas, ka šis psiholoģiskais koncepts ciešā mērā ir jāaplūko no attīstības perspektīvas (Denham, 2006). Piemēram, emociju apzināšanās, kas ir EK pamatā, tiek atzīta par kognitīvu procesu, kas pakļauts bērna attīstības gaitai un vecums ir būtisks priekšnosacījums bērna emociju apzināšanās spējai (kā minēts Elsiņa & Svence, 2014). Vecāki bērni spēj precīzāk atpazīt un nosaukt savas un citu emocijas, skatīt savas emocijas no citu perspektīvas, kā arī piedāvāt sarežģītākus skaidrojumus savām emocijām (kā minēts Bajgar, Chiarrochi, Lane, & Deane, 2005). Arī mūsdienu pētījumi atspoguļo vecumu kā būtisku mainīgo SEK kompleksitātes kontekstā (Manchini, Agnoli, Trombini, Baldaro, & Surcinelli 2013), savukārt dzimuma ietekmei uz emociju apzināšanos pētījumos tiek norādīta pretrunīga nozīme (Bajgar, et al., 2005). Līdz ar to, veidojot SEK mērījuma instrumentus, ir jādefinē vecumposms, kuram tas būs paredzēts.

Kā papildus problemātiku SEK izpētē Arnolds un Lindnere – Millere (Arnold & Lindner – Muller, 2012) min mērījuma instrumenta specifikas atbilstību mērķauditorijai. Proti, vai mērījuma instruments ir domāts vispārējai populācijai vai arī klīniskām izlasēm.

Kā nākamo izaicinājumu var minēt to, ka SEK empīriskajā izpētē ir konteksta atkarīga, tas nozīmē, ka indivīds vienā vidē var funkcionēt kā vairāk sociāli emocionāli kompetents, nekā citā (piem., bērns mājas un skolas vidē). Līdz ar to, SEK izpētē bērniem un pusaudžiem ir nepieciešamas citvērtējuma iespējas (piem., vecāku, skolotāju), kas samazina subjektivitātes riskus un padara aptaujas vairāk validas (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Monier, 2015).

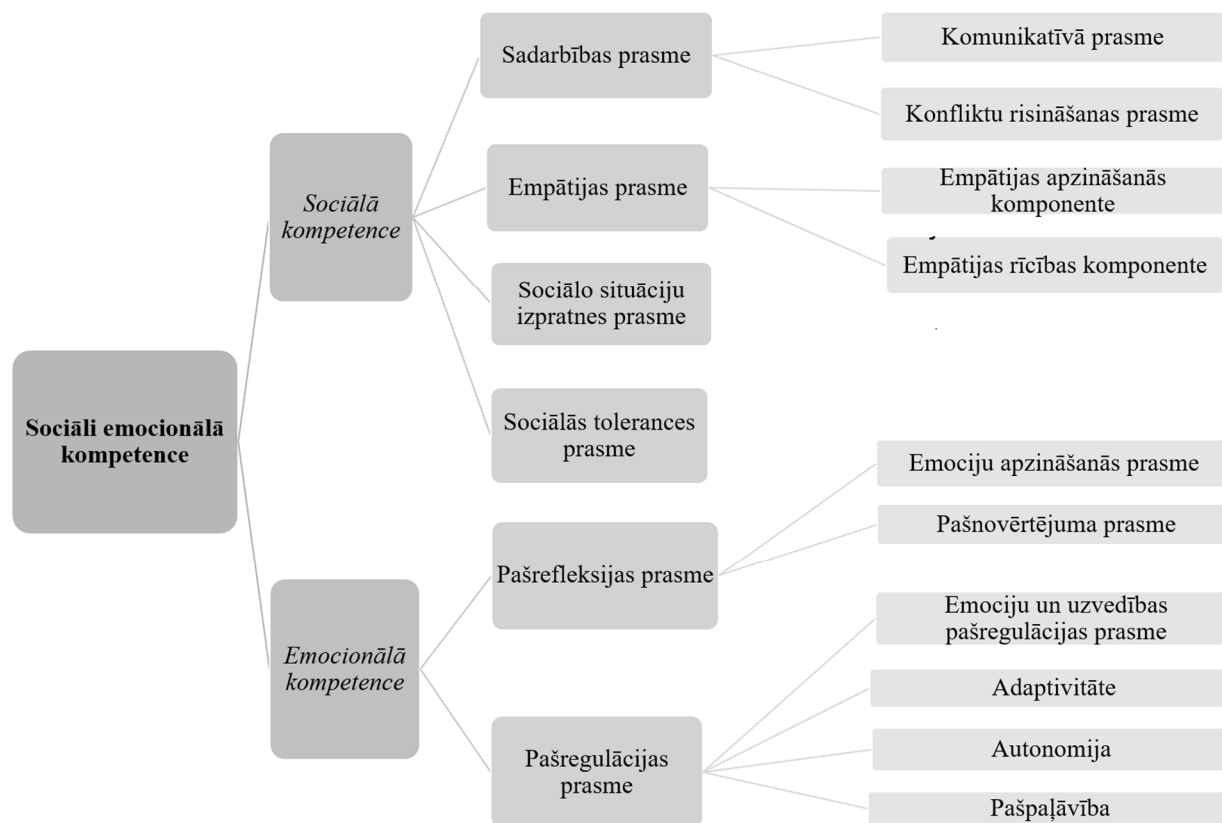
Psihometriski SEK izpēte ir izaicinājumu pilns uzdevums, jo SEK mērījuma instrumentam būtu jābūt uzbūvētam tā, lai rezultāti atspoguļotu gan kopējo SEK rādītāju, gan arī katras atsevišķas komponentes (sociālā kompetence, emocionālā kompetence) un katras atsevišķas komponentes dimensijas un to šķautņu rādītājus. Starp SEK šāda instrumenta skalām jāpastāv zināmai savstarpējai korelācijai, taču tajā pašā laikā tie nedrīkstētu pilnībā pārklāties. Pašlaik nepastāv tāda vienota SEK instrumenta, līdz ar to, daudzi testi un aptaujas mēra tikai atsevišķus SEK aspektus (Arnold & Lindner – Muller, 2012; Dirks et al., 2007). SEK aptaujas izveide būtu šī raksta autoru turpmākais zinātniskās darbības mērķis.

### **Sociāli emocionālās kompetences integratīvais teorētiskais modelis**

#### *The integrative theoretical model of social emotional competence*

Balstoties gan uz zinātnisko publikāciju, gan pieejamo SEK mērījumu instrumentu saturisko analīzi, kā arī ņemot vērā iepriekš minēto nepieciešamību skaidrāk nodefinēt robežas starp SEK koncepta divām lielajām komponentēm, šīs publikācijas autore ir izstrādājušas jaunu SEK integratīvo teorētisko modeli

(skatīt 2. attēlu). Pirmajā solī, izmantojot atslēgas vārdus *social and/or emotional competence*, tika atlasīti ārzemju zinātniskie raksti, kuri ir publicēti laika posmā no 2000. līdz 2017. gadam. Otrajā solī, tika apkopotas dažādas SEK konceptu ietvaros minētās prasmes. Savukārt trešajā solī tās tika grupētas, izmantojot saturā balstītu pieeju. Detalizēti veiktās analīzes rezultāti ir apkopoti rakstā “Sociāli emocionālās kompetences integratīvā modeļa teorētiskais pamatojums” (Elsina & Perepjolkina, in press).



2.att. Sociāli emocionālās kompetences integratīvais modelis  
(Elsiņa & Perepjolkina, 2017)

Fig. 2 The integrative model of social emotional competence (Elsiņa & Perepjolkina, 2017)

Viena SEK integratīvā modeļa komponente ir Emociionālās kompetences komponente (ES – joma). Šajā komponentē izdalām divas to veidojošās prasmes: pašrefleksijas prasmi un pašregulācijas prasmi. Katru no abām prasmēm veido papildus vairāku šaurākas nozīmes prasmju kopums. Pašrefleksijas prasmi veido emociju apzināšanās prasme (prasme atpazīt un nosaukt savas emocijas, raksturot dažāda veida emocionālo pieredzi, nošķirt savas emocijas no citu emocijām, saskatīt un izprast emociju, domu, vārdu, uzvedības savstarpējo saistību) un pašnovērtējuma prasme (savu stipro un vājo pušu apzināšanās, savu spēju apzināšanās, prasme adekvāti novērtēt savu sniegumu, uzvedību, savu vajadzību,

mērķu, motīvu, vēlmju, vērtību, attieksmju apzināšanās prasme). Otra SEK komponente ir Sociālās kompetences komponente (CITI – joma). Šajā komponentē izdalām četras prasmes: sadarbības, empātijas, sociālo situāciju izpratnes un sociālās tolerances prasmi. Sadarbības prasmi veido papildus divu šaurāku prasmju kopums: komunikatīvā prasme un konfliktu risināšanas prasme. Un empātijas prasme veido tās apzināšanās un rīcības komponente. Ja Emocionālā kompetence ir saistāma ar pašvadību (angl. *self management*), tad Sociālā kompetence ir saistāma ar starppersonu attiecību veidošanu un uzturēšanu (angl. *relationship management*).

Nākamais pētījuma solis būtu formulēt definīcijas katrai dimensijai un šķautnei, kas sniegs iespēju padziļinātāk izprast to veidojošos jēdzieniskos aspektus. Šis teorētiskais ieguldījums ir būtisks jauna valida un uzticama mērījuma instrumenta veidošanas procesā.

### **Secinājumi** **Conclusions**

Sociāli emocionālā kompetence (SEK) ir viena no mūsdienu nepieciešamākajām kompetencēm veselīgai psihosociālajai indivīda funkcionēšanai un mentālajai veselībai. Tā tiek plaši pētīta zinātnisko pētījumu ietvaros un pasaulē tiek realizētas vairākas t.s. SEL (angl. *social emotional learning*) intervenču programmas, kas ir paredzētas sociāli emocionālo prasmju attīstīšanai. Tomēr, balstoties uz veikto literatūras analīzi, var secināt, ka šī multidimensionālā koncepta būtība nav pietiekami detalizēti izziņāta. Zinātnieku starpā nav vienprātības par SEK definīciju, kā arī to, kas ir SEK veidojošās komponentes. Līdz ar to teorētiski metodoloģiskā un empīriskā pieeja ir samērā haotiska. Tas aktualizē nepieciešamību iesviest lielāku konceptuālo skaidrību un izveidot modeli, kas ļautu integrēt dažādas SEK raksturojošās prasmes vienotā teorētiskā ietvarā. Izmantojot saturā balstīto pieeju, dotā pētījuma ietvaros ir izstrādāta šī modeļa sākotnējā teorētiskā versija. Modelis satur divas komponentes – sociālā kompetence (SK) un emocionālā kompetence (EK). Katru komponenti veido vairākas prasmes, savukārt, katru prasmi definē šaurāk definētu prasmju kopums (skatīt 2. att.). Nākamais pētījuma solis būtu formulēt definīcijas katrai komponentei un to veidojošām prasmēm, kas sniegs iespēju padziļinātāk izprast to veidojošos jēdzieniskos aspektus. Dotais modelis var kalpot par pamatu jauna SEK novērtēšanas instrumenta izveidei un dotā integratīvā modeļa empīriskai pamatošanai.

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## LATGALES IEDZĪVOTĀJU APMIERINĀTĪBA AR VALSTI VIŅU LAIMES IZJŪTAS KONTEKSTĀ

### *Latgale Inhabitants' Satisfaction with the State in Context of Their Feeling of Happiness*

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**Abstract.** *The aim of this scientific research article is to describe the satisfaction with state of Latgale inhabitants', as well as illustrate how this factor interacts with their feeling of happiness.*

*A number of studies confirmed the link between happiness and the socio-economic conditions in the state. The low standard of living of Latgale's inhabitants resulted in a fast decline of the number of inhabitants in the region. The unemployment rate in Latgale is the largest rate of unemployment in Latvia. Because of this problem of satisfaction with the state is very topical in this region.*

*The theoretical interpretation of the happiness phenomenon is based on the findings of positive psychology, according to which happiness is defined as a life satisfaction and positive evaluation of his life and positive emotions over negative emotions.*

*The author developed methodology „Family, Job, State” and "Oxford happiness questionnaire" adapted by the author to Latvian culture and socio-demographic survey, were used in the research paper.*

*It was found out that Latgale inhabitants are not satisfied with the state socio-economic situation, state influence on personality, also the emotional attitude towards the state is at a low level*

**Keywords:** *feeling of happiness, satisfaction with the state, emotional attitude towards the state, attitude towards the state socio-economic conditions, state influence on personality.*

### Ievads

#### *Introduction*

Šī zinātniskā raksta problemātika izvēlēta pamatojoties uz pozitīvās psiholoģijas virziena pētnieku atziņām par apmierinātības sociālās makrovīdes (šajā gadījumā valsts) kvalitātes lomu iedzīvotāju laimes izjūtas un psiholoģiskās labklājības nodrošināšanā.

Pozitīvās psiholoģijas ietvaros tika veikta virkne pētījumu (Adler & Newman, 2002; Diener & Biswas Diener, 2002; Diener & Seligman, 2004), kuri apstiprina laimes izjūtas saikni ar valsts sociāli ekonomiskajiem apstākļiem. Turklāt tika pierādīts, ka valstiskā līmenī atklājas šāda tendence: jo lielāks ir iekšzemes kopprodukts uz vienu iedzīvotāju, jo augstāks ir šis valsts iedzīvotāju



apmierinātības ar dzīvi līmenis (laimes izjūtas kognitīvais komponents) (Stevenson & Wolfers, 2008; Svence, 2009).

Ienākumu faktora ietekme uz laimes izjūtu nav identiska valstīs ar dažādu sociāli ekonomisko labklājības līmeni – noteikts, ka bagātājās valstīs ienākumiem nav būtiskas ietekmes uz laimes izjūtu, turpretī nabadzīgajās valstīs (pie kurām pieskaitāma arī Latvija, un, it īpaši, Latgales reģions) tika konstatēta būtiska ienākumu ietekme uz laimes izjūtu (faktoru korelācija 0,59 - 0,62) (Clark & Oswald, 1994; Diener & Biswas Diener, 2002).

N. Bredberna pētījumi liecina, ka ienākumu līmenis ietekmē arī psihisko veselību, kas ir viens no laimes fenomena aspektiem, tā tika konstatēts, ka depresijas epizodes daudz retāk rodas cilvēkiem ar augstiem ienākumiem nekā cilvēkiem, kuru ienākumi ir zemi (Bradburn, 1969).

N. Adlera un K. Ņūmena pētījumos konstatēts, ka tiem cilvēkiem, kuri ir nabadzīgi un cieš trūkumu, ir tendence dziļāk pārdzīvot fizisku un garīgu saslimšanu, lielāku stresu dzīvē, kas rezultātā pazemina psiholoģisko labklājību un laimes izjūtu, nekā tiem, kuri ir sociāli veiksmīgi un pārtikuši (Adler & Newman, 2002).

Savukārt bezdarbs tiek atzīts par vienu no galvenajiem nelaimes izjūtas avotiem mūsdienu pasaulē. Tas var būt cēlonis depresijai, pašnāvībām, pasliktina veselību, rada apātiju un zemu pašvērtējumu (Clark & Oswald, 1994).

Zemais Latgales iedzīvotāju dzīves līmenis izraisīja strauju šī reģiona iedzīvotāju skaita samazināšanos. No 2000. gada Latgales iedzīvotāju skaits samazinājās par 24 %. Iekšzemes kopprodukts uz vienu Latgales iedzīvotāju ir 15 reizes zemāks, nekā IKP uz vienu Rīgas iedzīvotāju (Воронов & Лавриненко, 2011). Bezdarba līmenis Latgalē, saskaņā ar oficiālajiem datiem, sastāda 19,1 %, kas ir lielākais bezdarba rādītājs Latvijā (saskaņā ar Nodarbinātības Valsts aģentūras datiem, 2016).

Ņemot vērā minētos faktus šī pētījuma mērķis ir izpētīt Latgales iedzīvotāju apmierinātību ar valsti mijiedarbībā ar viņu laimes izjūtu. Jāuzsver, ka primārais pētījuma mērķis bija noteikt Latgales iedzīvotāju apmierinātību ar valsti.

### **Pētījuma teorētiskie aspekti** *Theoretical Aspects*

Jēdziena „valsts” (psiholoģiskā aspekta) teorētiskajai izstrādei tika veikta tādu autoru kā A. Čerdanceva (2000), Ž. Jefremova (2001), I. Kiseļova (2003), I. Kiseļova un A. Smirnovas (2006), V. Kogzbaņenko (2002), A. Vendta (1994), J. Nijes (2003), A. Rebera (2002) zinātnisko atziņu analīze.

Laimes izjūtas fenomena un to determinējošo faktoru problemātika ir izraisījusi plašu pozitīvās psiholoģijas teorētiku interesi un gūst atspoguļojumu daudzos pētījumos (Galati & Sotgiu, 2004; Argyle, 2003; Kahneman, Diener, &

Schwartz, 2003; Lyubomirsky & Sheldon, 2005; Diener, Oishi, & Lucas, 2003; Snyder & Lopez, 2009 u.c.)

Šajā pētījumā lielu aktualitāti iegūst pētnieku F. Endrjūsa un S. Vaitija atziņas, saskaņā ar kurām, apmierinātība ar dzīvi un laimes izjūta atspoguļo cilvēka personiskās dzīves novērtējumu. Cilvēks ir apmierināts tad, kad nav būtiskas diferences starp esošo lietu kārtību dzīvē un priekšstatu par ideālo lietu kārtību, vai cilvēka priekšstatu par to, ko viņš ir pelnījis. Neapmierinātību un nelaimīguma izjūtu rada būtiska neatbilstība starp esošo un ideālu, kā arī tā var rasties sevis un citu cilvēku negatīvas salīdzināšanas gadījumā (Andrews & Withey, 1976).

Pamatojoties uz šo atziņu empīriskajā pētījumā tiek analizēti Latgales iedzīvotāju subjektīvā attieksme pret valsti un savas valsts reālās kvalitātes novērtējums. Tādējādi *atbilstība starp valsts kvalitātes ideālo un reālo novērtējumu pētījumā tiek interpretēta kā faktors, kas paaugstina respondentu laimes izjūtu.*

### **Pētījuma metodoloģija** *Research methodology*

Pētījumā tika iesaistīti respondenti no Rēzeknes, Balvu, Ludzas, Preiļu, Daugavpils un Krāslavas novada (n=450). Empīriskā pētījuma bāzi veidoja valsts izglītības iestādes, Latgales reģiona valsts iestādes un privātie uzņēmumi.

Respondentu apmierinātības ar valsti izpētei tika izmantota autora izstrādāta oriģinālmetodika „Ģimene, Darbs, Valsts”, kas tika veidota pēc semantiskā diferenciāla principa. Šīs metodikas mērķis ir detalizēti izpētīt Latgales iedzīvotāju apmierinātību ar sociālās vides mikro un makrolīmeņa faktoriem „Ģimene”, „Darbs” un „Valsts”, šo faktoru saturu, kā arī to ietekmi uz Latgales iedzīvotāju laimes izjūtu.

Šajā rakstā apkopoti tikai tie pētījuma rezultāti, kuri atspoguļo faktora „Valsts” izpēti.

Jāuzsver, ka faktors „Valsts” tiek aprakstīts no respondenta subjektīvās attieksmes pret valsti viedokļa.

Metodikas „Ģ, D, V” indikatoru faktoranalīzes rezultātā tika iegūtas trīs skalas, kuras atspoguļo Latgales iedzīvotāju subjektīvo attieksmi pret valsti (skat. 1. tabulu).

Faktora „Valsts” struktūrā iespējams izdalīt indikatorus, kuri atbilst šī faktora „kvalitātes” un „cenās” jēdzieniem. Šie jēdzieni, pēc pētījuma autora domām, semantiski pilnīgi atspoguļo pētījuma ideju attiecībā pret pētāmajiem indikatoriem. Ar jēdzienu „kvalitāte” tiek apzīmēts respondenta vēlmju līmenis (ideālais līmenis) attiecībā pret attiecīgās skalas indikatoru, bet ar jēdzienu „cena” tiek apzīmēts respondenta pūļu līmenis, lai sasniegtu atbilstošu kvalitāti.

Respondentu klasifikācijai, atbilstoši laimes izjūtas struktūrai, tika pielietota pētījuma autora adaptēta metodika „Oksfordas laimes aptauja” (Hills & Argyle, 2002; adaptēts: Kalvāns, 2013).

1. tabula Faktora „Valsts” skalū struktūra  
Table 1 Factor „State” scale structure

Skalas	Indikatori	Kronbaha alfa
<b>Emocionālā attieksme pret valsti</b>	Cieņu radoša – cieņu neradoša	0,670(I) 0,848(R)
	Man vienaldzīga – man nozīmīga	
	Mīla – nav mīla	
	Stipra – vāja	
	Atvērta – noslēgta	
<b>Attieksme pret valsts sociāli ekonomiskajiem apstākļiem</b>	Totalitāra - demokrātiska	0,640(I) 0,840(R)
	Atpalikusi – attīstīta	
	Atkarīga – neatkarīga	
	Beztiesiska – tiesiska	
	Nabadzīga – bagāta	
Sabrūkoša - labklājīga		
<b>Valsts ietekmes uz personību vērtējums</b>	Apvienojoša – šķiroša	0,724(I) 0,878(R)
	Aizsargājoša - neaizsargājoša	
	Personības attīstību veicinoša – personības attīstību bremzējoša	

Kā redzams metodikas atsevišķu skalū ticamības rādītāji ir pietiekami un labi. Ilustrētās skalū uzskatāmi atspoguļo faktora „Valsts” saturisko struktūru.

Turpmāk tiek aprakstīti pētījuma rezultāti, kas atspoguļo Latgales iedzīvotāju:

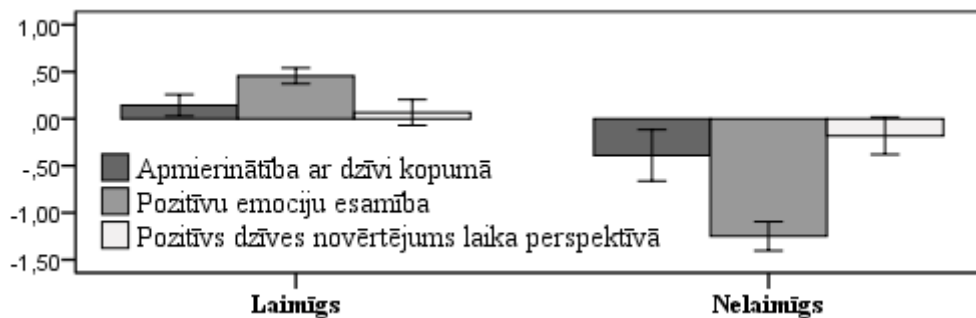
- ideālos priekšstatus par atsevišķiem subjektīvo attieksmi pret valsti atspoguļojošiem faktoriem (2. att. apzīmējums „I”),
- šo faktoru reālā stāvokļa vērtējumu (2. att. apzīmējums „R”),
- priekšstatus par valsts ideālo kvalitāti (3. att. apzīmējums „IK”),
- gatavību pielikt pūles šādas ideālās kvalitātes (cena) sasniegšanai (3. att. apzīmējums „IC”),
- valsts reālās kvalitātes vērtējumu (3. att. apzīmējums „RK”),
- pielikto pūļu reālo līmeni (cena) šādas kvalitātes sasniegšanai (3. att. apzīmējums „RC”).

### Pētījuma rezultātu analīze *Analysis of the research results*

Pētījuma sākumā ar Oksfordas laimes aptaujas un divpakāpju klasteranalīzes palīdzību tika veikta respondentu klasifikācija 2 grupās – „Laimīgs” un

„Nelaimīgs”. Šāda klasifikācija bija nepieciešama, lai izpētītu respondentu apmierinātības ar valsti un viņu laimes izjūtas mijsakarības. Jāatzīmē, ka šāda klasifikācija neparāda detalizētākas laimes izjūtas gradācijas, bet ir pietiekama, lai noteiktu galvenās pētāmo fenomenu mijsakarību tendences.

1. attēlā ilustrēta minēto grupu laimes izjūtas struktūra.



1.att. Grupu „Laimīgs” un „Nelaimīgs” laimes izjūtas struktūra

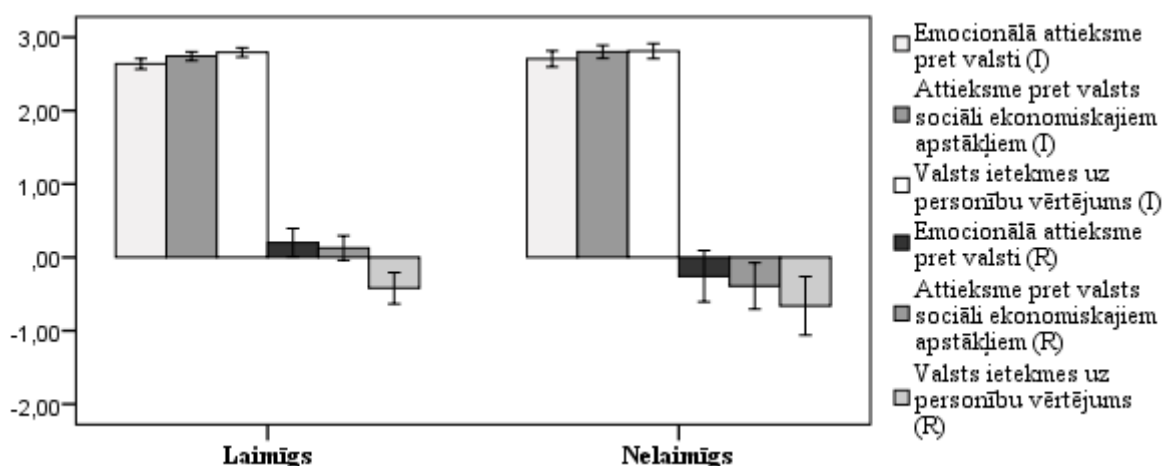
Fig.1 The structure of feeling of happiness of groups „Happy” and „Unhappy”

Turpmāk atspoguļota faktora „Valsts” struktūras skalu ideālās nozīmības un reālā stāvokļa vērtējuma analīze respondentu grupās „Laimīgs” un „Nelaimīgs” (skat. 2. attēlu).

Apkopotajās respondentu grupās „Laimīgs” un „Nelaimīgs”, izmantojot Stjudenta ( $t$  - test) kritērija noteikšanas metodi, statistiski nozīmīgas atšķirības tika konstatētas pēc faktora „Valsts” skalu „Emocionālā attieksme pret valsti” ( $F=1,383$ ,  $p<0,05$ ) un „Attieksme pret valsts sociāli ekonomiskajiem apstākļiem” ( $F=1608$ ,  $p<0,05$ ) reālā stāvokļa novērtējuma. Savukārt pēc skalas „Valsts ietekmes uz personību vērtējums” reālās situācijas vērtējuma statistiski nozīmīgas atšķirības starp pētāmajām grupām netika konstatētas. Arī pēc faktora „Valsts” visu skalu ideālo priekšstatu vidējām vērtībām pētāmajās respondentu grupās statistiski nozīmīgas atšķirības netika konstatētas. Pētāmā faktora skalu salīdzinājums ilustrēts 2. attēlā.

Iespējams konstatēt, ka abu salīdzināmo grupu respondenti sniedz zemu vērtējumu skalām, kuras raksturo reālo situāciju valstī, tomēr faktora „Valsts” skalu vērtējums respondentu grupā „Nelaimīgs” ir zemāks nekā respondentu grupā „Laimīgs”. Jāatzīmē, ka zemākais reālās situācijas vērtējums abās respondentu raksturo skalu „Valsts ietekme uz personības attīstību”, nedaudz augstāk respondenti vērtē valsts sociāli ekonomiskos apstākļus, savukārt visaugstākais vērtējums atklāj respondentu emocionālo attieksmi pret valsti.

Zemu faktora „Valsts” reālās situācijas vērtējumu iespējams saistīt Latgales reģiona sarežģīto sociāli ekonomisko situāciju, kura ilustrēta šī raksta ievadā.



2.att. Faktora „Valsts” satura skalu vidējās vērtības respondentu grupās „Laimīgs” un „Nelaimīgs”

Fig.2 Average values of Factor „State” in groups „Happy” and „Unhappy”

2. tabulā veikta faktora „Valsts” psiholoģiskā interpretācija apvienotajās respondentu grupās „Laimīgs” un „Nelaimīgs” pēc reālā stāvokļa novērtējuma. Faktora „Valsts” psiholoģiskās interpretācijas analīze, ka abu grupu iedzīvotāju attieksme pret valsti ir robežstāvoklī starp negatīvu un pozitīvu vērtējumu, bet grupas „Nelaimīgs” iedzīvotāju attieksmē pret valsti konstatēta negatīva vērtējuma tendence.

2.tab. Faktora „Valsts” psiholoģiskā interpretācija respondentu grupās „Laimīgs” un „Nelaimīgs” pēc reālā stāvokļa novērtējuma

Table 2 Psychological interpretation of factor „State” in groups of respondents „Happy” and „Unhappy” in accordance with the real assessment of the state

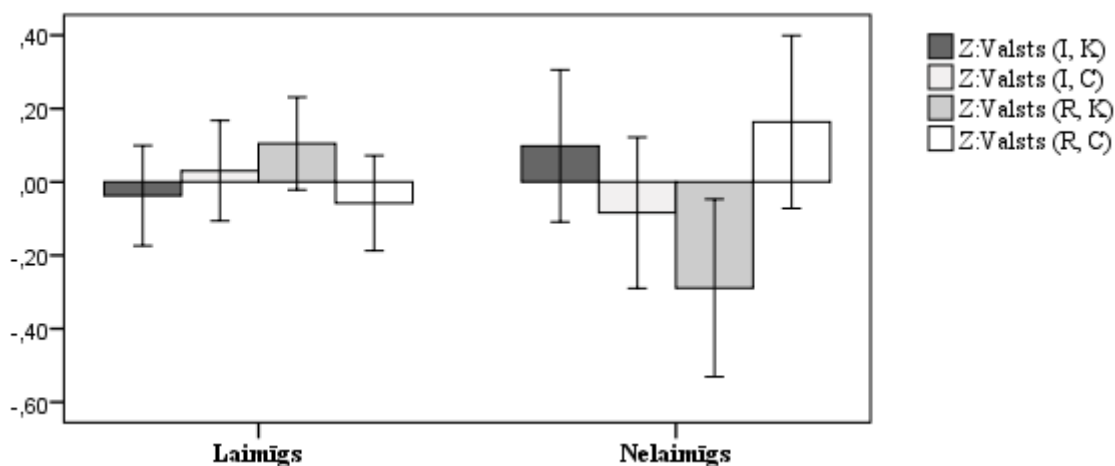
Faktora „Valsts” skalas	Respondentu grupas „Laimīgs” psiholoģiskais raksturojums saskaņā ar faktoru „Valsts”	Respondentu grupas „Nelaimīgs” psiholoģiskais raksturojums saskaņā ar faktoru „Valsts”
Emocionālā attieksme pret valsti	Cieņu radoša, vidēji nozīmīga, mēreni mīlota, drīzāk vāja nekā stipra, drīzāk atvērta nekā noslēgta	Drīzāk cieņu neradoša, maz nozīmīga, drīzāk nav mīļa, drīzāk vāja, noslēgta
Attieksme pret valsts sociāli ekonomiskajiem apstākļiem	Drīzāk demokrātiska nekā totalitāra, drīzāk atpalikusi nekā attīstīta, drīzāk neatkarīga, drīzāk tiesiska nekā beztiesiska, drīzāk nabadzīga, vidēji labklājīga	Drīzāk demokrātiska nekā totalitāra, atpalikusi, drīzāk atkarīga, beztiesiska, nabadzīga, drīzāk sabrūkoša nekā labklājīga
Valsts ietekmes uz personību vērtējums	Drīzāk šķiroša nekā apvienojoša, drīzāk neaizsargājoša nekā aizsargājoša, personības attīstību bremzējoša	Šķiroša, neaizsargājoša, personības attīstību bremzējoša

Iespējams secināt, ka faktora „Valsts” novērtējumā konstatēta būtiskākā neatbilstība starp respondentu ideālo priekšstatu par valsti un reālo situāciju valstī. Latgales iedzīvotāju neapmierinātība ar sociālās vides makrolīmeņa faktoru „Valsts” ir nedaudz zemāka laimīgo respondentu grupā. Tie respondenti, kuriem ir zemāks pretenziju līmenis pret valsti, ir laimīgāki – viņiem raksturīga liberālāka attieksme pret valsti.

Tādējādi Latgales iedzīvotāju zemā apmierinātība ar valsti vērtējama kā faktors, kas pazemina viņu laimes izjūtu, jo saskaņā ar minētajām F. Endrjūsa un S. Vaitija atziņām, neapmierinātību un nelaimīguma izjūtu rada būtiska neatbilstība starp esošo stāvokli un ideālu (Andrews & Withey, 1976). Šī teorētiskā atziņa pamato mijiedarbību starp iedzīvotāju apmierinātību ar valsti un viņu laimes izjūtu.

Turpmāk tiek piedāvāta faktora „Valsts” kvalitātes – cenas attiecību analīze respondentu grupās „Laimīgs” un „Nelaimīgs”.

3. attēlā ilustrētas faktora „Valsts” kvalitātes – cenas attiecības respondentu grupās „Laimīgs” un „Nelaimīgs”.



3.att. Faktora „Valsts” kvalitātes – cenas attiecības respondentu grupās „Laimīgs” un „Nelaimīgs”

Fig.3 Quality - price ratio of factor „State” in groups „Happy” and „Unhappy”

Saskaņā ar aprēķināto Manna – Vitnija U kritēriju statistiski nozīmīgas atšķirības starp grupu „Laimīgs” un „Nelaimīgs” konstatētas pēc faktora „Valsts” reālās kvalitātes ( $p=0,004$ ) un ideālās kvalitātes ( $p=0,050$ ) vērtējuma.

Faktora „Valsts” reālās kvalitātes novērtējums nav augsts visā respondentu izlasē - to nosaka objektīvās Latgales reģiona sociāli ekonomiskās problēmas. Tomēr jāatzīmē, ka grupas „Laimīgs” respondentu minētā faktora vērtējums kopumā ir augstāks. Tas liecina par to, ka šīs grupas respondentiem piemīt pozitīvāka dzīves uztvere, ko var izskaidrot ar to, ka šai respondentu grupai

raksturīga izteikta būtiskākā laimes izjūtas komponenta „Pozitīvu emociju esamība” dominante.

Tajā pašā laikā Latgales iedzīvotāji, kuri attiecināti uz grupu „Nelaimīgs”, augstāk novērtē savus reālos ieguldījumus (reālā cena) faktora „Valsts” kvalitātē salīdzinājumā ar iedzīvotājiem, kuri ietilpst grupā „Laimīgs”. Augsts cenas novērtējums var veidot nelaimīgajiem Latgales iedzīvotājiem vilšanās izjūtu attiecībā pret valsti, jo reālās valsts kvalitātes vērtējums šajā grupā ir negatīvs.

## **Secinājumi** **Conclusions**

Apkopojot iegūtos rezultātus, iespējams secināt:

1. Pētāmajā izlasē konstatēta neapmierinātība ar sociālās vides makrolīmeni prezentējošā faktora „Valsts” reālo kvalitāti neatkarīgi no respondentu laimes izjūtas. Šo tendenci pamatā nosaka Latgales reģiona objektīvās sociāli ekonomiskās problēmas;
2. Valsts ietekmi uz personību grupu „Laimīgs” un „Nelaimīgs” respondenti novērtē negatīvi;
3. Grupā „Laimīgs” ir nedaudz augstāks emocionālās attieksmes pret valsti un valsts sociāli ekonomisko apstākļu reālās kvalitātes novērtējums nekā grupā „Nelaimīgs”;
4. Grupas „Laimīgs” respondentiem ir augstāks valsts reālās kvalitātes vērtējums un zemākas prasības pret valsts kvalitāti ideālajā vērtējumā. Savukārt grupas „Nelaimīgs” respondentiem ir zems valsts reālās kvalitātes vērtējums un augstas prasības pret valsts kvalitāti ideālajā vērtējumā;
5. Zemais apmierinātības līmenis ar valsts reālo kvalitāti vērtējams kā faktors, kas negatīvi ietekmē Latgales iedzīvotāju laimes izjūtu.

## **Summary**

The aim of this scientific research is to describe the satisfaction with state of Latgale inhabitants', as well as illustrate how this factor affects their feeling of happiness. The satisfaction with state as one of the most important factors influencing happiness are highlighted in many studies of positive psychology.

The theoretical interpretation of the happiness phenomenon is also based on the findings of positive psychology, according to which happiness is defined as a life satisfaction and positive evaluation of his life and positive emotions over negative emotions.

Latgale region has been chosen because this is the region of Latvia with the lowest socio-economic development, which is considered one of the poorest regions in the European Union - so it acquires a special topicality of welfare problem, the most

important aspect of happiness. Because of this author of this article chose to investigate Latgale inhabitants' satisfaction with the state socio-economic situation, state influence on personality, also the emotional attitude towards the state.

Participated in the survey respondents (n=450) of the Balvi, Ludza, Rezekne, Preiļi, Daugavpils and Kraslava region. The empirical research base: the state educational institution, regional public authorities of Latgale and private businesses.

Were used in the following research methods: author developed methodology „Family, Job, State” (Kalvāns, 2013) and M. Argyle's „Oxford Happiness Questionnaire (Hills & Argyle, 2002).

The results of empirical study lead the following conclusions:

1. In the researched selection found dissatisfaction with the real quality of macro factor “State” regardless of respondents feeling of happiness. This trend is primarily driven by the Latgale region the objective socio-economic problems;
2. State influence on the personality happy and unhappy inhabitants of Latgale assessed negatively;
3. Happy Latgale inhabitants have slightly higher emotional attitudes towards the state and the state socio-economic condition than the unhappy inhabitants;
4. Happy Latgale inhabitants have higher assessment of real condition of the state and lower requirements against ideal condition of the state. The unhappy inhabitants of Latgale have low assessment of real condition of the state and high requirements against ideal condition of the state;
5. The low level of satisfaction with the real quality of the state evaluated as a factor that negatively affects the happiness of Latgale inhabitants.

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# INDIVIDUAL FUTURE ORIENTATION AND DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS PREDICTING LIFE SATISFACTION

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**Abstract.** *This study explored a model of prediction of life satisfaction by individual future orientation (FO) and demographic factors. Individual views of the future and goals are closely associated with well-being. Theories of FO represent different approaches to its conceptualization. Following Seginer (2009), this study presents a combination of motivational, cognitive, and behavioral components of FO. Participants were 130 females and 75 males from 18 to 49. A new measure of individual FO (the Individual Future Orientation Scale, IFOS) and the Satisfaction With Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) were used for the assessment. The results of structural equation modeling demonstrate that relatively higher life satisfaction is predicted by higher individual FO and higher income assessed as an income range and subjective satisfaction with it. Therefore, subjective involvement in a pursuit of future goals and financial background add to understanding of individual satisfaction with life.*

**Keywords:** *demographic factors, future orientation, life satisfaction.*

## Introduction

Satisfaction with life is a substantial component of subjective well-being (Diener, 1984; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985; Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). Associated with happiness, this approach to well-being is not reducible to physical hedonism and involves generalized satisfaction with one's goals and progress in their attainment (Diener et al., 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2001). Empirical studies confirm the association between goal pursuit and life satisfaction (Krings, Bangerter, Gomez, & Grob, 2008; Salmela-Aro, Pennanen, & Nurmi, 2001). In addition, life satisfaction is impacted by demographic factors and SES, personality traits and cognitive dispositions (Diener et al., 1999), sociohistorical context and social support (Krings et al., 2008). *The aim of this study* was the further exploration of predicting life satisfaction by individual future orientation and demographic factors.

## Predictors of life satisfaction

Multiple determination of life satisfaction results in a variety of findings on key determinants (see Diener et al., 1999 for a review). Among demographic variables, higher income, education, marriage, and religiosity explain higher satisfaction with life. At the same time, a comparison of Eastern and Western countries (Ngoo, Tey, & Tan, 2015) demonstrated that some factors (e.g., marriage) can have higher impact on life satisfaction, while other factors (e.g., education) can lose their significance in Eastern countries. In Latvia, Upmane (2010) confirmed significance of higher income, education, relationships' status, and religiosity in understanding of life satisfaction. Among subjective variables, higher satisfaction with personal development, interpersonal relationships, financial situation and income, higher positive affect, and lower negative affect were the predictors of higher life satisfaction (Upmane, 2010).

Inconsistency of findings is higher in the field of individual goals. Despite of an association between goal pursuit and life satisfaction (Krings et al., 2008; Salmela-Aro et al., 2001), some studies do not confirm the relationship between future orientation and perceived happiness (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999; Drake, Duncan, Sutherland, Abernethy, & Henry, 2008). Observed differences can be explained by different conceptualization of individual orientation towards goals, which is also designated as individual future orientation (see Seginer, 2009 for a review). The most generalized view (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999; Drake et al., 2008) represents individual orientation towards future goals as a single dimension. Important aspects of the process of goal pursuit and its evaluation can be lost by taking this generalized perspective. More specific view of individual future orientation (Seginer, Vermulst, & Shoyer, 2004) involves a set of individual goals (cognitive component), value of goals, control over their attainment, and goal-related expectations (motivational component), and exploration of and commitment to goals (behavioral component). These specific aspects of future orientation associate with higher life satisfaction (Diener et al., 1999; Krings et al., 2008; Salmela-Aro et al., 2001). At the same time, the question about the relationship between more generalized future orientation and life satisfaction remains.

In order to explore the relationship, the present study suggests *a new approach* to individual future orientation. It comprises two well-known models: a general orientation towards the future (e.g., Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999) and a combination of specific aspects of orientation towards goals in a particular domain (Seginer et al., 2004). Within the frame of the current study, individual future orientation was considered as a latent factor (generalization) of motivational, cognitive, and behavioral components of individual orientation towards one's goals. This kind of generalization can be considered as goal-based

in comparison with the model of Zimbardo and Boyd (1999). The latter represents some aspects of personality characteristics (e.g., consideration of future consequences) appearing in its factorial structure (Kolesovs, 2009).

*It was hypothesized* that the generalization of goal-oriented aspects of individual future orientation will be among predictors of life satisfaction. In order to control an effect of evaluation of the future associated with goal-oriented FO (e.g., Nuttin & Lens, 1985), it was added to the list of predictors. Taking into account findings of Krings et al. (2008), perceived social support was also included into the model.

## Method

**Participants.** Research participants were 130 females and 75 males from 18 to 49 (mean age was 23.97, SD = 5.50). The most part of them (about 89 %) were university students. Some level of higher education was acquired by 33 % of participants. About 11 % of participants were married. There was 51 % of working participants. The income level of 71 % of participants was no lower than the mean income per person in the household in Latvia (Central Statistical Bureau of Latvia, 2014).

**Measures.** *The Individual Future Orientation Scale (IFOS)* was developed for the assessment of general future orientation based on its motivational, cognitive, and behavioral aspects emphasized by Seginer et al. (2004). The scale contains eight groups of questions (see Appendix) associating with near and distal individual goals and forming three subscales. A seven-point Likert-type scale was provided for answers. Summary scores of subscales and of the scale were calculated by dividing the sum of specific items by the number of items. The scale was developed and applied in Latvian.

Motivational subscale involves questions regarding perceived control over goals, expectancy of their fulfillment, and perceived value of goals (Questions 6, 7, and 8, respectively). Each aspect of motivation was assessed in regard to near and distal goals. For example, the question “How important are these goals for you?” represented perceived value of goals and was answered in regard to near goals and distal goals (two items).

Cognitive subscale was developed on a basis of a previous study (Kolesovs, 2015) and evaluated the content of future goals by answering two questions (Questions 2 and 3): “To what extent your near [next question – distal] goals are associated with the following domains?” Nine specific domains were assessed after each question: education, occupation and career, family and marriage, children, friends, parents and relatives, *leisure, property and money*, and personal growth. Added items are in italics.

It should be noted that there is no conflict between the use of items for assessment of a generalized tendency and the use of the same items for the assessment of separate domains in the previous study (Kolesovs, 2015). Different uses are dependent on the goal of the study. Exploration of generalized future orientation requires focusing on a common component in assessment of different goals. Common variance of different domains was also analyzed in a study on goals' variability within and between individuals (Nurmi, Salmela-Aro, & Aunola, 2009).

Behavioral subscale assesses individual commitment to goals and exploration of opportunities for their fulfillment. These aspects are evaluated by three questions regarding definitiveness of goals (Question 1), efforts in their specification (Question 4), and exploration of opportunities for their fulfillment (Question 5). Similarly to motivational scale, behavioral aspects were assessed in regard to both near and distal goals. For example, the question "Do you have defined your personal goals?" represented commitment to goals and was answered in regard to near goals and distal goals separately.

*The Satisfaction With Life Scale* (Diener et al., 1985) was used for the assessment of life satisfaction. The scale consists of five items assessed on a seven-point Likert-type scale. An item example: "In most ways my life is close to my ideal." One of Latvian versions of the scale was applied (Upmane, 2010). Cronbach's alpha coefficient was .83.

*Two additional measures* were used. First, perceived support at a meso-system level was assessed by a measure suggested by Kolesovs (2015). It was assessed as support for goal attainment provided by parents, siblings, relatives, and friends by asking "To what extent your goals are supported by people listed below?" (Appendix, Question 9). Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the subscale was .70. Second, evaluation of the future was assessed by asking "Please evaluate each temporal interval of your life." Three intervals were assessed (Appendix, Question 10), but evaluation of the future was calculated by summing evaluation of the near and distal future. Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .60 (slightly lowered).

**Procedure.** The questionnaire in a paper-and-pencil format was filled in without time limit individually or in groups. In addition, 34 participants completed the IFOS over a four-week interval in order to assess test-retest reliability of the scale.

## **Results**

At the first step, two main aspects of reliability of the IFOS were assessed. Table 1 presents internal consistency and test-retest reliability of the IFOS.

Table 1 Reliability of the IFOS and its subscales (N = 205)

Scale	Items	Cronbach's alpha coefficient	Test-retest reliability, 4 weeks (n = 34)
Future Orientation	30	.86	.81
Motivational	6	.70	.73
Cognitive	18	.83	.85
Behavioral	6	.81	.72

The second step involved suggested measures into a correlational analysis. Table 2 reflects the results of the analysis. It was found that age, gender, employment, and having children do not correlate with life satisfaction. Significant correlations were found for individual future orientation, evaluation of the future, perceived social support, perceived income, higher income range, having higher education, and marriage.

Table 2 Correlates of life satisfaction (N = 205)

Variables	Life Satisfaction
Age	.11
Gender (female)	.10
Employment	.08
Higher Education	.15*
Marital status (married)	.17*
Children	.12
Higher Income (over the mean)	.34***
Perceived Income	.28***
Perceived Social Support	.24**
Evaluation of the Personal Future	.40***
Individual Future Orientation (IFOS sum)	.41***

\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

At the third step, a structural equation model was applied in order to assess predictors of life satisfaction and their covariation. The measurement model involved three components of individual future orientation. Therefore, individual future orientation was represented as a latent variable. Five of six significant correlates were added to the model as exogenous variables or predictors of life satisfaction. Marital status was excluded from the analysis because of underrepresentation of married individuals (11 % only).

Figure 1 presents the model, significant coefficients, and covariations among predictors. Statistical package 'lavaan' (0.5-22) for R (Rosseel, 2012) was used for the assessment of the model. Satorra-Bentler correction was applied in the assessment of the robust model fit through maximum likelihood method. Scaling

correction factor was 1.15. The model demonstrated no significant deviance from data and acceptable fit indexes:  $\chi^2(12) = 12.40, p = .414$ , CFI = 0.99, TLI = 0.99, RMSEA = .01 (90 % confidence interval from .00 to .07,  $p = .806$ ), SRMR = .03.

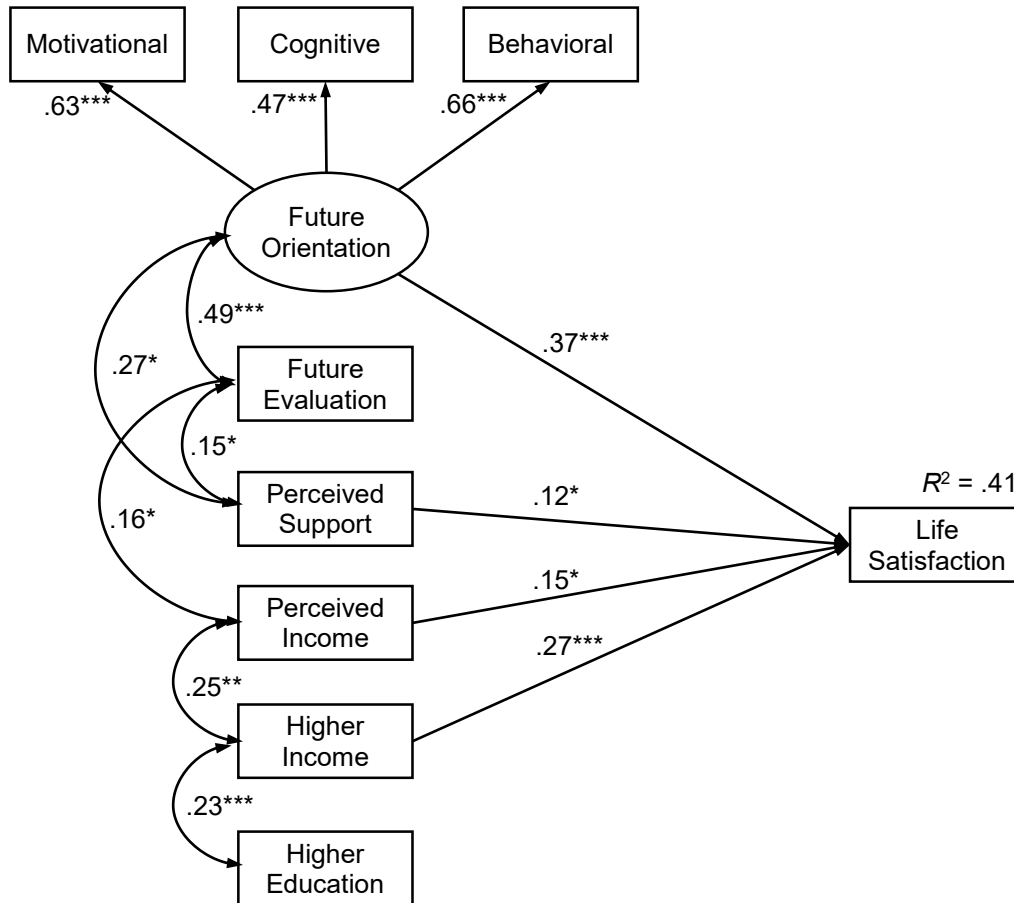


Figure 1 Standardized regression coefficients and covariation among predictors of life satisfaction

Model invariance was assessed for gender by statistical package ‘semTools’ for R based on suggestions of Vandenberg and Lance (2000). The results indicated invariance of the model for factorial loadings,  $\Delta\chi^2(2) = 0.49, p = .781$ , intercepts,  $\Delta\chi^2(3) = 2.64, p = .450$ , and means,  $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 0.56, p = .453$ .

## Discussion

In general, the results confirm multiple determination of life satisfaction. The most powerful predictors are higher individual FO and higher income level reported by participants. Therefore, the hypothesis regarding individual FO is confirmed. In addition to objective income data, higher subjective satisfaction

with the level of income adds to higher life satisfaction. Perceived support is the fourth predictor revealed in the study.

Among demographic predictors, higher income level is in accordance with previous findings (Diener et al., 1999; Ngoo et al., 2015; Upmane, 2010). Higher education demonstrated low level of correlation with life satisfaction and is not among its predictors. It can be explained by relatively low variation of the level of education in the current study. The most part of the participants were university students. Therefore, other developmental trajectories are underrepresented and should be included into the further research.

Significant prediction of life satisfaction by FO is a step in understanding observed lack of correlation between FO and perceived happiness (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999; Drake et al., 2008). The new model of FO generalizes individual motivation, cognitive representations, and goal-relevant behavior as important aspects of goal pursuit presented by Seginer et al. (2004). Therefore, individual FO as a generalized view of goal pursuit demonstrates significant association with life satisfaction considered in previous studies (Diener et al., 1999; Krings, et al., 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Salmela-Aro et al., 2001), while FO as a personality characteristic is less associated with it (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999; Drake et al., 2008).

The new model of FO seems provide a successful compromise between a detailed exploration of domain-specific goals (Seginer et al., 2004; Nurmi et al., 2009) and individual future orientation as an element of individual time perspective (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). At the same time, relatively low factorial load of cognitive component is in accordance with a conclusion on relatively low common variance of individual goals in different domains (Nurmi et al., 2009). Therefore, the IFOS cannot substitute instruments for detailed exploration of domain-specific goals (e.g., Seginer et al., 2004), but is useful in the case of a generalized representation of FO. Revealed association of FO with evaluation of the future demonstrates that the IFOS can be extended for representing a broader view of future orientation (e.g., Nuttin & Lens, 1985).

It should be noted that the current study has important limitations. Development of a new model of individual FO limited including individual views of the past and the present as significant background for predicting life satisfaction (Diener et al., 1985; Drake et al., 2008). As a result, explained variance of life satisfaction is about 41 %. In addition, personality traits and cognitive dispositions (Diener et al., 1999) can be added to the predictive model in the further study. Higher variability of participants can be useful for more correct assessment of predictive demographic factors (marriage, having children, and a level of education).

It can be concluded that subjective and objective factors interact in their prediction of individual life satisfaction. This interaction is the most visible is in



the domain of income and satisfaction with it. A new representation of individual future orientation as a goal-based construct confirms association of goal pursuit and life satisfaction.

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## APPENDIX

### The Individual Future Orientation Scale (IFOS)

Instrukcija: Aicinu Jūs piedalīties aptaujā, kura iekļauj jautājumus par Jūsu priekšstatiem par nākotni. Runa ir par Jūsu viedokli, tāpēc nevar būt “pareizās” vai “nepareizās” atbildes. Atbildot uz jautājumiem, lūdzu, apvelciet piemērotu atbildes variantu.

#### PERSONĪGĀ NĀKOTNE

##### 1. Vai Jūs esat noteikuši savus personīgos mērķus?

	Nemaz						Pilnībā
Tuvākie mērķi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attālinātie mērķi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

##### 2. Cik lielā mērā Jūsu TUVĀKIE mērķi ir saistīti ar sekojošām jomām?

	Nav aktuāls Minimāli						Maksimāli
Izglītība	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Darbs/karjera	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ģimene/laulība	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Bērni	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Draugi	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Vecāki/radi	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Atpūta	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Īpašums/nauda	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Personīga izaugsme	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

##### 3. Cik lielā mērā Jūsu ATTĀLINĀTIE mērķi ir saistīti ar sekojošām jomām?

	Nav aktuāls Minimāli						Maksimāli
Izglītība	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Darbs/karjera	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ģimene/laulība	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Bērni	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Draugi	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Vecāki/radi	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Atpūta	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Īpašums/nauda	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Personīga izaugsme	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

4. Vai Jūs veltāt laiku, lai precizētu savus mērķus?

	Minimāli						Maksimāli
Tuvākie mērķi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attālinātie mērķi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. Vai Jūs meklējat jaunas iespējas, lai piepildītu savus mērķus?

	Nemaz						Nepārtraukti
Tuvākie mērķi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attālinātie mērķi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. Cik lielā mērā Jūsu mērķu sasniegšana ir atkarīga no Jums?

	Nemaz						Pilnībā
Tuvākie mērķi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attālinātie mērķi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. Cik lielā mērā, Jūsprāt, Jūsu mērķi tiks sasniegti?

	Nemaz						Pilnībā
Tuvākie mērķi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attālinātie mērķi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. Cik svarīgi ir šie mērķi priekš Jums?

	Minimāli						Maksimāli
Tuvākie mērķi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attālinātie mērķi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9.\* Cik lielā mērā Jūsu mērķu sasniegšanu atbalsta zemāk norādītie cilvēki?

	Man nav Minimāli						Maksimāli
Vecāki	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Brāļi/māšas	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Radi	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Sieva/vīrs/mīļotais cilvēks	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Draugi	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

10.\* Lūdzu, novērtējiet katru laika intervālu savā dzīvē.

	Ļoti negatīva				Ļoti pozitīva		
Tagadne	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3
Tuvākā nākotne	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3
Tāla nākotne	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3

\* Question 9 and Question 10 are not a genuine part of the IFOS.

## PREDICTORS OF THE SENSE OF BELONGING TO THE COUNTRY: EXPLORING A NEW MODEL

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**Abstract.** *This study explored new possibilities for measuring the sense of belonging to the country and investigated predictors of the sense of belonging to Latvia. Focusing on students' sense of belonging to the country is explained by two reasons: 1) emigration is the main factor of depopulation in Latvia; 2) students' intention to emigrate is the highest among other social groups. Studies in the field of community psychology present models of the sense of community and explore intentions to stay in a particular place. Within a new model, different levels of social systems (from meso- to macro-system) were included into the analysis of predictors of the sense of belonging to the country. The participants were 205 university students from 18 to 30 (67 % females). On the basis of previous studies, a new measure of the sense of belonging and perceived context was developed. The results confirmed a complex model of the sense of belonging in the context of social systems. Higher perceived opportunities at the level of the country and more positive evaluation of the future of Latvia predicted higher level of the sense of belonging to Latvia directly. In addition, female students perceived higher level of the sense of belonging than male students.*

**Keywords:** *community, country, ecological systems theory, opportunities, sense of belonging.*

### Introduction

The sense of youth's belonging to the country is a challenge for social scientists in Latvia because of two reasons. First, in accordance with the Central Statistical Bureau of Latvia (CSBL, 2016), emigration is the main factor of depopulation in the country. Projected general loss of the population in 2020 is about 10 % (Eurostat, European Commission, 2016). Second, sociological studies (Hazans, 2013; Zepa & Kļave, 2011) demonstrate that students are the highest among other social groups in their intention to emigrate.

Studies in the field of community psychology present models of the sense of community (e.g., McMillan & Chavis, 1986; Tartaglia, 2006) and investigate intentions to stay in a particular living place (e.g., Arcidiacono, Procentese, & Di Napoli, 2007; Pretty, Chipuer, & Bramston, 2003). At the same time, there is a

limited number of psychological studies on belonging to the country. In addition, measures of the sense of belonging differ in their content because of specific research objectives. For example, a study on post-traumatic growth (Dekel & Nuttman-Shwartz, 2009) included terrorist attacks as a challenge for the sense of belonging, while study on adolescent immigrants emphasized aspects of their cultural identity (Tartakovsky, 2009). *The aim of this study* was to explore new possibilities for measuring the sense of belonging to the country and to investigate predictors of the sense of belonging to Latvia.

### **Sense of belonging to the country and its predicting**

It should be noted that there is no uniformity in uses of the concept of belonging in psychological studies. Community studies represent the sense of belonging as an element of a broader sense of community involving individual bounds to the community and identification with it (e.g., McMillan & Chavis, 1986). Some models of the sense of community (Tartaglia, 2006) include attachment to the community instead of the sense of belonging. At the level of a society, attachment to the country is also mentioned in studies on patriotism (Huddy & Khatib, 2007; Schatz, Staub, & Lavine, 1999). More critical view (Miller, 2003) emphasizes that attachment represents individual feeling, while belonging relates to social, historical, and territorial connections. Studies on the sense of community revealed also temporal aspect of the sense of belonging, which manifests in planning personal future as more or less associated with the living place (Arcidiacono et al., 2007; Pretty et al., 2003). As a result, in the current study, the sense of belonging was defined as perceived ties with the country or the community, which can be measured as the level of association of personal life with it in the present and in the future.

Theoretical models (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Pinquart & Silbereisen, 2004) emphasize significance of multiple levels of social systems – from micro- (dyadic relations) through meso- (for example, family as joined micro-systems) to macro-system (society) – in understanding social phenomena. Taking ecological systems theory perspective (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), it is possible to expect that predictors of the sense of belonging to the country can be revealed at different levels of social systems. First, perceived support at the level of meso-system should be included into the analysis (Arcidiacono et al., 2007). Second, the level of a community can involve perceived opportunities for need fulfilment and individual views of the future of the community (Arcidiacono et al., 2007; Tartaglia, 2006). In addition, the sense of belonging to the community can be among the predictors of the sense of belonging to the country. Third, perception of the situation at the macro-level (country) seems important element of association of personal life with the country. It was demonstrated in the study on university students' views of the

future of Latvia and Russia (Kolesovs & Kashirsky, 2015). Students from Latvia mentioned emigration as a topical problem of the country and discussed it in the context of opportunities for personal development and of belonging to the country in the future. Connections between perceived contextual opportunities and goal setting and life planning are also emphasized in the models of future orientation (Nurmi, 1991) and socialization (Nurmi, 2004). As a result, prediction of the sense of belonging to the country was planned within a path model presented in Figure 1.

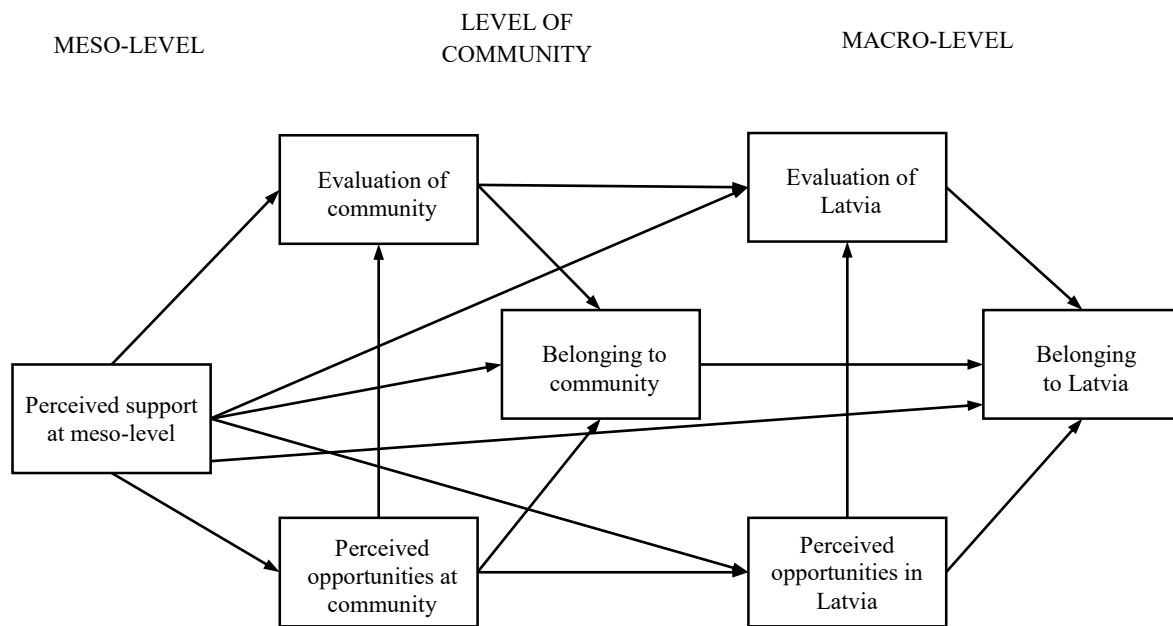


Figure 1 A model of predicting the sense of belonging to the country

As Figure 1 demonstrates, connections between similar constructs at the level of community and of the country were expected (e.g., belonging to the community can predict belonging to the country). Taking into account the results of a study on the sense of community (Arcidiacono et al., 2007), perceived meso-support was considered as impacting any variable at higher levels. Following the model of future orientation and a sequence of interrelated processes (Nurmi, 1991), perceived contextual opportunities were selected as predictors of evaluation of the community or of the country. In order to explore the model, it was analyzed without latent variables. Reliability of the measurements and model fit were the main focuses of the assessment.

## Method

**Participants.** The participants were 205 university students from 18 to 30 (mean age = 22.19, *SD* = 2.57, 67 % were females). Students were from Riga and

Daugavpils, and the most of them (67 %) were studying at their living place. One fourth (25 %) of participants have completed some level of higher education, 48 % of participants were employed, 8 % married, 8 % having children, and 61 % of them indicated their income range above the mean income per person in a household in Latvia (CSBL, 2014). Students' mother tongue was Latvian (64 %), Russian (34 %), or other language or bilingual (2 %). In order to include an ethnolinguistic group into the analysis, it was performed in a sample of 201 students indicating Latvian or Russian language as their mother tongue. The number of participants was sufficient for the assessment of a model without latent variables.

**Measures.** A new questionnaire was based on a combination of measures presenting personal goals in a context (Kolesovs, 2015) and the Future of Country Questionnaire, FCQ (Kolesovs & Kashirsky, 2014). *The Sense of Belonging in Social Context Questionnaire* was developed in Latvian (see Appendix). Variables at meso-, community-, and macro-level were assessed on a Likert-type 7-point scale (from 1 = 'minimal' to 7 = 'maximal').

*Macro-level.* A new measure of belonging to the country included three items addressing the level of association of personal life with Latvia in the present and in the near and distal future. The question was common for three temporal frames: "To what extent do you associate your life with Latvia?"

Evaluation of the present and of the near and distal future of Latvia was assessed in accordance with the FCQ. In addition, by analogy with a study on perceived social context (Kolesovs, 2015), perceived opportunities for fulfilment of near and distal personal goals in Latvia were assessed by asking "Does Latvia provide opportunities for fulfilment of your goals?"

*Community level.* Perceived belonging to the community in the present and in the near and distal future was assessed by analogy with belonging to the country asking: "To what extent do you associate your life with your living place?" Perceived opportunities for fulfilment of near and distal personal goals at the living place were assessed by asking "Does your living place provide opportunities for fulfilment of your goals?" Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .74 (Kolesovs, 2015). Evaluation of the present and of the future of the living place was similar to their measures at the macro-level.

*Meso-level.* Perceived support at the meso-level was evaluated as support for individual goal attainment provided by parents, siblings, relatives, and friends by asking "To what extent your goals are supported by people listed below?" (0 = 'not topical'; 1 = 'minimal support'; 6 = 'maximal support'). Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the sub-scale was .70 (Kolesovs, 2015).

It should be noted that some measures were not included into the analysis because of complexity of the model, relatively small number of research participants, and failures in building a subscale (e.g., one-item measures). As a

result, attachment to the living place, perceived power and stability of Latvia, and perceived personal control over the context were excluded from the analysis.

**Procedure.** Participation in the study was voluntary and anonymous. The questionnaire was answered without time limit in groups or individually. *IBM SPSS for Windows 22.0* was applied for the assessment of reliability coefficients and descriptive statistics. Statistical package ‘*lavaan*’ (0.5-22) for R (Rosseel, 2012) was used for the assessment of the path model.

## Results

At the first step, reliability of measures was assessed (Table 1). Cronbach’s alpha coefficients confirmed sufficient reliability of the subscales.

Table 1 Reliability and descriptive statistics for measures (*N* = 205)

Variables	Number of items	$\alpha$	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Meso-level				
Perceived support	4	.71	3.86	1.25
Level of community				
Opportunities for personal goals	2	.80	4.82	1.57
Evaluation of the living place	3	.86	5.07	1.19
Belonging to the living place	3	.80	4.78	1.51
Macro-level (Latvia)				
Opportunities for personal goals	2	.78	5.35	1.31
Evaluation of Latvia	3	.88	4.37	1.32
Belonging to Latvia	3	.78	5.65	1.24

Second, a correlation analysis was performed in order to assess relationships between SES and the sense of belonging to Latvia. Pearson correlation coefficients determine positive statistically significant correlation of the sense of belonging with female gender,  $r(203) = .16, p = .023$ ; having children,  $r(203) = .14, p = .039$ ; studying in Riga,  $r(203) = .16, p = .023$ , and the Latvian ethnolinguistic group,  $r(199) = .19, p = .006$ .

Third, the model of predicting of the sense of belonging was tested. The initial model was extended by demographic variables correlated with the sense of belonging to Latvia. These demographic indicators were added as exogenous variables. Satorra-Bentler correction was applied in order to assess model fit through maximum likelihood method. The model fit was acceptable:  $\chi^2(4) = 10.38, p = .035, CFI = 0.98, TLI = .75, RMSEA = .09$  (90 % CI from .03 to .15,  $p = .12$ ), SRMR = .023. However, relatively low TLI and broad confidence



interval for RMSEA indicated a need for the further model development. Figure 2 represents significant regression coefficients and covariates between predictors.

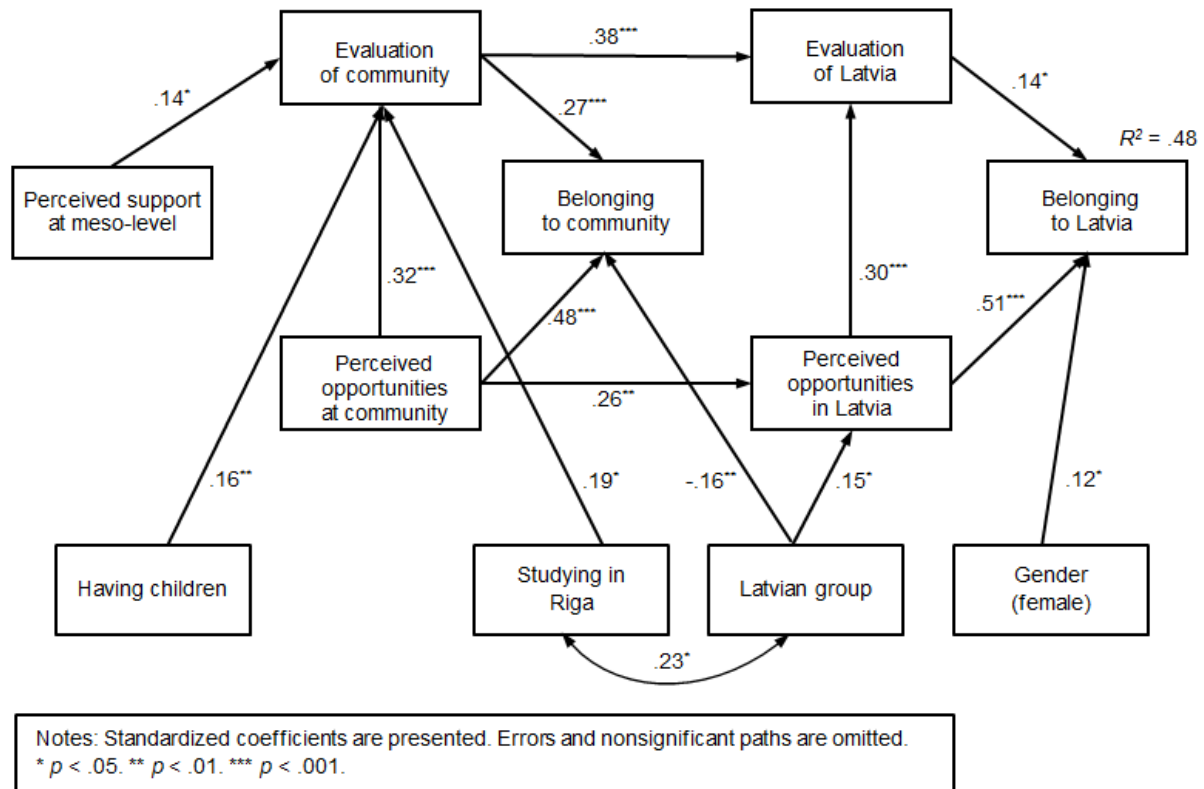


Figure 2 Path model for the sense of belonging to Latvia on demographic, meso-, community-, and macro-level variables ( $n = 201$ )

Perceived opportunities for fulfilment of personal goals in Latvia, evaluation of Latvia, and female gender predicted the sense of belonging to Latvia directly. Belonging to the community was not among significant predictors. At the same time, higher evaluation of the community predicted higher evaluation of Latvia, and higher opportunities for personal goals at the level of community predicted higher opportunities for personal goals in Latvia. Perceived support within a meso-system was not associated with the sense of belonging to Latvia. This kind of support was a predictor for more positive evaluation of the situation in the community only. At the level of community and at the level of Latvia, higher perceived opportunities for fulfilment of personal goals predicted higher evaluation of the situation and higher sense of belonging.

Among demographic variables, having children predicted higher evaluation of the community, studying in Riga predicted higher level of belonging to the living place, and reporting Latvian as the mother tongue predicted higher perceived opportunities at the level of the country and lower level of the sense of

belonging to the community. For the sense of belonging to Latvia, an effect of ethnolinguistic group was not significant.

### **Discussion**

The results demonstrated that, within the model suggested for the study, direct predictors of the sense of belonging to Latvia are revealed at the level of the country. The main predictor is perceived opportunities provided by Latvia for fulfilment of personal goals. This finding confirms significance of contextual opportunities in goal setting, planning, and individual socialization (Nurmi, 1991, 2004). By analogy with the study on the sense of community (Arcidiacono et al., 2007), it is possible to hypothesize that young people's further decisions on the mobility and emigration are construed on the basis of perceived opportunities provided by Latvia. Links between satisfaction with opportunities, sense of belonging to the country, emigration intentions, and following decisions and action should be tested in the further studies.

Positive view of the future of Latvia as a predictor of a higher sense of belonging to it confirms lower distancing from the social context in the case of more optimistic view of its future (Arcidiacono et al., 2007). Negative view of the future of the country can challenge individual affective ties with it. In this case, lower sense of belonging reflects some kind of coping with negative expectations regarding the country, as it was concluded in a study on the future of a country (Kolesovs & Kashirsky, 2014).

Female university students demonstrated higher sense of belonging to Latvia. Closer ties with a community in females were revealed in a structural modelling of the sense of community performed by Tartaglia (2006) and in a comparison made by Pretty et al. (2003). On the one hand, the results confirm that females can be more oriented on maintaining closer ties with the social context. On the other hand, the current study does not confirm that gender predict higher sense of belonging to the community. Therefore, more detailed analysis of the effect of gender is in question for the further research.

The sense of belonging to the community does not predict the sense of belonging to Latvia. It can be concluded that a tie between these senses is not close. Further exploration of the relationship between senses of belonging should involve ethnicity of participants because of three findings. First, there is an association of lower sense of belonging to the community with Latvian group. Second, the ethnolinguistic group was not a predictor of the sense of belonging to Latvia. Third, Latvian group perceived higher opportunities for personal goals at the level of Latvia (the main predictor of the sense of belonging). Therefore, different patterns of prediction of the sense of belonging to Latvia are possible within Russian (minority) and Latvian (majority) group.

A common tendency of prediction of the sense of belonging by perceived opportunities for personal goals and evaluation of the situation is in accordance with findings of Arcidiacono et al. (2007). A limited role of perceived meso-support indicates possible cultural differences between Latvian and Italian views on family and close relationships.

In comparison with sociological studies, the current study is limited by representativeness of the sample. Another limitation is associated with a model suggested for the analysis. The further study can focus on latent variables and indirect effects in prediction of the sense of belonging to the country. In addition, an exploration of intentions to emigrate can be focused on assessment of perceived opportunities for reaching personal goals outside Latvia.

In summary, developed model of the sense of belonging to the country reveals its associations with variables at the macro-level. Fostering active exploration of opportunities for achieving personal goals is the main way of facilitating students' belonging to Latvia.

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## APPENDIX

### *The Sense of Belonging in Social Context Questionnaire (SBSCQ)*

#### *Aptauja "Piederības izjūta sociālajā kontekstā"*

Instrukcija: Aptaujā ir iekļauti jautājumi par Jūsu priekšstatiem par tagadni un nākotni. Runa ir par Jūsu viedokli, tāpēc nevar būt "pareizās" vai "nepareizās" atbildes. Atbildot uz jautājumiem, lūdzu, apvelciet piemērotu atbildes variantu.

#### JŪSU DZĪVESVIETA (pilsēta, ciemats...)

1. Cik lielā mērā Jūs saistāt savu dzīvi ar vietu, kurā Jūs dzīvojat?

	Minimāli					Maksimāli	
Tagad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tuvākajā nākotnē	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tālākajā nākotnē	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. Vai Jūsu dzīvesvieta sniedz iespējas Jūsu mērķu sasniegšanai?

	Nemaz					Maksimāli	
Tuvākie mērķi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attālinātie mērķi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. Lūdzu, novērtējiet situāciju vietā, kurā Jūs dzīvojat.

	Ļoti negatīva						Ļoti pozitīva
Tagad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3
Tuvākajā nākotnē	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3
Tālākajā nākotnē	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3

LATVIJA

4. Cik lielā mērā Jūs saistāt savu dzīvi ar Latviju?

	Minimāli						Maksimāli
Tagad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tuvākajā nākotnē	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tālākajā nākotnē	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. Vai Latvija sniedz iespējas Jūsu mērķu sasniegšanai?

	Nemaz						Maksimāli
Tuvākie mērķi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attālinātie mērķi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. Lūdzu, novērtējiet situāciju Latvijā.\*

	Ļoti negatīva						Ļoti pozitīva
Tagad	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3
Tuvākajā nākotnē	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3
Tālākajā nākotnē	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3

\* An item from the FCQ (Kolesovs & Kashirsky, 2015, 167).

## CONFLICT TOLERANCE OF A TEACHER: DIAGNOSIS AND DEVELOPMENT

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***Abstract.** In today's rapidly developing society conflict tolerance is an important quality of professionals in different areas. The question of the teacher's tolerance to conflict has not been studied well enough. The results of this research disclose relationships between indicators general adaptability and components of conflict tolerance of future teachers, which is important in the formation and development of conflict tolerance of a teacher.*

***Keywords:** conflict tolerance, adaptability, conflict competence, professional competence, teacher.*

### Introduction

Due to modernization of education and dynamic changes in society today teachers face the need to learn new professional and general cultural competence. So the teacher's ability to communicate constructively in a conflict situation is especially important in conditions of conflict-educational space.

The conflict is an inevitable phenomenon in the educational process, as it characterized by personal and professional communication of different groups: students and their parents, teachers and administration (Yuferova & Koryakovtseva, 2015). Differences in age, experience, attitudes, values of participants of educational relations make this communication is extremely tense and require timely prevention of its destructive forms, positive solutions of such problems. The need to master the skills of positive conflict resolution is even more urgent as underage students are often participants, witnesses and even "hostages" of conflict relations. If compared with adults, they have fewer resources for the optimal way out of the crisis or conflict situation. Therefore, first of all, the teacher should be responsible for the conflict resolution and transferring it into a meaningful activity.

At the same time we can state the fact that modern teachers have a very limited set of methods of conflict resolution and it often involves an authoritarian intervention, which leads to unstable, short-term results and doesn't solve the problem (Yuferova & Koryakovtseva, 2015). Professional changes, emotional burnout of the teacher can also become barriers to a positive dialogue in the conflict process. Laws and regulations do not always bring the desired effect. All this can contribute to an escalation of tension, widening of the conflict zone beyond the scope of the institution, and reduces the possibility of the optimal resolution.

Russia's integration into the international legal and educational field requires a mandatory switch to international norms and standards, methods and technologies of working with children and young people, including the field of conflict resolution.

The problem of studying and research resources of conflict tolerance is relevant in the context of increased tension and conflict in all spheres of dynamic public life. An important component of professional and general cultural competence of the modern professional is the ability to constructively resolve arising conflicts, to be tolerant to conflict factors and adaptive to changing demands of the environment.

### **Materials and methods**

Conflict tolerance is a person's ability to optimally organize his/her behavior in difficult situations of social interaction, to solve arising contradictions without conflicts in relationships with other people. A. Antsupov and I. Shipilov define the conflict tolerance of a person as a specific manifestation of psychological stability (Antsupov & Shipilov, 2000). A person who is conflict stable is able to control his/her behavior in a conflict situation, as well as to resolve conflicts positively. Adaptability in most scientific concepts is regarded as a property of organic and inorganic systems, it determines the success of their existence in a changing surrounding reality.

We assumed that the overall adaptability of an individual affects the conflict tolerance, and such components of general adaptability as adaptive abilities, neuro-psychological stability, communication features and moral normativity can have significant relations with components of conflict tolerance. To prove this hypothesis we have conducted an empirical study at the University in the framework of the service of conflict counseling and mediation. We have chosen techniques to assess each component based on A. Antsupov and I. Shipilov concept of the structure of conflict tolerance, which was provided by emotional, volitional, cognitive, motivational and psychomotor components.

In order to assess the stability of the emotional component of conflict tolerance we used H. Eysenck “Scale of emotional stability - instability (neuroticism)” (Yuferova, 2014). Lower values on the scale of emotional stability indicate a high level of emotional stability. To evaluate the conflict volitional component of tolerance, that is the individual's ability to consciously mobilize his/her forces in a conflict situation, to show tolerance to opinions of others, deliberate self-control we used N. Obozov technique “Self-evaluation of will power” (Obozov, 1997), which gives the general characteristic of will power. In order to assess the cognitive component of the conflict tolerance we applied R. Harrison and R. Bramson questionnaire “Thinking styles” (Harrison & Bramson, 1998). The authors describe the following thinking styles: synthetic, idealistic, pragmatic, analytical and realistic. The cognitive component of conflict tolerance is characteristic of synthetic and analytical thinking styles. Consequently, if a person has a high level of expression of these styles, it means the cognitive component of conflict tolerance prevails. To evaluate the motivational component of conflict tolerance we used Yu. Orlov technique “Need for achievement” (Orlov, 1980). It became obvious that the motivation to achieve goals in the conflict, to successfully resolve the conflict is reflected in the motivational component of conflict tolerance.

In order to assess the psychomotor component of conflict tolerance we applied E. Ilin and P. Kovalev technique “Aggressive behavior” (Ilin, 2014). High values on the scale of “direct physical aggression”, “indirect physical aggression” and “direct verbal aggression” might indicate a low level of self-restraint in person’s behavior and the tendency to express aggression in a conflict situation. Also we used the technique “Level of conflict tolerance” (Koryakovtseva, 2012) aimed to identify the level of person’s tolerance to conflicts and behavioral strategies in conflict situations. The estimation of overall adaptability and its components was carried out using A. Maklakov and S. Chermyanin technique “Multilevel personality questionnaire “Adaptability” (Maklakov & Chermyanin, 2001).

40 students of pedagogical University of 19-21 years took part in the study of the impact of general adaptability to the conflict tolerance. The interest to this age group is due to the fact that according to research young people are the most vulnerable to negative socio-economic phenomena. It may provoke strong intrapersonal and interpersonal conflicts and conflicts among the youth. Besides, conflict tolerance is an important pedagogical ability of a teacher (Yuferova & Koryakovtseva, 2015).

Mathematical and statistical processing of the results was performed using the statistical package SPSS 17.0. The check of the normality of distribution by Kolmogorov-Smirnov test showed that the distribution of the sample is close to the standard.



## **Results and discussion**

The correlation analysis using the Pearson correlation coefficient revealed a significant positive relationship between the components of adaptability: the better a person adapts to new conditions or situations, the more effective he/she can regulate his/her behavior in a particular situation. It will be easier to follow the existing rules, to respect rules, his/her communication abilities are developed better.

Furthermore, we found out significant relationship between the level of conflict tolerance and will power ( $r=0,391$  if  $p \leq 0,05$  correlation analysis using the Pearson correlation coefficient). So, the quicker and more accurate a person can consciously mobilize his/her forces and “pull himself together” in a conflict situation, the more appropriate he/she will take the situation and find right decisions.

We stated a statistically significant negative relationship between a person’s conflict tolerance and direct physical aggression ( $r= -0,614$  if  $p \leq 0,01$  the Pearson correlation coefficient), indirect physical aggression ( $r= -0,470$  if  $p \leq 0,01$ ), direct verbal aggression ( $r= 0,659$  if  $p \leq 0,01$  the Pearson correlation coefficient). The higher the level of person’s tolerance to conflicts, the less likely he/she aggressively react at the opponent.

A statistically significant negative relationship between conflict tolerance and pragmatic style of thinking is also stated. The correlation coefficient is ( $r= -0,392$  if  $p \leq 0,05$  the Pearson correlation coefficient). People, having a dominant pragmatic style of thinking, determine the behavior of other people with their own personal experience, which is the criterion of the correctness or incorrectness of other people's actions. They use usual knowledge and skills, therefore, in a conflict they can be difficult to overcome their own stereotypes about the opponent. It can aggravate the development of the conflict and reduce the individual conflict tolerance. At the same time we determined a statistically significant positive relationship between conflict tolerance and analytical style of thinking ( $r= 0,529$  if  $p \leq 0,01$ ). So, conflict-resistant people tend to analyze the situation and the information received, they carefully choose best options for the development and resolution of specific situations.

We underline the fact that correlations between measures of adaptability and structural elements of conflict tolerance have been proven. The relationship between moral norms and conflicts tolerance ( $r = 0,480$  if  $p \leq 0,01$ ) confirms that the conflict-resistant people generally tend to comply with existing standards and, therefore, they are less likely to get into conflict situations.

The negative correlation between the level of adaptive capacity and neuroticism ( $r = -0,527$  if  $p \leq 0,01$ ) indicates that if a person has the developed ability to adapt he/she can control expression of emotions according to the specific

situation. A significant negative correlation of behavioral regulation and personality neuroticism ( $r = -0,665$  if  $p \leq 0,01$ ) proves that a person, who is able to control his/her behavior, better controls the display of emotions. Adaptive abilities have negative correlations with the level of expression of the direct physical aggression ( $r = -0,340$  if  $p \leq 0,05$ ), behavioral regulation and indirect physical aggression ( $r = -0,320$  if  $p \leq 0,05$ ). Moral normativity is also negatively correlated with the direct physical aggression ( $r = -0,467$  if  $p \leq 0,01$ ). Therefore, if a person has a high level of formation of adaptive abilities, expression of moral norms, he/she is less inclined to use force in resolving conflict situations.

Data on the evidence of relationship between communicative potential and such thinking styles as “analytical” ( $r = 0,317$  if  $p \leq 0,05$ ) and “synthetic” ( $r = 0,391$  if  $p \leq 0,05$ ) are quite interesting. A person with good communication skills gets much more information that he/she can analyze. “Synthesizers” never miss an opportunity to “show off”, to learn something new and develop their radically new solutions to problems.

At the same time, we found out a negative relationship between communicative potential and “realistic” style of thinking ( $r = -0,421$  if  $p \leq 0,01$ ). The better developed person’s communication skills, the less likely the fact that his dominant style of thinking will be “realistic”. “Realists” base on facts they know and can deftly handle them, trying to correct any inaccuracies. But they have problems in communicating with other people, because the weak point of “realists” is their ability to abstractly percept any information.

The significant positive relationship between moral norms and the analytical style of thinking ( $r = 0,383$  at  $p \leq 0,05$  the Pearson correlation coefficient) is stated.

Analysts hate uncertainty, disorder, thus, rules and regulations is the source of the necessary order in certain areas of life, situations, relationships.

So, as a result of statistical processing of the data we revealed both direct and indirect relationship between adaptability in general, its elements and individual components of the conflict tolerance.

In order to determine the impact of the adaptability of the individual on the conflict tolerance we subjected a correlation matrix was to analysis by the method of procedure of principal components. 6 factors were extracted with distinct eigenvalues greater than 1. These factors were subjected to varimax rotation.

The first factor can be interpreted as “psychomotor maladaptability”. Variables connected with this phenomenon have the highest load. The variables for this factor are the direct physical aggression (factor loadings is equal to 0.355), indirect physical aggression (0.280) and direct verbal aggression (0.292). These variables in our study describe the psychomotor component of conflict tolerance. The first factor gives a negative load to conflict tolerance in general. Thus, personality adaptability affects both the person’s conflict tolerance in general and

his/her psychomotor component heavily. It becomes obvious: the higher the load factor of this factor, the worse the formation of conflict tolerance and its psychomotor component in particular. Incontinence behavior indicates a high risk of conflict, as well as the inability to control actions in a difficult situation.

The second factor was interpreted by us as “adaptive emotionality” as the variables connected with this phenomenon have the highest load. Such variables for this factor are adaptive abilities (factor loadings is equal to 0.362), behavioral regulation (0.370) and neuroticism (-0.327). Thus, this factor has a positive effect on the maturity of the emotional component of conflict tolerance: the higher the load on this factor, the better the person express emotional stability in difficult situations and conflicts in particular, which in turn helps to regulate his/her individual behavior.

We interpret the third factor as “adaptive mobilization of cognitive processes” as the variables connected with this phenomenon have the highest loads. Such variables for this factor are the will power (factor loadings is equal to 0.477), analytical (0.380) and idealistic thinking styles (-0.477). A negative factor loadings influences the last style. The third factor is manifested in the successful formation of the volitional component of conflict tolerance and individual elements of the cognitive component, in our case in the analytical style of thinking. This factor has the negative impact on the formation of the human idealistic style of thinking as the dominant one.

The fourth factor, which we have identified, is interpreted as “adaptability of thinking” as the variables connected with this phenomenon have the highest load. Such variables are the communicative potential (factor loadings is equal to 0.288), synthetic (0.267) and idealistic (0.240), thinking styles. This factor has a negative load on the formation of realistic style of thinking (-0.595) as the dominant one. This factor leads to a greater likelihood of a high level of formation of communicative abilities, as well as synthetic or idealistic style of thinking as the dominant ones. Also under the influence of this factor the likelihood of dominance of realistic thinking style decreases. It is clear that this factor affects the development of the cognitive component of the conflict tolerance through communicative potential. It means that the external adaptability of thinking affects the cognitive component of the conflict tolerance.

The fifth factor can be interpreted as “normativity of cognitive processes” as the variables connected with this phenomenon have the highest loads. These variables are moral normativity (factor loadings is equal to 0.312), synthetic (0.277) and pragmatic (-0.607) thinking styles. Thus, we can note the great role of normative and moral component of adaptability in the formation of thinking styles, which representing the cognitive component of the conflict tolerance in our research.

The sixth factor is interpreted as “adaptive motivation” as the variables connected with this phenomenon have the highest load. Such variables for this factor are motivation and synthetic thinking style. Factor loadings are 0.574 and -0.261 respectively. We assume that this factor affects the motivational component of conflict tolerance. Specific motives of human behavior and actions may be adequate to the external conditions in which he finds himself.

## **Conclusions**

Thus, we have found that there are direct and indirect correlations between indicators of general adaptability of the individual and components of conflict tolerance. It is evident that the better the person adapts to new conditions or situations, the more effective he/she can regulate his/her behavior in a particular conflict situation, the better developed his/her communication skills are, the easier to follow the existing rules, to respect norms. The higher the level of formation of person’s will power, the higher his/her tolerance to the conflict. So, the faster and better a person can consciously mobilize his/her forces and “pull himself together” in a conflict situation, the more appropriate he/she takes the situation. If a person has well-developed ability to adapt, he/she can control emotions and behavior according to the specific situation and he/she is less prone to use direct and indirect physical aggression and is likely to use the appropriate way to react.

On the basis of factor analysis, we have identified six factors that affect the structure of conflict tolerance. In particular, the influence of such factors as “adaptability of thinking”, “normativity of cognitive processes” and “adaptive mobilization of cognitive processes” on the cognitive component of the structure of conflict tolerance and the influence of such factor as “psychomotor maladaptability” on the individual psychomotor component respectively. The factor “adaptive emotionality” influences the emotional component of conflict tolerance. The factor “adaptive motivation” affects the motivational component of the structure. Thus, based on these results, we can conclude that our hypothesis that the overall adaptability affects components of the structure of conflict tolerance has been proved.

From all the above it follows that the teacher needs to develop a conflict competence through the development of general adaptability of a person.

Formation of a conflict competence is associated with overcoming various kinds of difficulties, both internal and external. According to M. M. Kashapov, the formation of a conflict competence of the individual is possible: firstly, with the help of special reflective technology to actualize the “hidden” experience of best conflict resolution; secondly, by including specially controlled socio-cultural conflicts of productive orientation in the educational processes; thirdly, to

determine the vector of self-improvement qualities which are necessary for success in a conflict interaction (Kashapov, 2010).

If a teacher has subjective barriers, for example professional deformation elements, it can also be a problem of formation of teachers' conflict competence. So, in M. A. Yuferova research she found out that high levels of teacher's emotional burnout becomes an obstacle to thoroughly assess the conflict situation. It leads to the situation when a teacher chooses strategies of unilaterally win: authoritarian behavior, suppression, or, on the contrary, using tools that do not meet the interests of one side of the conflict and can be considered as a temporary measure. Therefore, prevention and correction of the signs of teacher' emotional burnout can contribute to the preservation and expansion of the teacher behavioral strategies in conflict, especially the democratic and creative styles and collaborative strategies which will optimize the interaction between participants of the educational process (Yuferova, 2014)

Psychological education plays an important role in the development of teacher's conflict competence. We suggest to include (by doses, carefully selected content) psychological education within the competence-based approach in the current activities of educational associations, teachers' meetings, psychological and pedagogical consultation, etc.

Psychological education is aimed to create an environment where teachers can get professionally and personally meaningful knowledge. First of all, we are talking about psychological knowledge and skills that allow teachers to build relationships with all participants in the educational process.

M. R. Bityanova in her model of organization of psychological services has formulated the basic principle of teachers' education – organic entanglement of situations of transferring knowledge in the practical process (i.e., knowledge as a response to real-life teacher's request).

The psychologist can act as an assistant teacher, a facilitator who gives self-confidence, an educator who relies on specific psychological knowledge, an interlocutor who is able to see the educational situation from some different position than the teacher, but to understand and accept the teacher's position, a game technician who creates a situation of reflexive analysis with the teacher of his experience, a methodist – a bringer of “mentalizing” didactics culture, a partner in pedagogical activity who works out programs or lessons (Bityanova, 1998).

Mutual understanding, mutual learning, convergence of teachers and psychologist, effective psychological education of teachers, especially in matters related to their conflict competence is possible only in such dialogue or polylogue where people respect each other, but differ in points of professional views.

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# MOTIVATIONAL READINESS OF PERSONNEL OF A HIGH TECH INDUSTRIAL ENTERPRISE TO THE CONTINUATION OF WORK AT THE STAGE OF ITS DECOMMISSIONING

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***Abstract.** It is in a common practice to decommission a high tech industrial enterprise after depletion of its technological resource. During the preparation to decommissioning of a state enterprise the number of staff is decreasing. In order to keep the resources of labour potential the management of the industry offers to the employees an employment in other enterprises of the industry. The employees of the enterprise to be decommissioned have to make a choice: whether to continue working in the same industry or to search for their new occupation themselves.*

*The article describes the results of studying motivational potential of a high tech industrial enterprise during the decision-making process of decommissioning due to depletion of the technological resource. The motivational potential is considered as a motivational readiness to continuing or ceasing work at the enterprises of the same industry and nine types of the motivational profile. The motivational readiness is studied by a specially designed questionnaire. The type of the motivational profile is defined by Milman technique (2005).*

*The research results show that 82 % of the employees are ready to continue working at the enterprises of the same industry, 10 % are in the process of decision-making and 8 % are going to search for a new employment in other spheres.*

*Further the type of the motivational profile for each employee is defined by Milman technique (2005). For each group, defined by the criterion of motivational readiness to continuing working for the same industry, the rate of motivational types in the group is calculated.*

*The defined patterns are used while forming personnel reserve for the enterprise in power-down mode and during decommissioning stage as well as when rotating staff to other enterprises of the industry.*

**Keywords:** *motivational potential, motivational type, personnel.*

## Introduction

When closing an industrial enterprise because of depletion of its technological resource and impossibility of conversion, the management faces

the following tasks: (1) providing effective performance at the stage of decommissioning and (2) maintaining material and human resources for the industry (Kochan et. al., 1993; Maksimtsev, 2015). One of the enterprises to be decommissioned is a power station (the enterprise) situated in the Far North of Russia. Following the decision of the state structures concerning its decommissioning, the exploiting organization (the Concern) got the following managing tasks to fulfil: (1) designing the plan of the enterprise activity at the stage of decommissioning and (2) keeping human resources potential for the industry. According to the theory of management the system of staff management bases on various factors that can be reduced to two main ones: technological and human resources (Antonov et. al., 2012; Armstrong, 2015). In general, resources are considered as a complex system including a range of technological, financial, organizational factors and labour potential of the enterprise. The components of the labour potential are the qualification and the personal competences of the employees. In its turn, in the structure of personal competences the leading competences are motivational, intellectual, communicative and moral qualities of the specialists (Lobanova, 2015). Knowing the characteristics of personal potential of the employees allows optimal management of human resources while solving personnel problems.

The concern carried out a complex research aimed at indentifying resources of the enterprise at the stage of decommissioning. The authors took part in the research in the network of cooperation with the university and decided issues connected with studying motivation of the personnel by application of psychological technologies.

### **Research aim and objectives**

The aim of the current research is studying motivational potential of the personnel during the period of preparation of the enterprise to decommissioning.

For reaching the aim of the research the following objectives have been formulated. The first one is defining motivational readiness of the personnel to continuing working at the enterprise at the decommissioning stage, to transferring to other structural departments of the same industry and to ceasing working for the industry. The second objective is specifying the characteristics of the motivational potential of the employees in the groups, defined by the criterion of motivational readiness to continuing work.

### **Research design**

The research was carried out from 2014 to 2015 and consisted of two stages. At the first stage a survey for defining motivational readiness to



continuing work was carried out. 87 % of the personnel of all structural departments took part in the survey, and that provided representativeness of the sample.

At the second stage the objective connected with specifying characteristics of motivational potential has been solved. The sample, consisting of 270 employees of the general sample, has been created. While forming this sample the principles of randomized sampling and equal presentation of various staff categories from all main departments of the enterprise were applied (Nasledov, 2004).

## Methods

For studying staff motivational readiness to continuing work we have designed a questionnaire including two blocks of questions. The first block consists of the questions aimed at defining motivational readiness to continuing working at the enterprises of the same industry and studying the employees' ideas of conditions of their labour organization. As the result three groups of employees are supposed to be marked out: (1) those who are ready to continue the labour contract; (2) employees in the decision-making process and (3) those who are not going to renew the labour contract.

For studying motivational potential the Milman Diagnostics of Personal Motivational Structure is used (Milman, 2005). According to the author's conception motivational scales reflect the main personal orientations – consuming and productive. The technique consists of seven scales. For complete diagnostics of personal motivational sphere each scale can be sub-divided to four others, reflecting: whole-life motivation (concerning the whole sphere of life activity); working motivation; “ideal” state of the motive understood by the author as “a level of a drive to act”; real state of a certain motive. The total index of personal motivational sphere according to the testing results consists of 28 scales of motivational profile (some scales can be consolidated). The whole personal motivational picture is reflected in a personal motivational profile representing in quantitative or graphical form the correlations between various motivational scales, registered by a psycho-diagnostic method. A character of motivational profile (MP) can be defined according to the profiles typology. That is why after specifying the characteristics of motivational sphere of each testee, his/her motivational profile can be attributed to one of nine following types: progressive (Pr), regressive (Reg), expressive (Exp), impulsive (Imp), flat (Fl) or combined (progressive-expressive – Pr-Exp, progressive-impulsive - Pr-Imp, regressive-impulsive – Reg-Imp and regressive-expressive – Reg-Exp).

In accordance with Milman's ideas, the *progressive type* of profile positively correlates with successful working activity. Most often this type of the

MP is met among creative people. At the same time, this kind of profile is typical for a socially-oriented person and that fact can be included into a concept of creative and productive orientation of a person (Milman, 2005, p. 42).

The *regressive type* is characterized by a pronounced orientation of consuming motives and their domination on the productive, developing ones.

The *expressive type* is related to self-affirmation in the society, developed ambition, eccentricity, constant rising of aspiration level. The *impulsive type* is characterized by the fact that it corresponds to the “impulsive” type of character accentuation (Groisman, 1995).

The *flat type* of motivational profile shows deficient differentiation of personal motivational hierarchy or its complete absence. All the motives of such structure have almost the same value, and that leads to wider entropy and ambiguity of their realization. It is known from the management theory that flat managing structures have low efficiency when dealing with complex structures.

There are patterns of motivational profile that can not be attributed to a certain type, but belong to two types at the same time. That happens when the expressive or the impulsive profile overlaps the progressive or regressive ones. In that case combined motivational profiles can be seen: progressive-expressive, progressive-impulsive, regressive-impulsive and regressive-expressive.

The obtained data were processed by mathematics and statistics methods; the comparative analysis was applied. While collecting data traditional methods were used as well as the programs Psychometric Expert 6, SurveyMonkey.

## **Results and discussion**

Let us consider the results of the survey of the staff concerning their readiness to continuation of work. The survey shows that 82 % of the employees (Group 1) demonstrate their readiness to continue working at the enterprises of the industry. 43 % of them (Subgroup A) prefer to continue working at the enterprise in the period of its decommissioning despite of possible worsening of labour conditions (shift arrangement to be settled, living in the industrial community far from social structures etc.) It should be mentioned that the number of employees willing to continue their performance exceeds the estimated manpower.

22 % of participants (Subgroup B) mention that all possible variants of the employment in the same industry suit them. It should be underlined that this group includes specialists of the highest qualification levels and managers of linear levels.

35 % of research sample (Subgroup C) showed their readiness to continuing performance at other enterprises of the industry, situated in the regions with favourable climate and developed social infrastructure.

Table 1 demonstrates the motivation profile distribution (in percentage) of motivational profile types in each subgroup according the criterion of motivational attitude to continuing work at the station.

**Table 1 The distribution of the employees who are ready to continue their work at the station in the period of its decommissioning**

Motivational profile type, %	<i>Pr</i>	<i>Reg</i>	<i>Ex</i>	<i>Imp</i>	<i>Fl</i>	<i>Pr-Exp</i>	<i>Pr-Imp</i>	<i>Reg-Imp</i>	<i>Reg-Exp</i>
Subgroup «A»	30.5	12.6	14.7	6.2	1.2	14.7	4.2	7.4	8.5
Subgroup «B»	45.0	8.1	14.2	6.2	0	14.2	4.1	4.1	4.1
Subgroup «C»	15.6	24.7	15.6	5.2	2.5	9.1	5.2	7.8	14.3

The data presented in the table show that three types of MP dominate in the Subgroup A: progressive, expressive and progressive-expressive. In the Subgroup B there is a pronounced tendency to domination of a single MP type – the progressive one. In the Subgroup C two types of the MP can be seen: regressive and regressive-expressive.

The second group (10 %) includes respondents in the process of decision-making: whether to renew the contract in the same industry or to resign and to search for a new job themselves. This group has the following distribution of the motivational profiles: progressive – 9.1 %, regressive – 27.3 %, expressive – 9.1 %, impulsive – 13.7 %, flat – 4.5 %, progressive-expressive – 4.5 %, progressive-impulsive – 9.1 %, regressive-impulsive – 22.7 % and regressive-expressive – 0 %). The tendency to domination of regressive and regressive-impulsive MP types is pronounced, and it corresponds to domination of consuming motives.

The third group (8 % of research sample) consists of the employees, who mention that they are not going to continue their work at the enterprises of the industry, but have their own plans for a new employment. There is the following distribution of the motivational profiles: progressive – 5.6 %, regressive – 11.1 %, expressive – 5.6 %, impulsive – 11.1 %, flat – 0 %, progressive-expressive – 5.6 %, progressive-impulsive – 27.7 %, regressive-impulsive – 27.7 % and regressive-expressive – 5.6 %. Summarizing the obtained data we can come to the conclusion on the domination of progressive-impulsive and regressive-impulsive types in this group.

### Conclusion

Summarizing the data obtained in the course of studying motivational potential of the personnel of a high tech enterprise to be decommissioned, the following patterns are defined. First of all it should be mentioned, that 82 % of

the employees-participants are ready to continue working at the enterprises of the same industry. It should be mentioned that this number exceeds the expected figure significantly.

Despite of possible negative changes in work conditions at the decommissioning stage (shift arrangement, living in the industrial community far from social structures etc.) 43 % of the research sample are ready to continue working at the enterprise. It also exceeds the expected number and the estimated manpower for this period.

Three types of motivational profiles prevail in this group: progressive, expressive and progressive-expressive. According to Milman's conception those type reflect productive motivational orientation of a person and a tendency to achievements and development. The described patterns are used for further more detailed studying specialists' needs in the professional development as well as for designing programs of training and personal growth.

The quantitative potential of the employees who are ready to any possible variant of employment at the enterprises in the same industry is 22 % of the sample. Considering this fact it can be concluded that this category of staff has a high degree of mobility and that is a favourable factor when solving management issues connected with staff rotation. It should be underlined that this group consists of the specialists of the highest qualification levels and managers of linear levels. Only one type of motivational profile – the progressive one – dominates in this group, and it is a proof of high degree of involvement of the employees in the activity. A distinctive characteristic of the motivational profile of the progressive type is personal orientation on the development of the activity by one's initiative, and that, in its turn, reflects a creative approach to the activity and high level of social and personal maturity. The defined patterns can be applied for designing programs of professional growth and evaluation of individual achievements of the specialists.

More than one third of the respondents (35 %) demonstrated their readiness to continue their work for the same industry at the enterprises, situated in the regions with favourable climate and developed social infrastructure. In this group a tendency to regressive and regressive-expressive types of motivational profiles can be traced, which corresponds to domination of consuming motives and constant rising of the aspiration level.

The number of employees in the decision-making process, whether to continue working in the same industry, is 10 %. The analysis of motivational profiles in this group allows finding out a tendency to domination of regressive and regressive-impulsive types.

In the structure of motivational profiles of the employees who do not plan the activity at the enterprises of the industry (8 % of the research sample) there

is a tendency to domination of progressive-impulsive and regressive-impulsive types.

The patterns defined in the research allow making the following conclusions. Firstly, a high motivational readiness of the personnel of the enterprise to be decommissioned to the continuing work at the enterprises of the same industry should be mentioned. Secondly, a high degree of professional mobility of the specialists of the highest qualification levels and managers of linear levels has been demonstrated. Thirdly, the major part of the employees of the enterprise show high productive motivation and that is the sign of readiness of the staff to training, professional growth and development of activity and of personal potential. The volume of human resources, having shown readiness to continuation of work at the enterprises of the industry and their potential allows providing optimal staff rotation.

The defined patterns are used for designing technologies of working with personnel, reflecting demands of enterprise activity at the stage of preparation and actual decommissioning.

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# INDIVIDUĀLO VĒRTĪBU SISTĒMAS RAKSTUROJUMA UN BRAUKŠANAS UZVEDĪBAS SAKARĪBAS

## *Individual Value System Characteristics and Driving Behavior Relationships*

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**Abstract.** *The aim of research was to examine characteristics of individual value system prediction for driving behavior. It raised fundamental question for the research: 1. which of the individual value system characteristics predict driving behavior controlling gender and age.*

*In the study participated 108 respondents, 40 (37.0 %) men and 68 (63.0 %) women who filled the questionnaire on the internet. There was used two questionnaires – „Latvian driving behavior survey”, The value and levels of availability relations in different spheres of life”*

*The results showed that the value system integrity / disintegrity indicator predicts distracted driving, explains 18 % of variation and is statistically significantly. Internal vacuum and age statistically significantly negatively predicts risky driving explaining 17 % of variation. Age statistically significantly predicts safe and courteous driving, explains 12 % of variation. Value system integrity / disintegrity indicator and gender, statistically significantly negatively predicts summary indicator of dangerous driving, explains 22 % of variation. Age statistically significantly negatively predicts distracted driving, explains 30 % of variation.*

*Limitations of the research are related to the size of the sample, alignment of participants and use of new instruments, as well as data collection method. If the study would be repeated in the future, it would be desirable to increase the sample size and use approbated instrument. It would be interesting to find out how the value of individual factors predicts objective size of accidents and violations caused by driving.*

*The results can serve as the basis to create new driving behavior interventions and also applicable to psychologist's professional work, when counseling individuals of this group, as well as can be used in the future development of the field, science and research.*

**Keywords:** *aggressive driving, distracted driving, driving behavior, individual values, risky driving, safe driving.*

## **Ievads** **Introduction**

Vairākas valstis ir panākušas letālo ceļu satiksmes negadījumu samazinājumu uz ceļiem, bet kopējais šo negadījumu skaits joprojām paliek nepieņemami augsts – 1.25 miljoni cilvēku gadā (*World Health Organization, 2013*).

Lai arī pēdējos gados bojā gājušo skaits Latvijā ir krietni samazinājies, salīdzinot ar citām Eiropas Savienības valstīm, tas joprojām ir visai augsts. 2012. gadā bija ievērojams ceļu satiksmes negadījumu samazinājums, tomēr diemžēl, 2013. un 2014. gadā ceļu satiksmes negadījumi notiek ar pieaugošu tendenci. 2012. gadā Latvijā notika 34668 ceļu satiksmes negadījumi, 2014. gadā 37326 ceļu satiksmes negadījumi un 2015. gadā 40091 ceļu satiksmes negadījums, tātad ievērojami paaugstinājies negadījumu skaits (CSDD, 2015).

Var izdalīt vairākus faktoros, kāpēc notiek ceļu satiksmes negadījumi: transportlīdzekļa faktori, vides faktori, kā arī cilvēka faktori (Lazdiņš & Mārtinsonsone, 2014). Iepriekš veiktie pētījumi liecina, ka apmēram 40 % ceļu satiksmes negadījumu tiešais iemesls ir cilvēka faktors un netieši tas ir iesaistīts vēl apmēram 50 % negadījumu, tātad kopā apmēram 90 % ceļu satiksmes negadījumu ir tiešā vai netiešā veidā saistīti ar cilvēka faktoru. Vides faktori (brauktuvju stāvokļi, laika apstākļi) ir iespējamais iemesls apmēram 34 % negadījumu un transportlīdzekļa faktoru kā negadījumu iemeslu min tikai 13 % negadījumos (*Dewar & Olson, 2002*). Ar jēdzienu cilvēka faktors tiek saprasti cilvēka psiholoģiskie stāvokļi, kognitīvie procesi, personības faktori, demogrāfiskie faktori, attieksmes (Muzikante & Reņģe, 2008).

Vērtības tiek definētas kā ilgstoša pārliecība, ka konkrēts rīcības veids vai eksistences galamērķis ir personiski, sabiedriski atzīstams par labāku un vēlamāku, salīdzinot ar citu rīcības veidu vai eksistences galamērķi (*Rokeach, 1973*). I. Muzikantes promocijas darbā tika noskaidrots, ka individuālās vērtības nozīmīgi prognozē riskantu braukšanu, vērtība „vara” ir visnozīmīgākais pārkāpumu prognozētājs no visām vērtībām, vērtība „konformisms” var būt nozīmīgs riskantas braukšanas prognozētājs, vērtība „stimulācija” (kā tiekšanās pēc asām izjūtām) nav riskantas braukšanas prognozētājs, vērtība „drošība” tikai vienā pētījuma daļā prognozē riskantu braukšanu, kas nozīmē, ka tā nav stabils riskantas braukšanas prognozētājs. Vienīgā vērtība, kurai vispār nav saistības ar riskantu braukšanu (ne regresiju analizē, ne korelāciju analizē) ir vērtība „pašstiprināšana” (Muzikante, 2008).

Šobrīd nav skaidru pierādījumu tam, vai individuālo vērtību sistēmas raksturojums prognozē braukšanas uzvedību, pētījuma autoram nav izdevies atrast šādus pētījumus, tāpēc nepieciešams pārbaudīt, vai individuālo vērtību sistēmas raksturojums prognozē braukšanas uzvedību un ja prognozē, tad kā.

**Pētījuma mērķis** - pārbaudīt individuālo vērtību sistēmas raksturojuma prognozi braukšanas uzvedībai.

**Pētījuma jautājums** - kurš no individuālo vērtību sistēmas raksturojumiem (*iekšējais vakuums, iekšējais konflikts, neitrālā zona, vērtību sistēmas integritātes / disintegritātes rādītājs*) prognozē braukšanas uzvedību (*autovadīšanu ar novērsto uzmanību, agresīvo izturēšanos pret citiem satiksmes dalībniekiem, riskanto braukšanu, drošu un pieklājīgu braukšanu*), kontrolējot dzimumu un vecumu?

## **Materiāls un metodes** *Materials and methods*

### ***Dalībnieki***

Pētījumā piedalījās 108 latviski runājoši respondenti. Pētījumā piedalījās 40 (37,0 %) vīrieši un 68 (63,0 %) sievietes, vecumposmā no 19 gadiem līdz 58 gadiem.

### ***Instrumenti***

**Latvijas autovadītāju uzvedības aptauja** (Perepjolkina & Voita, 2011). Respondentiem 5 punktu Likerta skalā (no 1 - nekad, līdz 5 - ļoti bieži) tika piedāvāts novērtēt, cik bieži viņi rīkojas, kā ir aprakstīts piedāvātajos apgalvojumos. Aptaujas gala versiju veido 26 apgalvojumi (24 pamatapgalvojumi un 2 fona jautājumi, kas netiek iekļauti atslēgā). Aptauja ļauj novērtēt četrus autovadītāju uzvedības veidus: a) riskanto braukšanu (6 apgalvojumi), b) agresīvo izturēšanos pret citiem satiksmes dalībniekiem (6 apgalvojumi), 3) autovadīšanu ar novērsto uzmanību (6 apgalvojumi) un 4) drošu un pieklājīgu braukšanu (6 apgalvojumi).

**„Vērtību un to pieejamības līmeņu attiecības dažādās dzīves sfērās”** (Уровень соотношения «ценности» и «доступности» в различных жизненных сферах, *Фанталова*, 2001), (*Jirgena*, 1999).

Respondentiem tika piedāvāts 2 tabulas, pirmajā, izveidot hierarhiju no 12 vērtībām, otrajā jāizvērtē, kuras no šīm vērtībām, viņaprāt, ir vieglāk sasniedzamas.

Šīs vērtības ir: 1. Aktīva, darbīga dzīve, 2. Veselība, 3. Interesants darbs, 4. Dabas un mākslas skaistums, tās skaistuma baudīšana, 5. Mīlestība, 6. Materiāli nodrošināta dzīve, 7. Labi un uzticami draugi, 8. Pašpārliecība /nav šaubu/, 9. Izzināšana, iespēja paplašināt savu redzesloku, izglītību, 10. Brīvība, kā neatkarība rīcībā un darbībās, 11. Laimīga ģimenes dzīve, 12. Jaunrade (*Фанталова*, 2001). Metode balstās uz ideju par divu apziņas sfēru darbību, kuras pēc savas būtības ir analogas šiem psiholoģiskajiem parametriem – „nozīmīgums” un „pieejamība”. Tātad, autore vērtības sarindo, ne tikai pēc to nozīmīguma, bet arī pēc to īstenošanas iespējām realitātē. Nozīmīguma sfērā ietilpst vadošās dzīves



vērtības, tās sevī ietver personīgos plānus, turpmākās dzīves mērķus. Pieejamības sfērā ietilpst viss, kas ir sasniedzams tiešā veidā un ir saistīts ar konkrētiem sasniedzamiem mērķiem, kas atrodas „vieglas sasniedzamības zonā”. Pēc šīs metodes iespējams aprēķināt, vai vērtības rada iekšējo konfliktu, iekšējo vakuumu, atrodas neitrālajā zonā, kā arī vērtību sistēmas integritātes / disintegritātes rādītāju.

**Demogrāfisko datu aptauja**, kurā ir jautājumi par dzimumu, vecumu, ikmēneša ienākumu līmeni, izglītību, laiku, kad tie saņēmuši autovadītāja apliecību, cik kilometrus tie nobrauc mēneša laikā, cik pēdējo 3 gadu laikā dalībnieks saņēmis sodu vai brīdinājumu par ceļu satiksmes noteikumu pārkāpumu, automašīnas marku

### ***Procedūra***

Aptaujas tika ievietotas interneta mājas lapā ([www.google.docs.com](http://www.google.docs.com)) un dalībniekiem anketu tika piedāvāts aizpildīt internetā, izvietojot reklāmu dažādos sociālajos portālos, domubiedru kopās un forumos.

Izlase tika atlasīta pēc šādiem kritērijiem – ir iegūta autovadītāja apliecība, dzimums, vecums.

Pētījuma dalībniekiem tika skaidri un saprotami sniegtas instrukcijas, un pētījuma mērķis, un tie tika informēti par to, ka dati tiks apskatīti kā kopums, nevis individuāli, respondenti tika aicināti sniegt patiesas, nevis sociāli vēlamas atbildes. Aptauja norisinājās laika posmā no 2016. gada 8. februāra līdz 21. aprīlim.

### **Datu apstrādes metodes**

Dati tika pārbaudīti, ievadīti Microsoft Office Excel 2008, tālāk tie tika importēti uz programmu SPSS Statistics 21.0 / 22.0, kur tika veikta visu aptauju rezultātu apstrāde. SPSS Statistics 22.0 programmā tika aprēķināti aptauju aprakstošās statistikas rādītāji, Kronbaha Alfa rādītāji. Lai atbildētu uz pētījuma jautājumu vispirms tika aprēķināts Pīrsona korelācijas koeficients, pēc tam, balstoties uz iegūtajiem rezultātiem, tika aprēķināta hierarhiskā regresijas analīze (soļu metode).

## **Rezultāti**

### ***Results***

Lai atbildētu uz pētījuma jautājumu: kurš no individuālo vērtību sistēmas raksturojumiem (*iekšējais vakuums, iekšējais konflikts, neitrālā zona, vērtību sistēmas integritātes / disintegritātes rādītājs*) prognozē braukšanas uzvedību (*autovadīšanu ar novērsto uzmanību, agresīvo izturēšanās pret citiem satiksmes dalībniekiem, riskanto braukšanu, drošo un pieklājīgo braukšanu*), kontrolējot dzimumu un vecumu, balstoties uz Pīrsona korelācijas koeficientu, tika aprēķināta hierarhiskā regresiju analīze.

**1.tab. Hierarhiskās regresijas analīzes rezultāti neatkarīgajam mainīgajam vērtību sistēmas integritātes / disintegritātes rādītājs un atkarīgajam mainīgajam autovadīšana ar novērsto uzmanību, kontrolējot dzimumu un vecumu**

**Table 1 *Hierarchical regression analysis for independent variable value system integrity/disintegrity index and dependent variable distracted driving, controlled by gender and age***

<i>Autovadīšana ar novērsto uzmanību</i>		
	$\beta$	$\Delta R^2$
1.solis		0,14
Dzimums	-0,12	
Vecums	-0,39	
2.Solis		0,18
Dzimums	-0,17	
Vecums	-0,35	
<i>Vērtību sistēmas integritātes / disintegritātes rādītājs</i>	0,21*	
Summa $\Delta R^2$		0,32

Piezīme: \*p < 0,05, \*\*p < 0,01

Lai prognozētu *autovadīšanu ar novērsto uzmanību*, regresijas analīzes pirmajā solī tika iekļauts dzimums un vecums, šāds modelis izskaidro 14 % no tā variācijas, taču nav statistiski nozīmīgs. Pamatojoties uz Pīrsona korelācijas koeficientu, otrajā solī papildus dzimumam un vecuma tika iekļauts *vērtību sistēmas integritātes / disintegritātes rādītājs*, kas papildus izskaidro 18 % no šī modeļa un ir statistiski nozīmīgs (1. tabula).

**2.tab. Hierarhiskās regresijas analīzes rezultāti neatkarīgajam mainīgajam iekšējais vakuums un atkarīgajam mainīgajam riskanta braukšana, kontrolējot dzimumu un vecumu**

**Table 2 *Hierarchical regression analysis for independent variable internal vacuum and dependent variable risky driving, controlled by gender and age***

<i>Riskanta braukšana</i>		
	$\beta$	$\Delta R^2$
1.solis		0,09
Dzimums	-0,18	
Vecums	-0,31**	
2.Solis		0,17
Dzimums	-0,22*	
Vecums	-0,26**	
<i>Iekšējais vakuums</i>	-0,28**	
Summa $\Delta R^2$		0,26

Piezīme: \*p < 0,05, \*\*p < 0,01

Lai prognozētu *riskantu braukšanu*, pirmajā solī regresiju analīzē tika iekļauts dzimums un vecums, šāds modelis izskaidro 9 % no tā variācijas, kā statistiski nozīmīgs negatīvs prognozētājs tika konstatēts vecums. Pamatojoties uz Pīrsona korelācijas koeficientu, otrajā solī papildus dzimumam un vecumam tika iekļauts *iekšējais vakuums*, kas papildus izskaidro 17 % no šī modeļa un tika konstatēts, ka tas ir negatīvi statistiski nozīmīgs (2. tabula).

3.tab. Hierarhiskās regresijas analīzes rezultāti neatkarīgajam mainīgajam neitrālā zona un atkarīgajam mainīgajam droša un pieklājīga braukšanu, kontrolējot dzimumu un vecumu

Table 3 *Hierarchical regression analysis for independent variable neutral zone and dependent variable safe and courteous driving, controlled by gender and age*

<i>Droša un pieklājīga braukšana</i>		
	$\beta$	$\Delta R^2$
1.solis		0,12
Dzimums	-0,17	
Vecums	0,24*	
2.Solis		0,13
Dzimums	-0,15	
Vecums	0,22*	
<i>Neitrālā zona</i>	0,15	
Summa $\Delta R^2$		0,25

Piezīme: \* $p < 0,05$

Lai prognozētu *drošu un pieklājīgu braukšanu*, pirmajā solī regresiju analīzē tika iekļauts dzimums un vecums, šāds modelis izskaidro 12 % no tā variācijas un vecums statistiski nozīmīgi prognozē *drošu un pieklājīgu braukšanu*. Pamatojoties uz Pīrsona korelācijas koeficientu, otrajā solī papildus dzimumam un vecumam tika iekļauta *neitrālā zona*, kas papildus izskaidro 13 % no šī modeļa, taču tika konstatēts, ka tā nav statistiski nozīmīga (3. tabula).

Lai prognozētu *bīstamas autovadīšanas summāro rādītāju* pirmajā solī regresiju analīzē tika iekļauts dzimums un vecums, šāds modelis izskaidro 17 % no tā variācijas un dzimums ir negatīvs statistiski nozīmīgs prognozētājs. Pamatojoties uz Pīrsona korelācijas koeficientu, otrajā solī papildus dzimumam un vecumam tika iekļauts *vērtību sistēmas integritātes / disintegritātes rādītājs*, kas papildus izskaidro 22 % no šī modeļa un ir negatīvi statistiski nozīmīgs (4. tabula).

4.tab. Hierarhiskās regresijas analīzes rezultāti neatkarīgajam mainīgajam neitrālā zona un atkarīgajam mainīgajam bīstamas autovadīšanas summārais rādītājs, kontrolējot dzimumu un vecumu

Table 4 *Hierarchical regression analysis for independent variable neutral zone and dependent variable summary indicator of dangerous driving, controlled by gender and age*

		<i>Bīstamas autovadīšanas summārais rādītājs</i>	
		$\beta$	$\Delta R^2$
1.solis			0,17
Dzimums		-0,20*	
Vecums		-0,42	
2.Solis			0,22
Dzimums		-0,25**	
Vecums		-0,38	
Vērtību sistēmas integritātes / disintegritātes rādītājs		0,25**	
Summa $\Delta R^2$			0.39

Piezīme: \*p < 0,05, \*\*p < 0,01

### Diskusija Discussion

Rezultāti liecina par to, ka *autovadīšanu ar novērto uzmanību* var prognozēt vērtību *sistēmas integritātes / disintegritātes rādītājs*, kas var liecināt par to, ka ja indivīda vērtības nesakrīt ar reālo iespēju tās sasniegt un tā rezultātā tiek ietekmēta viņa motivācijas sfēra, kas var izpausties ar neapmierinātību, iekšējo diskomfortu, iekšējiem konfliktiem, pašrealizācijas trūkumu un neskaidru paša identitāti, ir lielāka iespējamība, ka viņš vadot automašīnu iesaistīsies sekundāru uzdevumu pildīšanā un nepievērsīs visu uzmanību tiešajiem autovadīšanas pienākumiem.

Rezultāti liecina, ka *riskantu braukšanu* negatīvi prognozē vecums un *iekšējais vakuums*, tas var liecināt gan par to, ka gados jauni autovadītāji biežāk ieskaitās riskantās darbībās atrodoties satiksmē, gan arī to, ka indivīdiem, kam vērtības ir pieejamas vairāk, nekā tās viņam ir reāli vajadzīgas un nozīmīgas, ir lielāka iespējamība automašīnu vadīt riskanti. Daļa no šiem rezultātiem ir saskaņā ar iepriekšējiem pētījumiem. Apkopojot dažādu pētījumu rezultātus, var secināt, ka vislabākie satiksmes negadījumu un pārkāpumu prognozētāji ir vecums un dzimums (Krahe & Fenske, 2002; Özkan & Lajunen, 2005; Rhodes & Pivik, 2010; Stradling & Parker, 1997; Underwood, Chapman, Wright, & Crundall, 1997).

Rezultāti liecina par to, ka *drošu un pieklājīgu braukšanu* negatīvi prognozē vecums, iespējams iemesls var būt jauniešu pieredzes un brieduma trūkums, kā arī fizioloģiskie procesi, kas notiek jaunietim nobriestot, kā arī jaunībā liela daļa jauniešu tiecās pēc pašapliecināšanās, tāpēc vairāk ir tendēti izvēlēties tieši riskantu autovadīšanu, nevis drošu un pieklājīgu autovadīšanu, par ko liecina arī

iepriekšējie rezultāti un pētījumi. Pētījumos tiek uzsvērts, ka viens no faktoriem, kas palielina iespējamību braukt riskantā un agresīvā veidā ir vecums (*Tasca, 2000*).

Rezultāti liecina, ka *bīstamas autovadīšanas summāro rādītāju*, tātad tendenci kopumā vadīt automašīnu bīstamā veidā, prognozē dzimums, kas ir saskaņā ar iepriekšējiem pētījumiem. Vīrieši automašīnu biežāk vada alkohola reibumā un retāk lieto drošības jostas, neatkarīgi no vecuma (*Lancaster & Ward, 2002*), vīriešiem ir tendence uzrādīt augstākus rādītājus domām par atriebību un fizisku agresiju (*Deffenbacher, Petrilli, Lynch, Oetting, & Swaim, 2003*), tāpat arī tiek uzsvērts, ka viens no faktoriem, kas palielina agresīvas autovadīšanas iespējamību ir vienkārši būt vīrietim (*Tasca, 2000*). Vēl *bīstamas autovadīšanas summāro rādītāju* prognozē *vērtību sistēmas integritātes / disintegritātes rādītājs*, kas nozīmē, ka ja indivīda vērtības nesakrīt ar reālo iespēju tās sasniegt un tā rezultātā tiek ietekmēta viņa motivācijas sfēra, kas var izpausties ar neapmierinātību, iekšējo diskomfortu, iekšējiem konfliktiem, pašrealizācijas trūkumu un neskaidru paša identitāti, ir lielāka iespējamība, ka viņš vadot automašīnu kopumā brauks agresīvāk, riskantāk un bīstamāk.

### Secinājumi *Conclusions*

No iegūtajiem pētījuma rezultātiem var izdarīt sekojošus secinājumus:

- *Vērtību sistēmas integritātes / disintegritātes rādītājs* prognozē *autovadīšanu ar novērsto uzmanību*.
- *Iekšējais vakuums* un vecums statistiski nozīmīgi negatīvi prognozē *riskantu braukšanu*.
- Vecums ir statistiski nozīmīgs prognozētājs *drošai un pieklājīgai braukšanai*.
- *Vērtību sistēmas integritātes / disintegritātes rādītājs* un dzimums statistiski nozīmīgi negatīvi prognozē *bīstamas autovadīšanas summāro rādītāju*.
- Vecums statistiski nozīmīgi negatīvi prognozē *autovadīšanu ar novērsto uzmanību*.

Pētījuma ierobežojumi saistīti ar izlases apjomu, dalībnieku pielīdzināšanu un jauna instrumenta izmantošanu, kā arī datu ievākšanas veidu. Atkārtojot šo pētījumu būtu vēlams palielināt izlases apjomu un izmantot aprobētu instrumentu, kā arī būtu interesanti noskaidrot, kā individuālo vērtību faktori prognozē objektīvus autovadītāju izraisītus negadījumus un pārkāpumus.

Iegūtie rezultāti var būt par pamatu jaunai autovadītāju uzvedības intervenču izveidošanai, kā arī pielietojami psihologa profesionālajā darbībā, konsultējot šīs

grupas indivīdus, kā arī izmantojami turpmākajā nozares attīstībā, zinātnē un pētniecībā.

**Pateicība:** *Pētījums piedalās Valsts pētījuma programmā „Tautsaimniecības transformācija, gudra izaugsme, pārvaldība un tiesiskais ietvars valsts un sabiedrības ilgtspējīgai attīstībai – jaunas pieejas ilgtspējīgas zināšanu sabiedrības veidošanai (EKOSOC\_LV). Apakštēma: Refleksija par vērtībām un rīcības modeļi sociālo un ekonomisko pārmaiņu laikā (EKOSOC\_5.2.5.)”*

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*Krists Jānis Lazdiņš, Kristīne Mārtinsons. Individuālo vērtību sistēmas raksturojuma un braukšanas uzvedības sakarības*

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## PSYCHOMETRIC PROPERTIES OF THE ANOMIA QUESTIONNAIRE (AQ)

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**Abstract.** *The purpose of this research was to develop the Anomia Questionnaire (AQ), which measures different dimensions of anomia and is based on the Levina, Martinsone, and Kamerade (Ļevina, Mārtinsone, & Kamerāde, 2015c, 2016a) integrative multidimensional model of anomia, as well as to determine its psychometric properties. The AQ was developed in Latvian. The sample consisted of 210 Latvian inhabitants aged from 19 to 58 years (27.6 % male, 72.4 % female). The factorial validity of the AQ was established using principal components analysis with Varimax rotation; this yielded six factors, which can be interpreted as Social Distrust (C1), Lack of Goal Clarity (C2), Generalized Sense of Meaninglessness (C3), Cultural Isolation (C4), Deviation from Prescribed Rules or Customs (C5), and Estrangement to Others (C6). All the AQ scales had high internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha varied from .73 to .86). The reaction and discrimination indices satisfied the accepted psychometric criteria.*

*The further stage of the AQ development would be the confirmatory factor analysis in broader international sample, the concurrent and convergent validity establishing, and test-retest reliability examination.*

**Keywords:** *anomia, deviation from prescribed rules and customs, social distrust, estrangement to others, cultural isolation, lack of goal clarity, generalized sense of meaninglessness, factorial validity, reliability.*

### Introduction

Research of anomia is actual in the period when the society endures social and economic changes. Social, economic, political, cultural changes at the level of society cause anomie - the condition or state, in which there is a breakdown of social norms and guidance for the citizens of a society (Durkheim, [1893] 1964), as well the discrepancy between common social goals and the legitimate means to attain those goals (Merton, 1964). At the individual level such changes cause anomia – “subjectively perceived anomie” (Lytkina, 2012). Thus, anomia can serve as an indicator of political, legislative, economic and other changes of the society (Ļevina, Mārtinsone, & Kamerāde, 2015a).



In some recent research (e.g., Ļevina, Mārtinsonē, Kamerade, 2015) it was found that certain dimensions of anomia — social distrust, social isolation and meaninglessness — are negatively associated with such components of subjective well-being as overall life satisfaction and satisfaction with different life domains, as well as with general sense of happiness. Anomia is an important factor that predicts subjective well-being (Ļevina, Mārtinsonē, in press; Ļevina, Mārtinsonē, Kamerade, 2015).

During three last decades Latvia has endured rapid social, economic, political, cultural changes, namely, the restoration of independence, the economic blossoming and the economic crisis, joining the European Union, joining NATO, the introduction of the euro, such changes in the labour market as a relatively high unemployment, labour migration. On the other hand bright changes occur in the modern world, such as wars, acts of terrorism, waves of refugees and others.

All these transitions in the development of the society could affect individuals and cause anomia and as a consequence, psychological health as well as well-being and quality of life in general.

In the light of such facts research of anomia can be viewed as topical. Especially important is a question, how it is possible to measure anomia at the individual level.

Thus, **the main purpose of this research** is to clarify the concept of anomia and to introduce the newly developed instrument for measurement of anomia, namely, the Anomia Questionnaire.

### **The notion of anomia: Anomia as a multidimensional concept**

Different scientists recognize and describe separate aspects of anomie/anomia. In the recent research of a model of anomia in the Baltic states a review of previous theories of anomie/anomia was conducted (Ļevina, Mārtinsonē, & Kamerāde, 2016a). It has been shown, that, according to Émile Durkheim (*Durkheim*, [1897] 1951), when the society is in the state of a breakdown of social norms and guidance, an individual can feel that he or she is not integrated into the greater whole society and can experience the meaninglessness that even can lead to anomic suicide. Using the term “anomy” Robert MacIver (MacIver, 1950) emphasized such an aspect of anomy as a breakdown of an individual’s sense of attachment to society. Leo Srole (Srole, 1956) accented such an aspect of anomia as “self-to-others alienation”. According to Melvin Seeman (Seeman, 1959) anomie referred to normlessness. Dwight Dean (Dean, 1961) considered that there were two components of anomie – normlessness and social isolation. Dean also assumed that there existed two subtypes of normlessness, namely, purposelessness and conflict of norms.

Thus, it is possible to summarize that characterizing separate certain dimension of anomie/anomia different theorists paid attention to different components of anomie/anomia. Nevertheless, three main components of anomia are described consistently in the scientific literature that can be defined as normlessness, social isolation and meaninglessness. Moreover, recent research in which reviews of previous theories and investigations of anomie/anomia were made (e.g., Levina, Martinsone, 2015; Levina, Martinsone, Kolesnikova, & Perepjolkina, 2014; Levina, Martinsone, & Kamerāde, 2015c, 2016b), primarily, in above mentioned review (Levina, Martinsone, & Kamerade, 2016a), allows to conclude that each major component of anomia includes some certain sub-dimensions<sup>1</sup>.

Also empirical studies, in which questionnaires and secondary data from the European Quality of Life Survey (European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS), 2012) (Levina, Martinsone, & Kamerāde, 2015b, c, 2016a) and from the European Values Study (European Values Study (EVS), 2008) (Levina, Martinsone, & Klinec, 2016) were used, have confirmed that anomia is multidimensional.

On the base of above mentioned conclusions and findings the integrative multidimensional model was proposed and gradually developed by Levina, Martinsone and co-authors (Levina, Martinsone, Kolesnikova, & Perepjolkina, 2014; Levina & Martinsone, 2015; Levina, Martinsone, & Kamerāde, 2015b, c, 2016a). According to this model **anomia** is defined as an individually psychological state when the person beliefs that there are no social norms, rules and prescriptions, which can regulate his / her own behavior as well as the behavior of other citizens of the society, when the person endures the psychological state of social isolation and meaninglessness. Anomia is multidimensional and includes three main dimensions **normlessness**, **social isolation**, and **meaninglessness**. Each major dimension of anomia is divided into two sub-dimensions. **Normlessness** as a perceived breakdown of the social order in which norms no longer regulate behavior includes an *individual's deviation from prescribed rules or customs* and *social distrust*. **Social isolation** as a loss of a sense of community includes *estrangement to others* and *cultural isolation*. At last, **meaninglessness** as an absence or unclarity of terminal goals (life meanings) as prescriptions for an individual's behavior includes *the lack of goal clarity* and *generalized sense of meaninglessness*.

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<sup>1</sup> For a full review see Levina, J., Martinsone, K., & Kamerāde, D. (2016). A Model of Anomia in the Baltic States. *The International Journal of Interdisciplinary Civic and Political Studies*, 11 (3), pp.1-12.

## Questionnaire development

Despite of that fact that anomia is confirmed and recognized as multidimensional, there is a lack of available instruments, which measure different multiple dimensions of anomia.

The existing situation can be characterized as follows. First, most instruments that measures anomia, are unidimensional. As examples of such instruments Srole's Anomia Scale (Srole, 1956) or McClosky's and Schaar's Anomy Scale (McClosky & Schaar, 1965) can be mentioned. Second, those studies, in which multiple indices of anomia were measured, are conducted using secondary data (e.g., Levina, Martinsone, Kamerade, 2015; Ļevina, Mārtinsonē, in press; Ļevina, Mārtinsonē, Kamerāde, 2015b, c; 2016a, b; Ļevina, Mārtinsonē, & Kline, 2016).

Thus, *the purpose of this study* was to develop a new multidimensional questionnaire that can be used to measure different dimensions of anomia and to determine its psychometric properties.

A review of the scientific literature, that was conducted earlier (Levina, Martinsone, & Kamerade, 2016) and as it was already mentioned above and was shown, that it is possible to distinguish between six sub-dimensions of anomia, namely, (1) individual's deviation from prescribed rules or customs, (2) social distrust, (3) estrangement to others, (4) cultural isolation, (5) the lack of goal clarity, (6) generalized sense of meaninglessness. The initial item pool was developed based on this theoretical basis.

A pool of 136 initial items was constructed. The initial items were refined and edited for content validity by two academic faculty member. An expert judgement is a general technique of item generation (DeVellis, 2003; Netemeyer, Bearden, & Sharma, 2003).

In the empirical study the items that have appropriate reaction and discrimination indices will be selected. The factorial validity will be established. Based on principal component analysis the scales will be determined. The internal consistency of scales will be cheked (Kline, 2000).

*The research question is:* Do psychometric properties of the AQ satisfy reliability and validity criteria of psychometrics?

## Method

### Participants

The Latvian sample consisted of the inhabitants of Latvia ( $n = 210$ ), aged from 19 to 58 years (27.6 % male, 72.4 % female).

The largest part of respondents live in Riga or near Riga (109 persons), 23 respondents live in another large city, 48 respondents live in a small town, 19

respondents – in a village, while 11 respondents indicated that they live a village house.

The largest part of respondents (185 persons) indicated that their mother tongue is Latvian, and 25 respondents has a mother tongue Russian. The largest part of respondents (188 persons) were Latvian, 15 respondents were Russian, 3 respondents were Belarusian. Other respondents indicated other nationalities.

Regarding education level, 29 respondents have secondary education, 27 respondents have special secondary education or vocational secondary education, the largest part of respondents – 68 persons have unfinished higher education, 13 respondents have a higher education (I level) and 43 respondents have a higher education (II level, bachelor's degree), 29 respondents have a master's degree and 1 respondent has PhD.

At the moment of participation in the research 1 respondent was getting a higher education (I level), the largest part of respondents (89 persons) were getting a higher education (II level, bachelor's degree), 25 respondents – were studying a master's programme, and 2 respondents – a doctoral programme. At the same time only 14 respondents indicated that they are not students, while 79 persons didn't answer this question because they also are not students and work or are unemployed.

More often these respondents work in the area of health/ social care (8 respondents), education/ sciences (8 respondents), service industry (7 respondents), commerce (7 respondents), factory production (6 respondents), transport/ logistics (6 respondents) and construction industry (6 respondents). In other areas there work less than 5 respondents.

### **Instrument**

***Anomia Questionnaire (AQ)***. The initial item pool consisted of 136 items, however, based on the results of the psychometric analysis, the number of items was reduced to 24. Responses are made on a 5-point Likert scale (from 1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree). The questionnaire is in Latvian.

Items examples are provided lower:

- “I always try to act in accordance with the law” (a\_q\_22\_dprc) – scale *Deviation from Prescribed Rules and Customs*;
- “I trust the Government” (a\_q\_103\_sd) – scale *Social Distrust*;
- “Other people do not care about me” (a\_q\_48\_eo) – scale *Estrangement to Others*;
- “It seems to me that my values are different from surrounding people's values” (a\_q\_104\_ci) – scale *Cultural Isolation*;
- “I know exactly what I would like to achieve in life” (a\_q\_17\_lgc) – scale *Lack of Goal Clarity*;

- “Taking into account the current situation, I find it hard to look into the future with hope” (a\_q\_89\_gsm) – scale General Sense of Meaninglessness.

### Procedure

Data were collected on a voluntary basis via internet from January 2016 to May 2016. All participants filled out the test on-line.

## Results

The newly established the AQ consists of 24 items that form six scales: *Social Distrust* ( $k = 4$ ), *Lack of Goal Clarity* ( $k = 4$ ), *Generalized Sense of Meaninglessness* ( $k = 4$ ), *Cultural Isolation* ( $k = 4$ ), *Deviation from Prescribed Rules or Customs* ( $k = 4$ ), *Estrangement to Others* ( $k = 4$ ).

### Descriptive statistics and reliability

Cronbach's alpha coefficients for all scales of the AQ were computed. Cronbach's alpha varied from .73 to .86), so that it could be said that reliability for all scales was acceptably high (see Table 1).

Table 1 Descriptive statistics and reliability indices for the AQ

Scales of AQ	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha	Mean	SD
<i>Social Distrust</i>	4	.84	15.76	3.24
<i>Lack of Goal Clarity</i>	4	.84	8.10	3.57
<i>Generalized Sense of Meaninglessness</i>	4	.86	9.58	3.90
<i>Cultural Isolation</i>	4	.73	11.16	3.23
<i>Deviation from Prescribed Rules or Customs</i>	4	.74	8.84	3.04
<i>Estrangement to Others</i>	4	.78	8.36	3.47

Items reaction and discrimination indices satisfied the psychometric criteria (see Table 2).

Items of the AQ showed good reaction indices with one exception, namely, item a\_q\_13\_lgc that has a decreased reaction index. This item sounded “There are no specific goals in my life to achieve”. Probably, such a decreased reaction index can be explained by the specific sample – the largest part of this sample consisted of students. Therefore, it is possible to assume that they have specific goals in their life to achieve.

Table 2 Item statistics by scale for the AQ

Item	M	SD	Correted Item-Total Correlation	Item	M	SD	Correted Item-Total Correlation	Item	M	SD	Correted Item-Total Correlation
<i>Social Distrust</i>				<i>Lack of Goal Clarity</i>				<i>Generalized Sense of Meaninglessness</i>			
a_q_103_sd	4.09	.92	.77	a_q_77_lgc	2.26	1.09	.72	a_q_89_gsm	2.36	1.21	.78
a_q_93_sd	4.09	.89	.73	a_q_126_lgc	1.97	.98	.74	a_q_119_gs	2.49	1.24	.72
a_q_55_sd	3.89	.99	.59	a_q_13_lgc	1.71	1.00	.65	a_q_49_gsm	2.77	1.12	.66
a_q_114_sd	3.69	1.12	.66	a_q_9_lgc	2.16	1.28	.59	a_q_65_gsm	1.96	1.03	.70
Scale mean	3.94			Scale mean	2.02			Scale mean	2.39		
<i>Cultural Isolation</i>				<i>Deviation from Prescribed Rules or Customs</i>				<i>Estrangement to Others</i>			
a_q_104_ci	2.68	1.06	.67	a_q_22_dprc	2.36	1.07	.60	a_q_48_eo	2.20	1.21	.52
a_q_125_ci	2.65	1.11	.62	a_q_6_dprc	2.25	1.02	.61	a_q_44_eo	2.21	1.27	.64
a_q_81_ci	2.94	1.07	.48	a_q_1_dprc	1.90	1.02	.42	a_q_118_eo	2.08	.94	.62
a_q_72_ci	2.89	1.10	.33	a_q_38_dprc	2.32	.95	.49	a_q_124_eo	1.87	1.01	.62
Scale mean	2.79			Scale mean	2.21			Scale mean	2.09		

Note: a\_q\_x – anomia question and number from the initial pool (initial questionnaire);

sd – questions that were constructed to measure social distrust;

ci - questions that were constructed to measure cultural isolation;

lgc - questions that were constructed to measure lack of goal clarity;

dprc - questions that were constructed to measure deviation from prescribed rules and customs;

gsm - questions that were constructed to measure general sense of meaninglessness;

eo - questions that were constructed to measure estrangement to others.

The average reaction index was 2.57. Coefficients of correlations between each item and the sum of the remaining items in the scale ranged from .33 to .78, and in most cases were moderately high or high.

### Factorial validity

Six factors of the AQ are yielded using principal component analysis with Varimax rotation. The KMO measure was .78, and the Bartlett test was significant  $\chi^2(120) = 1224.94 (p = .00)$ .

The component analysis of the selected items supported the factors the AQ was designed to measure.

All components had high loadings for items from equivalent the AQ dimensions and could be identified as *Social Distrust (C1)*, *Lack of Goal Clarity (C2)*, *Generalized Sense of Meaninglessness (C3)*, *Cultural Isolation (C4)*, *Deviation from Prescribed Rules or Customs (C5)*, and *Estrangement to Others (C6)*.

Table 3 Results of Principal Component Analysis with a Varimax Rotation for the AQ

Anomia's dimensions and variables	Component Loadings						
	<i>C1</i>	<i>C1</i>	<i>C2</i>	<i>C3</i>	<i>C4</i>	<i>C5</i>	<i>C6</i>
	before rotation		after rotation				
<b><i>Social Distrust</i></b>							
a_q_103_sd	.70	<b>.85</b>	-.07	.26	-.02	.03	-.04
a_q_93_sd	.69	<b>.83</b>	.00	.22	.07	.05	-.02
a_q_55_sd	.68	<b>.74</b>	-.03	-.03	-.03	.16	.28
a_q_114_sd	.67	<b>.73</b>	.00	.22	.06	.24	.04
<b><i>Lack of Goal Clarity</i></b>							
a_q_77_lgc	.67	.06	<b>.87</b>	.06	-.06	.02	.12
a_q_126_lgc	.66	.00	<b>.85</b>	.17	.01	.06	.12
a_q_13_lgc	.62	-.17	<b>.78</b>	.15	.15	.08	-.01
a_q_9_lgc	.60	.02	<b>.66</b>	.17	.13	.14	.31
<b><i>Generalized Sense of Meaninglessness</i></b>							
a_q_89_gsm	.55	.11	.14	<b>.82</b>	.11	.06	.22
a_q_119_gsm	.53	.21	.10	<b>.79</b>	.21	.05	.18
a_q_49_gsm	.38	.24	.29	<b>.68</b>	.02	-.17	.18
a_q_65_gsm	.43	.21	.21	<b>.68</b>	-.05	-.03	.37
<b><i>Cultural Isolation</i></b>							
a_q_104_ci	.47	-.03	.07	.09	<b>.85</b>	-.01	.12
a_q_125_ci	.39	.03	.03	.08	<b>.77</b>	.02	.28
a_q_81_ci	.42	-.03	-.04	.15	<b>.70</b>	.37	.06
a_q_72_ci	.20	.36	.23	-.21	<b>.50</b>	-.16	.12
<b><i>Deviation from Prescribed Rules or Customs</i></b>							
a_q_22_dprc	.27	.04	.10	-0.02	.00	<b>.80</b>	-.02
a_q_6_dprc	.31	.21	.08	-0.05	.05	<b>.76</b>	.01
a_q_1_dprc	.41	-.03	.00	0.14	-.02	<b>.68</b>	.05
a_q_38_dprc	.22	.21	.08	-0.14	.16	<b>.65</b>	.14
<b><i>Estrangement to Others</i></b>							
a_q_48_eo	.47	.09	.05	.25	-.02	.02	<b>.74</b>
a_q_44_eo	.44	.06	.17	.25	.30	-.02	<b>.68</b>
a_q_118_eo	.50	.08	.30	.12	.30	.14	<b>.67</b>
a_q_124_eo	.33	.01	.14	.25	.39	.09	<b>.61</b>
<b>Eigenvalues</b>		2.930	2.890	2.800	2.530	2.450	2.420
<b>% of variance</b>		12.200	12.030	11.650	10.550	10.190	10.090

## Discussion

This study investigated the reliability and the factorial structure of the Anomia Questionnaire (AQ). The inner structure of the developed AQ is characterized by a clearly interpretable six-factor structure. The obtained factors can be interpreted as Social Distrust, Lack of Goal Clarity, Generalized Sense of Meaninglessness, Cultural Isolation, Deviation from Prescribed Rules or Customs, and Estrangement to Others.

Two factors (Social Distrust and Deviation from Prescribed Rules or Customs) can be categorized as such dimension of anomia as normlessness. Two

factors (Estrangement to Others and Cultural Isolation) were categorized as social isolation. At last, two factors (Lack of Goal Clarity and Generalized Sense of Meaninglessness) can be categorized as meaninglessness.

In general, the results of the present study, namely, the revealed interpretable factors and their further categorization as three main aspects of anomia are consistent with other researchers' findings. In spite of the fact, that other researchers used various terms in order to define certain components of anomia, in general, they demonstrated that *normlessness* (e.g., Durkheim, [1893] 1964; Seeman, 1959; Dean, 1961), *social isolation* (e.g., Durkheim, [1893] 1964; MacIver, 1950; Srole, 1956; Dean, 1961) and *meaninglessness* (e.g., Durkheim, [1893] 1964; Dean, 1961) are major dimensions of anomia.

It is important to mention, that each sub-dimension of anomia that was included into the integrative multidimensional model of anomia, developed by Ļevina, Mārtinsone and co-authors (Levina, Martinsone, Kolesnikova, & Perepjolkina, 2014; Levina & Martinsone, 2015; Ļevina, Mārtinsone, & Kamerāde, 2015b, c, 2016a) and served as a theoretical base for the construction of a certain scale of the Anomia Questionnaire, has its main signs.

Thus, *deviation from prescribed rules or customs* has such main signs as the lack of an individuals' respect of presumed norms and readiness to engage in particular acts of deviance and to use non-normative means in order to attain desirable goals. *Social distrust* has such main signs as the lack of trustworthiness to government and other social institutions as well as the lack of trustworthiness to other people (doubts that others are generally fair, honest and respect presumed norms).

Main signs of *estrangement to others* are the lack of social support, the sense of loneliness, the sense of alienation, the sense of inferiority. In its turn, the sense of loss of internalized social norms and values are signs of *cultural isolation*.

At last, being without desirable and sensible goals are main signs of *the lack of goal clarity*, while *generalized sense of meaninglessness* has such signs as the sense of the lack of control and freedom, the sense of boredom, pessimism.

In this study the psychometric properties of the AQ confirm that it is a reliable instrument for its use. The study showed that internal consistency of the AQ was satisfactory. The further stage of the AQ development would be the confirmatory factor analysis in a broader international sample, the concurrent and convergent validity establishing, and test-retest reliability examination. Taking into account that the AQ was developed in Latvia in future it will be also valuable to adapt the test into other languages to make it appropriate for use by inhabitants of other countries of Europe and world.





The paper was supported by the National Research Program 5.2. “Economic Transformation, Smart Growth, Governance and Legal Framework for the State and Society for Sustainable Development - a New Approach to the Creation of a Sustainable Learning Community (EKOSOC-LV)”

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**8 – 9 GADUS VECU BĒRNU EMPĀTIJAS UN  
EMOCIONĀLĀS PAŠREGULĀCIJAS RĀDĪTĀJU  
IZMAIŅAS NEVARDARBĪGĀS KOMUNIKĀCIJAS  
INTERVENČES PROGRAMMĀ PĒC  
M. ROZENBERGA**

***8-9 Year Old Children Empathy and Emotional Regulation  
Measurement Changes in Non - Violent Communication Intervenč  
Program by M. Rosenberg***

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**Abstract.** *The aim of this paper is to investigate the 2nd grade children empathy and emotional regulation differences, after non – violent communication intervenč program. Non- violent communication intervenč program is based on M. Rosenberg, (2003) four step model. Nowadays a lot of schools and teachers, have a huge problem to deal with children challenging behaviour, like antisocial and impulsive,, bullying, verbal, non verbal aggression, conflicts and the latest researches have shown, that it is strictly connected with social – emotional competence problems. First of all, emotional regulation influences peer relationship quality and life’s well being and success maintenance (Lane, 2000). Although, empathy is one of the most essential social competences components and has a strong connection between ourselves and others and is the biggest motivator of prosocial behaviour (de Waal, 2008). Zin & Elias state, that practicing different intervenč programmes based on social, emotional and mindfulness exercises with the focus on thoughts, feelings, meditation is the direct way to enlarge empathy and emotional regulation (Zin & Elias,2007).*

**Keywords:** *emaphy, emotional regulation, intervenč, non-violent communication.*

**Ievads**

***Introduction***

Šobrīd daudzām skolām un to skolotājiem ir liels izaicinājums sadzīvot ar dažādo skolēnu uzvedību, kā, piemēram, impulsīva un antisociāla uzvedība, konflikti, verbāla agresija, zems emocionālais briedums, zemi empātijas rādītāji,

viduvējas saskarsmes spējas ar vienaudžiem, kas empīriski pierādīts, ka ir cieši saistīts ar sociāli - emocionālo kompetenču problēmām. Emociju apzināšanās un pašregulācijas spējas, ļoti būtiski ietekmē vienaudžu attiecību veidošanos kvalitāti, kā arī dzīves labizjūtu un panākumu nodrošināšanu (Lane, 2000). Savukārt empātija ir viena no vissvarīgākajām sociālām kompetenču komponentēm, tā ir saikne starp sevi, citiem un ir lielākais motivators prosociālai uzvedībai (de Waal, 2008). It īpaši sākumskolas procesā liela nozīme ir skolēnu savstarpējām attiecībām, jo caur tām tiek apmierinātas mūsu pamatvajadzības- draudzība, cieņa, drošības izjūta, uzticēšanās un, jo vieglāk skolēnam padodas iesaistīties saskarsmē, jo vieglāk apgūt zināšanas (La Fontana, 2002).

Joprojām izglītības nozarē notiek daudz debates, kāda būtu vispiemērotākā metode, ko pielietot skolas iekšējā vidē, lai skolotāji, kā arī skolas psihologi, būtu profesionāli sagatavoti un atbalstīti darbam ar dažādiem skolēnu uzvedības vadmotīviem. Būtiski ir tas, ka daudzu valstu izglītības ministrijas ir nonākušas pie secinājuma, ka ir jāpalīdz gan skolotājiem, gan skolēniem veicināt savstarpēju dialogu, ieviešot skolās dažādas uzvedību koriģējošas un komunikāciju veicinošas intervences programmas. Viena no alternatīvām tiek minēta un praksē pielietota - nevardarbīgās komunikācijas intervences programma. Nevardarbīgās komunikācijas intervences programma pamatojas uz M. Rozenberga nevardarbīgās komunikācijas četru soļu modeli, kas tika izveidots 20. gadsimta 60. gados. M. Rozenbergs ar nevardarbīgās komunikācijas četru soļu moduli, galvenokārt vadās pēc tā, ka cilvēki principā ir gatavi uz respektu, sadarbību un satīcīgu izturēšanos, ja viņi var paļauties uz to, ka viņu vajadzības nepalik nesadzirdētas vai netiks ignorētas, bet gan tiks respektētas un iekļautas citu rīcībā (kā minēts Hooper, 2015) Nevardarbīgās komunikācijas metode ir praksē pārbaudīta un zinātniski izvērtēta intervences programma, kuras viens no pamatuzdevumiem ir veicināt komunikāciju un sadarbību ar citiem empātiskā, nevardarbīgā veidā un programmas autori uzskata, ka tā var tikt izmantota izglītības iestādēs mācīšanās procesa atbalstam (Muller, 2016). Latvijas skolās veiktie pētījumi par skolēnu pašizjūtu liecināja, ka 32 % skolēni nejūtas laimīgi, 10-12 % bērnu bija novērojamas depresijas pazīmes, 31 % skolēnu nepatika vai ļoti nepatika skola, 52 % bērnu izjūt bailes no skolotājiem. Kā arī skolēni, kuri tiek terorizēti no savu vienaudžu puses, tiek atstumti sava ārējā izskata, uzvedības vai sekmju dēļ (Orska, 2011). Autori (Zins & Elias, 2007) min, ka viens no veidiem, kā uzlabot sociāli emocionālās prasmes skolas vidē ir, praktizējot dažādas intervences programmas, bāzētas uz sociāli emocionāliem un apzinātības vingrinājumiem, kuri fokusējas uz domām, izjūtām, meditāciju. Pētījuma idejas aktualitāte ir saistīta ar nepieciešamību izpētīt empātijas un emocionālās pašregulācijas rādītāju izmaiņas, nevardarbīgās komunikācijas intervences programmas rezultātā vidējās bērnības vecumposma

bērniem, tādā veidā palīdzot gan skolotājiem, gan bērniem veicināt labāku, savstarpēji nevardarbīgu dialogu, kā arī ietekmēt pozitīvi sociāli - emocionālo attīstību un pārtraukt uzvedības trajektorijas, kas ved uz pārkāpumiem. Pētījuma inovatīvais devums ir longitūdinālās adaptācijas nevardarbīgās komunikācijas intervences programmas izmantošana Latvijas sākumskolā un tās ietekme uz empātijas un emocionālās pašregulācijas rādītājiem, sākumskolas skolēniem.

Raksta autore uzskata, ka šajā praktiskajā darbā iegūtie dati var tikt izmantoti tālākiem nevardarbīgās komunikācijas intervences programmas pētījumiem, kā arī preventīvo pasākumu veidošanā un attīstīšanā, kas domāti vidējās bērnības vecumposmu skolēnu empātijas un emocionālo pašregulācijas veicināšanai.

### **Pētījumā izmantoto jēdzienu raksturojums un aktualitāte vidējā bērnības vecumposmā**

#### *Pētījuma objekts- empātija, emociju pašregulācija*

Mūsdienu zinātnieki uzsver, ka empātija ir visvarīgākā no sociālām kompetencēm un empīriski ir pierādīts, ka bērni ar zemiem empātijas rādītājiem un vāji attīstītu sociālo kompetenci, ne vienmēr izrāda savstarpēju iejūtību, cienīšanu un ir īpaši traucējoši, lai adaptētos skolas dzīvē, nespējot veiksmīgi veidot attiecības ar vienaudžiem, gan iekļauties sabiedrībā kopumā (Muller, 2016). Empātijas attīstība strauji attīstās no paša dzimšanas brīža. Par empātijas pirmsavotiem tiek uzskatīti: ģenētiskie faktori, neuro faktori, temperaments, socializācijas faktori- mikro vide-ģimene neverbālā komunikācija. Ja empātijas attīstība ir noritējusi veiksmīgi, tad par to liecina sekojošie faktori: sociālā kompetence, attiecību kvalitāte, prosociāla uzdevība un altruisms (Knafo, 2008). Pastāv būtiskas atšķirības empātijas rādītājiem starp dzimumiem vidējās bērnības vecumposmā, meitenēm ir novērots augstāks empātijas līmenis, augstāka vainas apziņa un mazāk izrāda dusmas (Eisenberg & Spinard, 2006).

*Emocionālās pašregulācijas* izpētes fokuss galvenokārt ir saistīts ar to, ka šobrīd daudzām skolām un to skolotājiem ir liels izaicinājums sadzīvot ar dažādo skolēnu uzvedību, kā piemēram, antisociāla, impulsīva uzvedība, verbāla, neverbāla agresija, konflikti, kas ir cieši saistīti ar skolēnu zemām emocionālās inteliģences kompetencēm. Par veiksmīgu bērnu emocionālo pašregulāciju liecina: spēja saskatīt lietas, kas viņā izraisa konkrētas emocijas un spēj ar tām dalīties, kā arī prot savas emocijas apvaldīt, lai ar to izpausmēm nenodarītu pāri citiem. Zems emocionālās pašregulācijas līmenis izpaužas: emocionālā nestabilitātē, biežā nemierā, antisociālā uzvedībā (Caruso, 2008). Pēdējo gadu laikā veiktie pētījumi liecina, ka pozitīvs skolas klimats veicina bērnu emocionālo pašregulāciju, augstus akadēmiskus rezultātus, prosociālu uzvedību un interesi iesaistīties skolas vidē. Savukārt negatīvs klases klimats ļoti

iespaido negatīvi akadēmiskos rezultātus un uzvedības paternus (Bowman, 2011).

### **Nevardarbīgās komunikācijas intervences vadlīnijas**

*Nevardarbīgās komunikācijas galvenais mērķis sākumskolas vecuma bērniem: izzināt atšķirības starp vardarbīgu, noraidošu valodu un iejūtīgu komunikāciju; rūpēties par savām vajadzībām, nekaitējot citu vajadzībām vai neīstenojot savas vajadzības ar varu; atklāti aizstāvēt savu viedokli, neizraisot noraidījumu vai naidīgumu (Rosenberg, 2003). Nevardarbīgās komunikācijas intervences pedagoģiskais mērķis: novērot bērna intereses, vajadzības; rosināt novērošanas prasmi; veicināt jaunu izjūtu un vajadzību vārdu krājumu paplašināšanos; lūguma izteikšana (Muller, 2016). Nevardarbīgās komunikācijas intervences pēdējo gadu pētījuma rezultāti uzrāda, ka skolotāji pēc intervences apmācības spēja būt vairāk empātiski, uzlabojās komunikācija starp skolēniem un skolotājiem. Savukārt skolēniem ir pozitīvāka sevis pieņemšana, sadarbība, mazāk konflikti, savu - citu izjūtas un vajadzības izpratne labāka, paaugstinās interese iesaistīties dažādās skolas aktivitātēs, empātiska klausīšanās, emociju pašregulācija uzlabojās, parādās jaunas koncepcijas kā mazināt konfliktsituācijas, to nevardarbīga risinājumu meklēšana (Hooper, 2015).*

### **Metodoloģija** *Methodology*

Lai atbildētu uz pētījuma jautājumu, „Vai pēc nevardarbīgās komunikācijas intervences programmas izmainās 2. x klases skolēnu empātijas un emocionālās pašregulācijas rādītāji, tika veikts eksperiments, izmantojot M. Rozenberga (2003) nevardarbīgās komunikācijas intervences programmu, balstoties uz vācu psiholoģes Milleres (Muller, 2016) rokasgrāmatu sākumskolas bērniem – „Cienošā komunikācija sākumskolā. Uz pārdzīvojumu un valodu orientēta rokasgrāmata deviņos moduļos.” Pētījums norisinājās vairākos posmos, laika periodā no 2016. gada marta mēneša līdz 2016. gada maija mēnesim. Pētījums sastāv no trijām daļām: kvalitatīvas, teorētiskās un kvantitatīvās daļas. Pētījuma procesu veidoja: intervija ar klases audzinātāju, lai izzinātu grupas sociāls psiholoģiskos aspektus, izveidota kontentanalīze, apkopotas teorētiskās atziņas, balstoties uz jaunākajiem pētījumiem par empātiju, emociju pašregulāciju, nevardarbīgo komunikāciju, iegūta vecāku un skolas atļauja par bērnu piedalīšanos intervences programmā, veikta skolēnu novērošana mācību stundās un starpbrīžos, skolēnu testēšana pirms intervences programmas izmantojot BEALS- emociju apzināšanās testu un V. V. Boiko empātijas skalas

testu, tika novadītas kopā 10 nevardarbīgās komunikācijas intervences programmas nodarbības, kā arī tika veikti novērojumi. Raksta autore ir izgājusi nevardarbīgās komunikācijas intervences programmas apmācību bērniem un pieaugušajiem, lai būtu sertificēta nevardarbīgās komunikācijas intervences programmas instruktore, kā arī tika veikta bērnu testēšana pēc intervences un rezultātu matemātiskā statistika, to interpretācija. Kopumā pētījumā piedalījās X vispārizglītojošās skolas 2. x klases skolēni – 4 meitenes un 10 zēni. Kontroles grupa netika izveidota. Kopā šajā skolā ir trīs otrās klases, un esošā 2.x klase tika izvēlēta, atsaucoties uz klases audzinātājas pedagoģisko interesi un skolēnu novērtējumu, proti, kad bērns prot lasīt un ir salīdzinoši labas kognitīvās prasmes, kas atbilst sākumskolas mācību standartiem, taču ir ļoti zems emocionālais briedums, nespēja regulēt savas emocijas, impulsīva uzvedība, ātri var sadusmoties un sākt kauties vai arī sākt raudāt. Klases audzinātājas uzmanība tiek vērsta, lai stiprinātu skolēnu empātijas un emocionālās pašregulācijas prasmes vidējā bērniības vecumposmā, tādēļ tiek meklētas alternatīvas metodes, kas veicinātu efektīvas un pozitīvas izmaiņas skolas vidē, kā rezultātā klases audzinātāja izteica pieprasījumu novadīt M. Rozenberga *nevardarbīgās komunikācijas* intervences programmu 2. x klases skolēniem, jo ar intervences palīdzību īpaši tiek stiprinātas divas sociālās prasmes: pašempātija un empātija, kā arī lai emocionāla saikne un kontakti ar citiem cilvēkiem pamatotos partnerībā, sadarbībā un cieņā. Līdz ar to klases audzinātājai būtu iespējams iezīmēt savus pedagoģiskos darbības virzienus kolektīva attiecību pilnveidei, korekcijai, kā arī atsevišķu audzēkņu socializācijas sekmēšanai. *Nevardarbīgās komunikācijas* intervences programma piedāvā pārvarēt neempātisko un līdz ar to komunikāciju bloķējošo valodu, kā piemēram: morālos spriedumus, nonievāšanu, interpretācijas, vispārinājumus, prasību izvīrīšana un draudēšana, vaina, kauns u.c. M. Rozenbergs, (2003) izveidoja *nevardarbīgās komunikācijas* intervences programmas četru soļu modeli iejūtīgai, skaidrai valodai, mūsu patiesām vēlmēm, saskaņā ar kādām vērtībām mēs vēlamies rīkoties un kā mēs rūpējamies par to, lai mūsu vajadzības tiktu apmierinātas, ievērojot citu vajadzības. *Nevardarbīgās komunikācijas* intervences programmas četru soļu komunikācijas kvalitāte daļēji atšķiras no mūsu ierastās sarunvalodas, un tāpēc ir vajadzīgs treniņš, lai varētu vingrināties tās lietošanā un intergrēšanā mūsu valodā un uzvedībā. M. Rozenberga *nevardarbīgās komunikācijas* četru soļu modelis ir izveidots kā 9 nodarbību treniņš. Katra nodarbība ir apmēram 45 minūšu gara un sastāv no dažādiem vingrinājumiem un rakstiskiem uzdevumiem. Katrs no 9 moduļiem ir sadalīts trijās daļās: mērķis, aktīvā daļa- fokuss uz kognitīvo attīstības procesiem, izjūtu un vajadzību vārdu krājumu paplašināšanu, izpratni, aktīvā klausīšanās un izvērtēšanas lapa, kas ir domāta intervences vadītājam. M. Rozenberga četru soļu moduļa shēma sastāv no: 1. NOVĒROJUMIEM- skaidra novērojumu

valoda, kas izvairās no morāliem vērtējumiem, attiecas uz aktuālo situāciju, nevis savu situācijas interpretējumu, vērtējumu. Galvenais fokuss tiek likts, lai bērni mācītos atšķirt novērojumus no vērtējumiem. 2. Nākamajā solī ir IZJŪTAS – mūsu patīkamo un nepatīkamo izjūtu cēlonis ir apmierinātas un neapmierinātas vajadzības. Visām izjūtām ir jēga, tā ir jēgpilna ķermeņa informācija, tāpēc svarīgi atvēlēt laiku tam, lai uztvertu un vērotu izjūtas, lai nosauktu un paustu tās. Intervences programmas četru soļu modulis piedāvā universālu izjūtu vārdu sarakstu. 3. Trešajā solī izmantojam VAJADZĪBU valodu. *Nevardarbīgās komunikācijas* intervences programmas četru soļu modulis piedāvā universālu vajadzību sarakstu, kas ietver gan fiziskas, gan emocionālas, gan garīgas vajadzības. Mūsu dzīvesprieks lielā mērā ir atkarīgi no tā, vai mūsu vajadzības ir apmierinātas. Ja mēs protam saskatīt un cienīt citu vajadzības, tad konfliktos drīzāk izdodas atrast konstruktīvas startējijas un risinājumus. 4. Ceturtajā solī mācāmies izteikt LŪGUMUS bez prasībām. Lūgumi tiek formulēti pozitīvi, rīcības valodā, fokusēti uz tagadni, skaidri un konkrēti. Kā jau iepriekš raksta autore minēja, tad *nevardarbīgās komunikācijas* četru soļu modelis atšķiras no mūsu ierastās sarunvalodas un ir vajadzīgs laiks, lai varētu vingrināties tās lietošanā un integrēšanā. Tādēļ jo ātrāk bērniem tiks sniegta informācija par dažādiem komunikācijas veidiem, kā piemēram, četru soļu modeli, jo lielāka iespējamība samazināt konfliktus, uzlabot empātijas spējas, kā arī efektīvāk integrēt *nevardarbīgās komunikācijas* iemaņas bērna uzvedībā un valodā. Gan pirms intervences, gan pēc intervences tika veikta bērnu testēšana izmantojot divus testus- BEALS- bērnu emocionālās apzināšanās līmeņu skalas tests (The levels of emotional awareness scale for children; Bajgar & Lane, 2003, aprobēts latv.val; Elsiņa, I, 2014) un V. V. Boiko (Бойко, 2001) empātijas tests. Ņemot vērā, ka V. V. Boiko (Бойко, 2001) testa jautājumi ir atlasīti vecākām respondentu grupām, tādējādi darba autore kopā ar maģistra darba vadītāju, modificēja jautājumus atbilstoši vidējās bērniības vecumposma grupai. V. V. Boiko (Бойко, 2001) empātijas testa *Kronbaha alphas* koeficients pirms intervences veikšanas vismaz četrās no sešām skalām nav pietiekams, proti, empātijas racionāla skala, empātijas emocionālā skala, empātijas intuitīvā skala un identifikācija empātijā apakšskala, tāpēc rezultātu interpretācija vērtējama vienīgi kā tendences. Tomēr iegūtie iekšējās ticamības rādītāji pieļauj empātijas apakšskalu rezultātu interpretāciju. Ja salīdzina eksperimenta grupas pirms un pēc empātijas rādītājus var redzēt, ka visām apakšskalām ir uzlabojušies pēc intervences rādītāji, viens no ietekmējošiem faktoriem varētu būt saistīts ar bērnu dziļāku izpratni par jautājumu būtību. Raksta autore uzsver, ka iespējams zemie kronbaha alphas rādītāji varētu būt saistīti arī ar skolēnu zemo testa jautājumu izpratni, pavirša pieeja testa aizpildīšanai, testa adaptācijas nepietiekmas kultūrvides atšķirības ievērošana.



Savukārt, izvērtēt skolēnu emocionālo pašregulāciju tika pielietota BEALS testa metode emociju apzināšanās līmeņu izpētei bērniem (The Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale for Children; Bajgar & Lane, 2004, aprobēts latv.val. Elsiņa, 2014). BEALS tests koncentrējās uz divām perspektīvēm- Es un Cits (Bajgar et. al.; 2004). BEALS tests sastāv no 12 scenārijiem, kuri ir balstīti uz ikdienas sociālām situācijām. Katrs no šiem scenārijiem iekļauj divu cilvēku emocijas un uzvedību motīvus- „Kā tu justos”? un „Kā justos otrs cilvēks?”. *Kronbaha alphas* iegūtie rādītāji ir augsti - *a* ir robežās no .72 līdz .88 un uzrāda labus iekšējos ticamības rādītājus. Pētījuma datu apstrādei tika lietotas programmas EXCELL un SPSS22. versija. Analizējot skolēnu emocionālo un empātiju rādītāju izmaiņas, tika salīdzināti eksperimenta grupas pirms un pēc rādītāji. Ņemot vērā izlases mazo skaitu, tika izmantotas parametriskās metodes: t-Stjudenta kritērijs un divu atkarīgu izlašu rādītāju salīdzināšanai un neatkarīgu izlašu rādītāju salīdzināšanai- zēniem un meitenēm. Visiem statistiskiem salīdzinājumiem tika veikts Kolmogorova-Smirnova tests normāla sadalījuma noteikšanai. Statistiskās nozīmības līmeņa noteikšanai tika noteikta, analizējot statistiskās nozīmības rādītāju *p* (pēc Cohen, 1988) .

## Rezultāti

### Results

1. jautājums: „Vai pēc *nevardabīgās komunikācijas* intervences programmas izmainās 2. x klases skolēnu empātijas rādītāji?”

- Kronbaha alfa - kopējais empātijas rādītājs: 0.345 – 0.578

„*Personības testos dažreiz kronbaha alfas koeficients pieļaujams arī zem 0.42, ja pazīmes izpausmes ir ļoti daudzveidīgas un variatīvas*” (Anastasi, 1976; Raščevska, 2005)

Kopējie empātijas rādītāji – neuzrāda statistiski nozīmīgas atšķirības, rezultāti ir palielinājušies no pirms ( $M = 18.29$ ;  $SD = 3.45$ ) uz pēc ( $M = 19.21$ ;  $SD = 4.04$ ) rādītājiem.

Statistiski nozīmīgas atšķirības uzrādīja sekojošās empātijas apakšskalas:

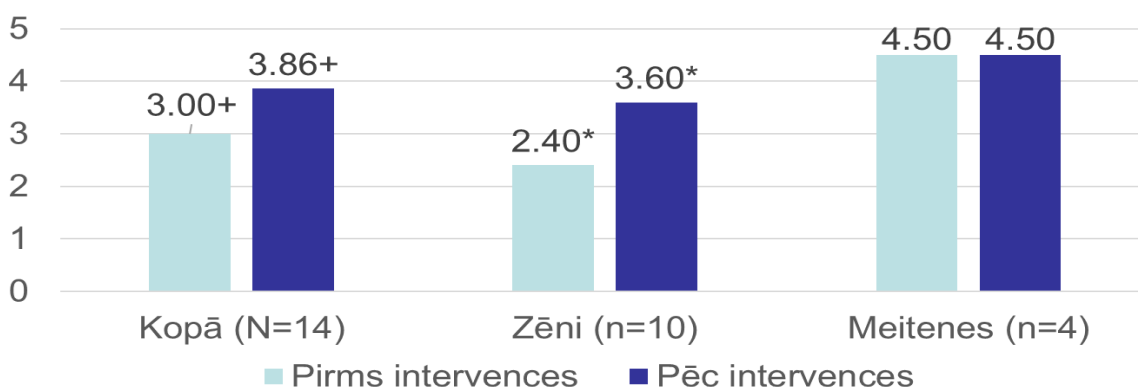
- ✓ Empātijas sekmējošās ievirzes spējas skala – no pirms ( $M=3.00$ ;  $SD=1.93$ ) uz pēc ( $M =1.93$ ;  $SD = 1.26$ ) samazinoties, gan zēniem ( $M= 3.00$ ;  $SD= 1.33$ ) uz ( $M =1.90$ ;  $SD = 1.44$ ), gan meitenēm ( $M=3.00$ ;  $SD=1.41$ ) uz ( $M =2.00$ ;  $SD=0.82$ ), tikai zēniem šie rādītāji ir statistiski nozīmīgi. Pēc *V.V.Boiko testa skalu interpretācijas rezultāti samazinās, ja cilvēks cenšas izvairīties no privātiem kontaktiem un uzskata, ka ir nevietā izrādīt ziņkārīgu par cita personību. Vidējās bērības vecumposmā tas varētu būt raksturīgi, jo bērniem ir nepieciešams ilgāks laiks, lai izveidotu ciešus emocionālus kontaktus un izrādītu padziļinātu līdzjūtību. Vidējās bērības vecumposmā*

attiecību kritēriji balstās uz šī brīža patiku un nepatiku un patīkamais šajā vecumā ir strauji mainīgs.

✓ Izteiktas empātijas spējas skala:

- Kopējie rādītāji- no pirms (M =3.00; SD =1.51) uz pēc (M= 3.86; SD =1.29) norāda uz statistiski nozīmīgām atšķirībām tendences līmenī ar 90 % varbūtību pieaugt;
- Zēniem tiek uzrādītas statistiski nozīmīgas atšķirības pirms un pēc intervences;
- Meitenēm rādītāji neizmainās, jo jau sākotnēji ir augstāki nekā zēniem.

Pēc V. V. Boiko testa interpretācijas visspilgtāk empātijas iezīmes parāda izteiktas empātijas spējas skala, kas tiek interpretēta kā svarīga cilvēka komunikatīva īpašība, kas ļauj radīt sirsnības pilnu atmosfēru (skat. shēma Nr. 1).



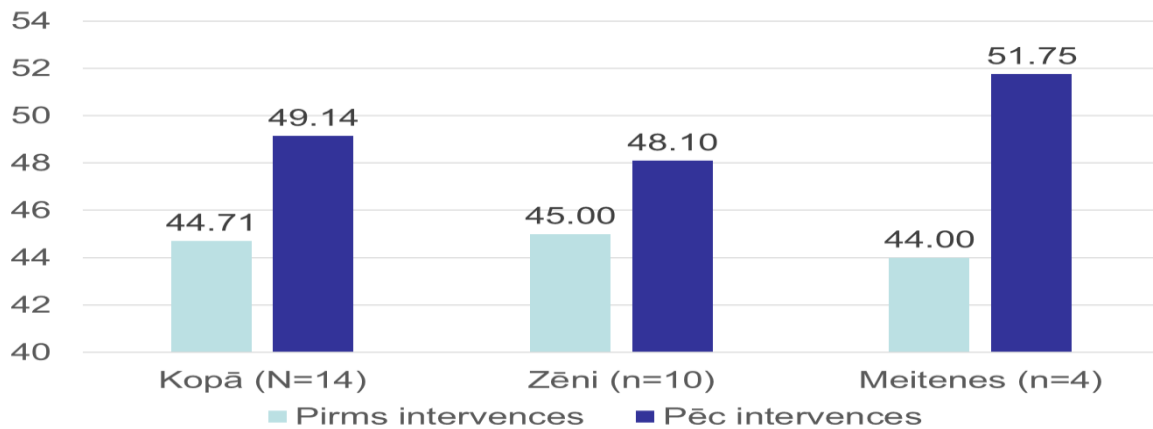
Piezīme. +  $p < 0.1$ ; \*  $p < 0.05$

1.shēma **Izteiktas empātijas skalas rādītāji**  
*1.shema **Expressing empathy scale measurements***

2. jautājums: “Vai pēc *nevardarbīgās komunikācijas* intervences programmas izmainās 2. x klases skolēnu emocionālie pašregulācijas rādītāji” un “Vai iegūtie rādītāji ir līdzīgi zēniem un meitenēm” var secināt, ka:

- Kronbahu alfa 0.787- 0.890 uzrāda labus iekšējos ticamības rādītājus;
- Iegūtie rezultāti neuzrāda statistiski nozīmīgas atšķirības pirms un pēc intervenču rādītājiem;
- Kā arī zēnu un meiteņu rādītāji statistiski nozīmīgi neatšķiras;
- „ES” skalas - rādītāji ir ar tendenci pieaugt, gan zēniem, gan meitenēm, tātad savu emociju un izjūtu apzināšanās līmenis pieaug;
- „CITI” skalas – rādītāji ir ar tendenci pieaugt meitenēm, bet zēniem samazinoties;

- Pēc oriģināla autoru interpretācijas par emociju apzināšanās līmeni norāda iegūtais punktu skaits skalā „kopā” (skat. shēma Nr. 2).



2.shēma. BEALS testa “Kopā” apakšskalas rādītāji  
2.shema BEALS test “Total awareness” scale measurements

### Secinājumi Conclusion

1. Kvalitatīvā izpētē, apkopojot teorētiskās atziņas var secināt:
  - ✓ Pētāmās 2. x klases skolēnu emocionālie un empātiju rādītāji ir saistīti ar klasiskām teorijām par sociālo un emocionālo kompetenču problēmām vidējā bērnības vecumposmā, proti, „konflikti ar vienaudžiem”, „eksternalizēta uzvedība- agresija, dusmas”, „sociālās atšķirības”, „impulsīvs raksturs”, „emocionālā pašregulācija”, „pašapziņa”, „empātija”, „pašempātija”.
  - Apkopojot novērojumu rezultātus, raksta autore secina:
    - ✓ 2. x klases skolēniem var novērot dažādus emocionālo pašregulāciju (dusmas, bailes, trauksme, skumjas) un empātijas (neiesaistīšanos mijiedarbībā, nespēja sadarboties, nerēķināšanās ar citu izjūtām un vajadzībām, viduvēja spēja veidot un uzturēt pozitīvas attiecības) līmeņa trūkumu.
    - ✓ Skolēni ļoti daudz savā sarunu valodā izmanto morālus vērtējumus, proti – „Tu vienmēr man traucē”, „Tu esi jocīgs”, „Tu vienmēr ierodies par vēlu” u.c.
2. Kvantitatīvā izpēte ļauj secināt, ka:
  - ✓ BEALS testa emociju apzināšanās rezultāti- uzrādīja rādītāju pieaugumu, bet neuzrāda statistiski nozīmīgas atšķirības, kā arī zēnu un meiteņu pirms un pēc intervencu rādītāji statistiski nozīmīgi neatšķiras.

- ✓ BOIKO empātijas tests- kopējais rādītājs pieaug no ( $M= 18.29$ ;  $SD = 3.45$ ) uz pēc ( $M= 19.21$ ;  $SD = 4.04$ ) rādītājiem, bet neuzrāda statistiski nozīmīgas atšķirības;
- Statistiski nozīmīgas atšķirības uzrāda sekojošās empātijas apakšskalas:
- ✓ Empātijas sekmējošās ievirzes spējas skala- gan zēniem, gan meitenēm samazinoties, tikai zēniem šīs izmaiņas ir statistiski nozīmīgas;
  - ✓ Izteiktas empātijas spējas skala- zēniem šie rādītāji ir statistiski nozīmīgi, pieaugot empātijas rādītājiem, savukārt meiteņu rādītāji neizmainās, jo jau sakotnēji ir augstāki par zēnu rādītājiem.
3. Balstoties uz teorētiskajam atziņām un pētījuma rezultātiem, raksta autore secina, ka iespējams nevardarbīgās komunikācijas intervences programma ir piemērota 2. x klašu skolēnu empātijas rādītāju un emocionālo kompetenču veicināšanai.
  4. Skolotājas novērojumi pēc intervences norāda sekojošās izmaiņas 2. x klašu skolēniem: skolēniem palielinājās zināšanas par izjūtu un vajadzību vārdiem; pamatemociju iepazīšana (dusmas, bailes, skumjas, prieks); cieņas veicināšana; lūgumu formulēšana; palielinājās bērnu gatavība vairāk ņemt vērā savas un pretinieka izjūtas un vajadzības; biežāk apjautājas, kā jūtas citi un labāk spēja pieņemt „nē”.

### Summary

In many studies it is emphasised that nowadays a lot of schools and teachers, have a huge challenge to deal with complicated children behaviour motives, like antisocial and impulsive behaviour, bullying, verbal aggression, conflicts and the latest studies have shown, that all these motives are strictly captivated with social – emotional competence problems. First of all, emotional regulation influence peer relationship quality and life's well being maintenance (Lane, 2000). Although, empathy is one of the most important, social competences and has a strong connection between ourselves and others and is the biggest motivator of prosocial behaviour (de Waal, 2008). At the elementary school context is very substantial peer relationship existence, because through this process children content their general needs - friendship, respect, safety, trust and as more positive child can create friendship, as easier to get along with studing process achievements (La Fontana, 2002). Zin & Elias state, that practicing different intervence programmes based on social, emotional and mindfulness exercises with the focus on thoughts, feelings, meditation is the direct way to enlarge empathy and emotional regulation (Zin & Elias, 2007). The aim of this research is: to investigate the 2nd grade children empathy and emotional regulation differences, after *non – violent communication* intervence program. The methods of the research are: Analysis of latiest theoretical thesis; Content analize; BEALS ( *the levels of emotional awareness scale for children*; Bajgar & Lane, 2004, aprobated to Latvian Elsiņa, I.

2014); V. V. Boiko (*empathy scale test*; V. V. Boiko, 2001, adapted to latvian Dravante & Perepjolkina, 2007).

### **Results and Conclusion**

In this experimental study, were carried out 10 non- violent intervence communication program sessions, during the school year 2015/2016, from the beginning of March until the end of May and have been used two tests: BEALS (*the levels of emotional awareness scale for children*; Bajgar & Lane, 2004, aprobated to latvian Elsiņa, I. 2014) and V. V. Boiko (*empathy scale test*; V. V. Boiko, 2001, adapted to latvian Dravante & Perepjolkina, 2007). Testing was done twice, before and after intervence program. Tests were fulfilled by children. In general, total empathy measurements didn't show statistically significant differences, but the post intervence results have the tendency to increase. The gender difference have showed, that the girls empathy results comparising with the boys, have higher empathy measures. Also, the results are reflecting theoretical reviews, that girls in midlle childhood are more friendly, responsible, more empathic, less bulling features and have higher interest to corporate with adults (*Eisenberg & Spinard, 2000*).

Post intervence, emotional regulation measurements didn't show statistically significant differences and also between genders. Even though, in general, the results showed, better competence of emotional regulation and ability to understand their own and other feelings, after non violent communication intervence program. In middle childhood emotional awareness and emotional regulation is sufficiently connected with social adaptation factors, relationship quality, supportive parents relationship, self esteem, well being, agression, stress, antisocial behavior (*Lane, 2000*). Veirman and Manchini (2013) researches showed, recording to BEALS test, that girls are more capable to understand their own emotions, than boys, but some studies didn't show such results.

Keywords: emapthy, emotional regulation, intervence, non-violent communication.

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## CRITERION-BASED VALIDITY OF THE DEPRESSION SCALE OF LATVIAN CLINICAL PERSONALITY INVENTORY

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**Abstract.** *The main aim of this study was to evaluate the criterion validity and to estimate the cut-off score of the Depression scale (DS) and short Depression scale (DSs) for a new self-report measure – Latvian Clinical Personality Inventory (LCPI). Usefulness of DS and DSs for identifying patients with major depression were analysed based on psychometric analysis of data acquired from psychiatric inpatient sample with depressive disorder (n = 37) in comparison to randomised stratified community subsample (n = 176) selected from the overall test development sample (N = 888). The present study was carried within the framework of the National Research Program (BIOMEDICINE) 2014 – 2017 (sub-project Nr.5.8.2.). It was shown that all 24 item of DS show good to excellent discrimination power. Cronbach's alpha was 0.97 for DS and 0.95 for DSs in test development sample. For DS, the optimal cut-off score was 26 points (sensitivity 95%, specificity 91%, and positive predicted value of 69%). For DSs, the optimal cut-off was 12 points (sensitivity 92%, specificity 89%, and positive predicted value 63%). DS and DSs of LCPI is proved to have good criterion validity in detecting depression and to be a reliable and valid instrument for assessment of depression symptoms in patients with depression and in general population. Subjects scoring at least 26 on DS or 12 points on DSs constitute a target group for further diagnostic assessment in order to determine appropriate treatment.*

**Keywords:** *depression, criterion validity, reliability, screening, sensitivity, specificity.*

### Introduction

Depression, especially if left untreated, has considerable impact on individuals' quality of life, on society and on the public health system (Mathers & Loncar, 2006) and is associated with serious consequences such as personal and

interpersonal suffering, impaired daily functioning, disturbance to interpersonal relationships, increased health care use, morbidity and an increased risk of suicide (e.g. Rihmer, 2007; Zlotnick et al., 2000). Depression is among the most commonly diagnosed mental disorders in adults. According to Latvian National Health Service, in 2015 depressive disorder was on the fifth place among all mental and behavioural disorders based on its relative frequency (Pulmanis, Japeniņa, Taube, 2016). Point prevalence of depression in the Latvian general population has been estimated to be 6.7% (Rancans, Vrublevska, Snikere, Koroleva, & Trapencieris, 2014), but 12-month prevalence of major depression has been estimated to be 7.9%, and for minor depression it was 7.7% (Vrublevska et al., 2017). Worldwide the prevalence of depressive disorders in primary care has been estimated to be between 10–20% (Mitchell, Vaze, & Rao, 2009), and in Latvia it was shown to be 10.2% in average with marked differences by gender (e.g. for male it was 6.0%, while for female it has been estimated to be 12.0%), and in lower extent with differences by age group (Rancans, Vrublevska, Kivite, et al., et al., 2016).

Because depression is often undiagnosed and untreated, active screening of depression is warranted. Use of patient-administered screening tools has increased as a quick and reliable option in the first step of depression assessment or as a treatment monitor (Gilbody, Richards, Brealey, & Hewitt, 2007). In English language, many self-assessment instruments are available for practitioners for identifying patients with major depression or dysthymia in primary care settings, but in Latvian language only some of these instruments are available, and on the moment only one of them – Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9) is standardised in Latvia (see Rancans, Vrublevska, Trapencieris et al., 2016).

Screening of depression is essential not only in primary care settings, but also in occupational, educational, forensic and clinical settings. In these settings screening of general depression can be done as a part of general psychological assessment. Recently a comprehensive multi-item multi-scale self-report measure – Latvian Clinical Personality Inventory (LCPI; Perepjolkina, Koļešņikova, Mārtinsonē, & Stepens, in press) had been developed in Latvia. The Depression Scale (DS,  $k = 24$ ) is one of nine clinical scales<sup>1</sup> of LCPI, along with

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<sup>1</sup> Other clinical scales of LCPI are: Symptoms of Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD), General Anxiety Symptoms (GA), Panic Attack Symptoms (PA), Symptoms of Social Anxiety (SA), Alcohol Related Problems (ALCO), Drug Related Problems (DRUG), Somatic Symptoms (SM) and Psychotic Symptoms (PSS).



33 personality-trait scales<sup>2</sup>, five functioning scales<sup>3</sup> and five additional scales<sup>4</sup>. LCPI is available in a full ( $k = 322$ ) and in a short version which is made up of first 220 items of LCPI, so also short version of DS scale (DSs) is available. DS/DSs scale for LCPI is developed for the assessment and monitoring of the severity of depression symptoms as a part of general psychological assessment in clinical, forensic and occupational settings.

### **Development of DS and DSs scale for LCPI**

The DS scale is constructed based on Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders 5th ed. (DSM–5; American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2013) diagnostic criteria for Major Depressive Disorder (GDD), employing criterion related strategy for scale construction. In the initial test development stage at least two items were formulated for every criterion symptom listed DSM-5 for major depressive disorder (APA, 2013, p. 160-161). In total, 65 items were formulated for DS scale on this stage. After discussions in a test development work-group, employing consensus approach 58 items ( $k_1$ , Table 1) were retained for further content validity evaluation made by five external experts – three experienced practitioner psychiatrist and two clinical psychologists. As a result, 50 survived items ( $k_2$ , Table 1) for the DS scale were included in the second preliminary version of LCPI (Perepjolkina, Kolesnikova, Mārtinsons, Stepens, 2016) for further empirical testing (see Table 1).

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<sup>2</sup> LCPI personality trait model includes seven broad domains of personality trait variation – Narcissism (NR), Impulsivity (IM), Negative Affectivity (NA), Dependence (DE), Introversion (IN), Psychoticism (PSY) and Compulsivity (C) - comprising 33 specific personality trait facets (NR1: Dominance, NR2: Conceit, NR3: Attention seeking, NR4: Manipulativeness, NR5: Harshness; IM1: Aggression, IM2: Irresponsibility, IM3: Rashness, IM4: Risk taking; NA1: Intemperance, NA2: Emotional Stability, NA3: Emotional lability, NA4: Depressivity, NA5: Anxiousness, NA6: Impersistence (Distractibility), NA7: Distrustfulness; DE1: Evaluation apprehension, DE2: Submissiveness, DE3: Indecisiveness, DE4: Separation insecurity; PSY1: Cognitive dysregulation, PSY2: Dissociation proneness; PSY3: Eccentricity, PSY4: Suspiciousness, PSY5: Unusual beliefs, PSY6: Self-harm; IN1: Restricted affectivity, IN2: Social Withdrawal, IN3: Close relationship avoidance; C1: Pedantry, C2: Perseveration and C3: Perfectionism.

<sup>3</sup> Five functioning scales of LCPI are: Sleep problems (F1), Energy level (F2), Psychomotor Retardation and Diminished Cognitive Function (F3), Problems associated with Attention Functions (F4), and Communication Problems (F5).

<sup>4</sup> Additional scales of LCPI are: Suicide Ideation (SI), Self-esteem (SE), Stress Symptoms (STRS), Perceived Social Support (PSS) and Unstable and Intense Interpersonal Relationships (REL).

Table 1 Amount of Items for Every Criterion Symptom of Major Depressive Disorder Developed and Retained for Preliminary and Final Version of DS Scale for LCPI

Symptoms/diagnostic criteria of Major depressive disorder (based in DSM-5)	Amount of items			<sup>a</sup> Item No. in LCPI
	$k_1$	$k_2$	$k_3$	
Depressed mood	10	8	5	<b>145, 113, 126, 265, 289</b>
Marked diminished interest or pleasure in all, or almost all, activities	7	7	4	<b>74, 82, 115, 238</b>
Significant weight loss when not dieting or weight gain	3	2	--	--
Insomnia or hypersomnia	8	7	2	<b>119, 50</b>
Psychomotor agitation or retardation	4	4	2	<b>122, 62</b>
Fatigue or loss of energy	6	5	4	<b>134, 79, 1, 188</b>
Feelings of worthlessness or excessive or inappropriate guilt	8	8	2	<b>167, 290</b>
Diminished ability to think or concentrate	6	5	4	<b>133, 281, 288, 307</b>
Recurrent thoughts of death or suicidal ideation	6	4	1	<b>68</b>

Note.  $k_1$  = amount of items retained after evaluation in the test development work-group;  $k_2$  = amount of items included in the second preliminary item pool of LCPI;  $k_3$  = amount of items included in the final version of DS scale for LCPI.

<sup>a</sup>Items included in the short version of DS scale (DSs) are presented in bold face.

Based on psychometric analysis, performed on the next test development stage, 24 best performing items ( $k_3$  in Table 1) were selected from the second preliminary item pool of LCPI for the inclusion to the final version of Depression scale (DS) for LCPI and 12 of these 24 items were selected for the short version of this scale (DSs) (see Table 1 and Table 3 for overview). Fifteen of 24 items are included not only in DS scale, but also in some other scales of LCPI, e.g. DS scale share two items with PTSD scale, one item with Stress symptoms scale and with Self-esteem scale, five items with F2 scale: Energy level; four items with F3 scale: Psychomotor retardation and diminished cognitive function, and two items with LCPI scale F1: Sleep problems (see Table 3).

The main objective of this study was to evaluate the criterion validity and to estimate cut-off score of the Depression scale (DS) and short Depression scale (DSs) for LCPI.

## Method

### *Participants*

In total valid protocols<sup>5</sup> of 888 adults (38.7 % male), who participated in the test development and primary validation study, were included in sample A (test development sample). Respondents ranged in age from 18 to 82 years with mean age of 36.23 ( $SD = 16.08$ ) years. A part of sample A were inpatients, who received treatment in the psychiatric clinics ( $n = 153$ , sample P<sup>6</sup>, with mean age of 40.98 ( $SD = 16.41$ ) years, 43.7 % male), 36 of whom (sample P1, with mean age of 50.73 ( $SD = 13.47$ ) years, 24.3 % male) were inpatients with F32.0 - F33.11 diagnosis (based on ICD-10; WHO, 1992). For validation purposes a randomised community sample ( $n = 176$ , sample C, mean age 48.98 ( $SD = 16.42$ ) years, 43.8 % male) stratified by age and gender according to the proportions of these demographic characteristics in Latvian population were selected from sample A.

### *Instruments*

All participants filled in demographic questionnaire indicating background information (age, sex, income level, marital status, level of education, occupational status and area of occupation), and completed a second preliminary item pool ( $k = 664$ ) of Latvian Clinical Personality Inventory (Perepjolkina, Koļesnikova, Mārtinsons, Stepens, 2016) (items were answered on a 4-point response format: from 0 – ‘totally disagree’ to 3 – ‘totally agree’).

The external criterion measure was a diagnosis of major depressive disorder (F32.0-F32.2 single episode (mild, moderate or severe without psychotic features) or F33.0-F33.2 recurrent (mild to severe without psychotic features)) (ICD-10; World Health Organisation, 1992) according to the medical records.

### *Procedure*

Participation in the study was on a voluntary basis. All participants were required to meet the following criteria: (a) to be 18 years of age or older, (b) to be able to consent and complete the study protocol in Latvian. For psychiatric inpatient sample additional criteria were: (c) to endorse or exhibit current psychiatric symptoms, and (d) attending physician’s admission for a patient to

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<sup>5</sup> The initial sample included 936 participants, but in total 48 protocols were eliminated as invalid (32 protocols (5.3 %) in community sample, and 16 protocols (9.5 %) in psychiatric inpatients sample). LCPI protocols were considered invalid in this study if more than 20 items (3 %) were left blank or if an answer on the last control-item (*I have honestly answered to all questions*) was ‘0’ or ‘1’.

<sup>6</sup> In this sample diagnoses included Mood disorder with major depressive-like episode due to known physiological condition (F06.32,  $n = 1$ ), Personality and behavioral disorders due to known physiological condition (F07,  $n = 2$ ), Alcohol related disorders (F10,  $n = 9$ ), Schizophrenia (F20,  $n = 55$ ), Schizotypal disorder (F21,  $n = 32$ ), Brief psychotic disorder (F23,  $n = 5$ ), Schizoaffective disorders (F25,  $n = 3$ ), Bipolar disorder (F31,  $n = 3$ ), Major depressive disorder, single episode (F32,  $n = 9$ ), Major depressive disorder, recurrent (F33,  $n = 28$ ), Generalized anxiety disorder (F41.1,  $n = 1$ ), Reaction to severe stress, and adjustment disorders (F43,  $n = 4$ ), and Somatoform disorders (F45,  $n = 2$ ).

participate in the study. All psychiatric inpatients signed Informed Consent Form before participating in the study.

Participants from psychiatric inpatient sample were contacted individually and after providing informed consent, participants were provided the packet of questionnaires to complete during their own time. From community sample data were collected mostly using an online platform employing snowball sampling method, but 27 % of participants (student subsample) were assessed frontally during their personality psychology study course and filed in paper-pencil versions of questionnaires for course credit. Data were collected from January 2016 to November 2016 and all procedures were approved by the Riga Stradiņš University Ethical board. This study formed part of a LCPI development and validation research carried within the framework of Latvian National Research Programme Biomedicine for Public Health (BIOMEDICINE) 2014 – 2017 (sub-project Nr.5.8.2.).

#### *Data analysis*

Data were entered at the item level into a database and was analysed using IBM SPSS Statistics 20. Discrimination power of DS scale for LCPI on item-level was evaluated using (1) mean square contingency coefficient or *phi* ( $\phi$ ) coefficient – a correlation between an item (in dichotomized scoring format, were answers: 0 – ‘totally disagree’ and ‘1’ – ‘partly disagree’ were coded as ‘0’ and answers: ‘2’ – ‘partly agree’ and ‘3’ – ‘totally agree’ – were coded as ‘1’) and criterion variable (‘0’ – a participant is from sample C, and ‘1’ – a participant is from sample P1); (2) Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient or Pearson’s *r* – a correlation between an item (using full range answer format) and criterion variable (‘0’ – sample C, ‘1’ – sample P1); (3) by analysis of item’s Discrimination index (D) (which was calculated using dichotomized scoring format), (4) by analysing a relative frequency of positive answers (in dichotomized scoring format) in C, P and P1 sample; (5) by calculating corrected item-total correlation (using full range scoring format) and (6) by using Student’s *t*-test for comparison of mean item scores (*M*) in C and P1 sample (using full range scoring format). Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was used to assess the internal consistency of the DS and DSs scale in different subsamples.

For effect size estimation Hedges' *g* (Hedges, 1981), which provides a measure of effect size weighted according to the relative size of each sample was used<sup>7</sup>. The test performance (i.e. usefulness for identifying patients with major depression) of the DS and DSs scale was evaluated using receiver-operating characteristics (ROC) analyses. Areas under curve (AUC) indicated the accuracy

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<sup>7</sup> Hedges' *g* is an alternative measure of effect size, and in comparison to more traditionally used Cohen's *d* (which is the appropriate effect size measure if two groups have similar standard deviations and are of similar size). Hedges' *g* is more appropriate effect size measure if there are different sample sizes (Grissom & Kim, 2005; Stangroom, 2017) as it is in the case of our study.

of DS and DSs total raw scores to differentiate clinically diagnosed depression (sample P1) from potentially non-depression state (sample C), and were compared between subgroups using asymptotic tests of significance. Sensitivity, specificity, positive and negative predictive values (PPV and NPV) were calculated for different cut-off scores and the optimal cut-offs determined. For calculating positive predictive power (PPP) and negative predictive power (NPP) for various base rate indices (i.e. corrected for the prevalence or base rate of the condition in the population being tested) formulas provided by Streiner (2003, p. 213) were used.

## Results

### *Item-level analysis*

Detailed item-level analysis revealed that all 24 item of final version of DS scale for LCPI show good to excellent discrimination power (see Table 2). For example, in dichotomized scoring format, frequency of positive answers in community sample (sample C) ranged from 4.00 % to 25.60 % (11.66 % in average) in comparison to sample P1 (patients with F32 - F33 diagnosis), where the frequency of positive answers ranged from 56.80 % to 94.60 % (74.13 % in average) and to sample P (patients who received treatment in the psychiatric clinics) where the frequency of positive answers ranged from 40.30 % to 66.90 % (50.98 % in average). In total sample discrimination index ranged from 0.51 to 0.84 (0.65 in average), corrected item-total correlation indices ranged from 0.51 to 0.87 (0.74 in average). *Phi* coefficient ( $\phi$ ) – a correlation between an item (in dichotomized scoring format) and criterion ('0' – sample C. '1' – sample P1) ranged from 0.32 to 0.71 (0.58 in average), but using full range answer format, correlation between items and the same criterion ranged from 0.39 to 0.68 (0.58 in average) (Table 2).

Performed *t*-test analysis revealed that group differences (sample C vs. sample P1) on item-level (based on full-range response scale) were rather large (mean difference were 1.5 point in average) and highly significant ( $p \leq .001$ ) (Table 2).

### *Scale-level analysis: Reliability and descriptive statistics*

The Cronbach's alpha for internal consistency of the DS and DSs scale for LCPI in test development and validation sample (sample A) was 0.97 and 0.95 accordingly, and ranged from 0.91 to 0.97 (for DS scale) and from 0.85 to 0.95 (for DSs scale) for different subgroups (Table 2).

Descriptive statistics for full and short version of Depression scale for LCPI for different subgroups are presented in Table 2. As it could be seen, in total and in psychiatric inpatient sample (A and P sample) almost full possible range of DS scale and full range of DSs scale total score is obtained. In randomised community

sample (sample C) no one scored higher than 53 for DS scale and higher than 26 for DSs scale, but in sample P1 (patients with GDD) the lowest total score was 18 for DS scale and 4 for DSs scale. Therefore, DS scale's scores for the sample C ranged from 0 to 53, with a mean score of 10.78 ( $SD = 11.17$ ), in contrast, DS scores for sample P ranged from 0 to 71 with a mean score of 34.26 ( $SD = 18.66$ ) and DS scores for sample P1 ranged from 18 to 70 with a mean score of 46.49 ( $SD = 13.84$ ) (Table 2).

Table 2 Reliability Coefficients (Cronbach's  $\alpha$ ) and Descriptive Statistics of DS and DSs Scale for LCPI

Statistics	$\alpha$		$M (SD)$		Range	
	DS	DSs	DS	DSs	DS	DSs
A sample	.97	.95	20.50 (19.32)	9.75 (10.03)	0-71	0-36
C sample	.93	.87	10.78 (11.17)	4.76 (5.48)	0-53	0-26
C male ( $C_m$ )	.93	.85	7.92 (9.53)	3.27 (4.31)	0-47	0-18
C female ( $C_f$ )	.93	.87	13.00 (11.87)	5.91 (6.01)	0-53	0-26
P sample	.95	.92	34.26 (18.66)	17.05 (9.85)	0-71	0-36
P1 sample	.91	.86	46.49 (13.84)	21.97 (7.53)	18-70	4-35

Note. DS – Depression Scales for LCPI. DSs – Short Depression Scale for LCPI.

$\alpha$  – Cronbach's alpha. Sample A ( $N = 888$ ) = test development total sample; sample C ( $n = 176$ ) = community sample; sample  $C_m$  ( $n = 77$ ) = male subsample from sample C; sample  $C_f$  ( $n = 99$ ) = female subsample from sample C; sample P ( $n = 153$ ) = clinical sample (patients who received treatment in the psychiatric clinics), sample P1 ( $n = 37$ ) = patients with F32 - F33 diagnosis (based on ICD-10). Possible range for DS scale total score is from 0 to 72 and for DSs scale – from 0 to 36.

An independent samples t-test revealed that these differences were very large and statistically significant ((1) sample C vs. sample P:  $t(241.12) = -13.59$ ,  $p \leq 0.001$ ,  $g = 1.55$  (very large effect size) and (2) sample C vs. sample P1:  $t(46.36) = -14.72$ ,  $p \leq 0.001$ ,  $g = 3.06$  – huge effect size<sup>8</sup>). Very large and statistically significant differences were obtained also for DSs scale scores: sample C:  $M = 4.76$  ( $SD = 5.48$ ) vs. sample P:  $M = 17.05$  ( $SD = 9.85$ ),  $t(230.18) = -13.70$ ,  $p \leq 0.001$ ,  $g = 1.57$  (very large effect size), and sample C:  $M = 4.76$  ( $SD = 5.48$ ) vs. sample P1:  $M = 21.97$  ( $SD = 7.53$ ),  $t(44.32) = -17.13$ ,  $p \leq 0.001$ ,  $g = 2.92$  (huge effect size). Additional analysis revealed, that females from sample C scored significantly higher than males both for full and short version of Depression Scale for LCPI ( $M_{\text{female}} = 13.00$  (11.88),  $M_{\text{male}} = 7.92$  (9.53),  $t(174) = 3.06$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $g = 0.46$  (small effect size) for DS scale, and  $M_{\text{female}} = 5.91$  (6.01),  $M_{\text{male}} = 3.27$  (4.31),  $t(174) = 3.25$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $g = 0.49$  (small effect size) for DSs scale), but these differences were relatively small in magnitude. Such gender related differences is in line with empirically approved higher prevalence rate of GDD in females in general (e.g. Ayuso-Mateos et al.,

<sup>8</sup> According to Sawilowsky (2009).

2001; Marcus et al., 2005) and in Latvian population as well (Pulmanis, Japeniņa, Taube, 2016; Rancans, Vrublevska, Kivite, et al., 2016).

#### *Scale-level analysis: Criterion validity*

In Table 4 diagnostic efficiency statistics on scale level are reported using multiple cut-off scores. Overall, the area under the curve was 0.97 for DS scale and 0.96 for DSs scale. Performed analysis revealed that DS score greater than 26 points and DSs score greater than 12 points reasonably balanced sensitivity and specificity rates. For DS scale sensitivity was 0.95 and specificity was 0.91 at cut-off of raw score = 26 points and for DSs scale sensitivity was 0.92 and specificity was 0.89 at the cut-off of raw score = 12 points.

Unlike sensitivity and specificity, positive predictive power (PPP or PPV) and negative predictive power (NPP or NPV) are not fixed characteristics of a scale and are dependent on the prevalence (i.e., base rate) of the condition being assessed (Meehl & Rosen, 1955; Streiner, 2003). Thus, in Table 4 PPP and NPP are presented for multiple base rate estimates. Base rate estimates of 5%, 10%, 15%, 20% and 25% are considered. Given that, the prevalence of general depression is likely to vary across settings and patient populations, reporting PPP and NPP allows examiners to adjust risk tolerance accordingly. Table 4 displays diagnostic efficiency statistics for multiple base rate estimates.

## **Discussion**

Performed analysis revealed that both full and short version of Depression Scale (DS and DSs) for LCPI show good to excellent diagnostic efficiency both on item and on scale level. Determined optimal cut-off score for DS scale correctly classified 95 % of patients with GDD (F32 - F33 diagnosis) and for DSs scale proportion of correctly classified patients was 92 %. That means, that diagnostic efficiency for DSs is somewhat lower in comparison to DS, but still it is reasonably high even in comparison to other popular self-report measures of GDD. For example, the 2002 literature review (Williams, Pignone, Ramirez, & Perez Stellato, 2002) found that median sensitivity across 16 instruments, including the BDI, CES-D, MDRS, PHQ and MDI<sup>9</sup>, for major depression was 85%, ranging from 50-97%, while median specificity was 74%, ranging from 51-98%.

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<sup>9</sup> Beck Depression Inventory (BDI), Centre for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D), Hamilton Depression Rating Scale (HDRS), Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ), Major Depression Inventory (MDI).

Table 3 Item-Level Analysis of Discriminating Power for the LCPI Depression Scale (DS and DSs)

Sample	C	P1	P	C vs. P1	C vs. P1	A		C	P1	<i>t</i>
	<i>f</i> <sub>1</sub> %	<i>f</i> <sub>2</sub> %	<i>f</i> <sub>3</sub> %	$\phi$	<i>r</i>	<i>D</i>	CITC	<i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	<i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	
145. Depressed mood (DSs)	7.4	78.4	55.2	.68	.68	.72	.87	0.38 (0.67)	2.08 (0.86)	-13.31***
74. Inability to feel joy (DSs, PTSD, STRS)	11.4	83.8	55.8	.64	.68	.72	.85	0.40 (0.73)	2.22 (0.85)	-13.31***
126. Feelings of inner emptiness (DSs)	6.3	67.6	48.7	.62	.63	.70	.83	0.27 (0.61)	1.78 (1.08)	-8.31***
82. Indifference for everything (DSs)	6.3	64.9	40.3	.60	.66	.58	.82	0.24 (0.58)	1.81 (1.02)	-8.46***
115. Loss of interest for living (DSs)	5.7	64.9	47.4	.61	.64	.61	.83	0.20 (0.57)	1.68 (1.03)	-8.24***
289. Feelings that 'life is empty'	6.8	64.9	40.9	.59	.62	.59	.82	0.26 (0.67)	1.81 (1.08)	-11.40***
238. Loss of interest (in general) (PTSD)	5.7	67.6	43.5	.63	.60	.58	.80	0.27 (0.62)	1.70 (1.13)	-7.52***
113. Negative view on future	8.0	64.9	42.2	.56	.56	.54	.75	0.38 (0.76)	1.84 (1.04)	-8.07***
68. Do not want to live (DSs)	6.8	56.8	45.5	.52	.48	.57	.55	0.27 (0.67)	1.29 (1.21)	-9.25***
167. Feelings of worthlessness (SE) (DSs)	9.1	75.7	49.4	.62	.64	.67	.81	0.36 (0.64)	1.95 (1.00)	-12.27***
290. Excessive guilt	13.6	73.0	41.8	.53	.49	.51	.51	0.52 (0.76)	1.70 (0.97)	-12.33***
265. Feelings of loneliness	12.5	67.6	55.2	.50	.55	.72	.76	0.44 (0.77)	1.89 (1.10)	-9.24***
134. Loss of energy (DSs, F3)	16.5	94.6	66.9	.65	.65	.83	.81	0.63 (0.78)	2.35 (0.75)	-12.18***
79. Fatigue ('no reason why') (F3)	16.5	94.6	65.6	.65	.65	.82	.79	0.65 (0.85)	2.49 (0.69)	-9.02***
1. Fatigue (feel tired sooner than usually) (F3)	21.6	91.9	62.3	.56	.58	.84	.78	0.72 (0.93)	2.41 (0.72)	-8.47***
188. Fatigue & loss of energy (F3)	13.1	78.4	56.5	.58	.58	.78	.78	0.54 (0.76)	2.08 (1.04)	-7.66***
133. Diminished ability to concentrate (DSs)	10.2	78.4	54.5	.62	.60	.65	.72	0.41 (0.70)	1.86 (0.92)	-10.82***
62. 'Slow mode of thinking' (DSs, F2)	13.6	78.4	55.8	.57	.60	.68	.75	0.52 (0.77)	2.08 (0.92)	-10.78***
122. Psychomotor retardation (DSs, F2)	11.9	75.7	48.1	.57	.59	.59	.73	0.43 (0.78)	2.00 (1.03)	-10.53***
281. Absent-mindedness (F2)	14.2	73.0	51.9	.52	.51	.56	.62	0.61 (0.78)	1.89 (0.94)	-8.70***
288. Diminished cognitive function (F2)	4.0	73.0	48.7	.71	.63	.53	.70	0.34 (0.59)	1.78 (0.98)	-8.67***
307. Problems with memory (F2)	11.4	86.5	57.1	.66	.62	.73	.78	0.55 (0.74)	2.11 (0.84)	-11.40***
119. Sleep problems (F1)	25.6	64.9	46.8	.32	.39	.58	.56	0.76 (0.92)	1.81 (1.18)	-5.15***
50. Insomnia (DSs, F1)	21.6	59.5	43.5	.32	.40	.58	.56	0.64 (0.88)	1.70 (1.15)	-5.29***

Note. *f*<sub>1</sub>, *f*<sub>2</sub>, *f*<sub>3</sub>% = relative frequency of positive answers (in dichotomized scoring format);  $\phi$  = phi coefficient – a correlation between an item (in dichotomized scoring format) and criterion ('0' – sample C, '1' – sample P1); *r* = a correlation between an item and criterion (full range answer format); *D* = discrimination index (dichotomized scoring format); CITC = corrected item-total correlation; *M* = reaction index. \*\*\**p* < .001. DSs = Short Depression scale for LCPI; F1 = LCPI scale Sleep problems; F2 = LCPI scale Energy level; F3 = LCPI scale Psychomotor retardation and diminished cognitive function; SE = LCPI scale Self-esteem; PTSD = LCPI scale Posttraumatic stress disorder; STRS = LCPI scale Stress symptoms.



**Table 4 Diagnostic Efficiency Statistics of the Depression scale (DS) and Short Depression scale (DSs) for LCPI for Different Cut-offs Using the Samples P1 and C**

Cut-off score	Sensitivity	Specificity	PPV	NPV	LR+	LR-	Base Rate Estimates									
							0.05		0.10		0.15		0.20		0.25	
							PPP	NPP	PPP	NPP	PPP	NPP	PPP	NPP	PPP	NPP
<b>Raw score of Depression scale (DS) for LCPI</b>																
DP ≥ 24	0.95	0.89	0.64	0.99	8.64	17.80	0.31	1.00	0.49	0.99	0.60	0.99	0.68	0.99	0.74	0.98
<b>DP ≥ 26</b>	0.95	0.91	0.69	0.99	10.56	18.20	0.36	1.00	0.54	0.99	0.65	0.99	0.73	0.99	0.78	0.98
DP ≥ 28	0.92	0.92	0.71	0.98	11.50	11.50	0.38	1.00	0.56	0.99	0.67	0.98	0.74	0.98	0.79	0.97
<b>Raw score of Short Depression scale (DSs) for LCPI</b>																
DPs ≥ 10	0.97	0.84	0.56	0.99	6.06	28.00	0.24	1.00	0.40	1.00	0.52	0.99	0.60	0.99	0.67	0.99
DPs ≥ 11	0.95	0.86	0.59	0.99	6.79	17.20	0.26	1.00	0.43	0.99	0.54	0.99	0.63	0.99	0.69	0.98
<b>DPs ≥ 12</b>	0.92	0.89	0.63	0.98	8.36	11.13	0.31	1.00	0.48	0.99	0.60	0.98	0.68	0.98	0.74	0.97
DPs ≥ 13	0.89	0.91	0.67	0.98	9.89	8.27	0.34	0.99	0.52	0.99	0.64	0.98	0.71	0.97	0.77	0.96
DPs ≥ 14	0.86	0.91	0.67	0.97	9.56	6.50	0.33	0.99	0.51	0.98	0.63	0.97	0.70	0.96	0.76	0.95

Notes. Area under ROC curve (AUC) for DS scale = 0.969 (0.948 – 0.990) and for DSs scale = 0.963 (0.945 – 0.991) (figures in parenthesis indicate 95% confidence limits, asymptotic tests, under non-parametric assumptions). PPV = positive predictive value (Streiner, 2003, Formula No. 5, p. 212); NPV = negative predictive value (Streiner, 2003, formula No. 6, p. 212); LR+ = Likelihood ratio for positive tests (Sensitivity/(1-Specificity)) (Streiner, 2003, formula No. 3, p. 211); LR- = Likelihood ratio for negative test (Specificity/(1-Sensitivity)) (Streiner, 2003, formula No. 4, p. 211); PPP = positive predictive power (value) corrected for the prevalence or base rate of the condition in the population being tested (Streiner, 2003, formula No. 15, p. 213); NPP = negative predictive power (value) corrected for the prevalence or base rate of the condition in the population being tested (Streiner, 2003, formula No. 17, p. 213). Sample P1 = patients with F32 - F33 diagnosis (based on ICD-10) (n = 37). Sample C = non-clinical randomised community sample (n = 176).

While for determined optimal cut-off sensitivity in this study of DS was 95% and specificity 91%, while for DSs sensitivity was 92% and specificity 89%. In comparison sensitivity of PHQ-9 Latvian language version was only 74.7% and specificity 84.0%, correctly classifying 83.2% patients (Rancans et al, 2016).

Sensitivity, specificity, and the LR are generally seen as fixed properties of the test. That is, as long as the test is used with similar groups of people, these attributes should not change. However, if the test is used with people who have different amounts of the trait in question, then sensitivity and specificity will have to be recalculated; for example, a test validated on inpatients with mild or severe depression will likely have different properties when used with outpatients with dysthymia. So in future, it would be necessary to test diagnostic efficiency of DS and DSs in outpatient sample with dysthymia, as well as to test relative test performance (both on scale and on item-level) among different gender, age, and physical chronic illness groups, and separately for inpatients with mild, moderate and severe depression. Future studies should test whether the DS/DSs is effective

instrument for screening of depression in different contexts (e.g. educational, occupational, forensic) and is it effective tool for monitoring changes in severity of symptoms of depression during the course of treatment.

The main limitation of DS and even of DSs scale as an instrument for screening of depression is that these are no ‘independent’ scale, but are made up of items spread among other items of LCPI, which is rather long ( $k = 322$  – full version and  $k = 220$  – short version), so it could be difficult for patients with depression and for seniors to retain concentration and motivation and to fill-in this inventory completely and in consistent manner. So, for targeted screening of depressive disorder special screening instruments (e.g. PHQ-9) would be more appropriate.

The main limitations of this study are (1) small sample size both for inpatient with GDD group and for community sample group; (2) semi-representative sample of community population randomly selected from the non-clinical subsample of test development sample, and (3) no additional criterion was used for the control of severity of depression symptoms in community sample. Given this, it remain possible that the subjects who were included as ‘controls’ might have been GDD-positive in reality. It could be possible, especially considering their proportion in sample C, which is 9.1% both of DS and for DSs (based on DS score  $\geq 26$ , and DSs score  $\geq 12$ ), which corresponds reasonably well to the prevalence rate of depressive disorder estimated in general population of Latvia and in primary care settings (Rancans et al., 2014; Rancans, Vrublevska, Kivite, et al., 2016; Vrublevska et al, 2017).

Next limitation of this study is that no additional criterion, accept diagnosis based on medical records, was used in inpatient sample. On the other hand, partially verification bias was avoided in the present study because diagnosis of major depression on all the subjects from psychiatric inpatient sample was made irrespective of the results of the DS screening test. Nonetheless, the positive predictive value was high (69% for DS and 63% for DSs).

In future validation studies of DS and DSs for LCPI it would be useful to analyse different characteristics of true versus false positives (based on cut-off scores of DS/DSs scale), for example, it was shown in other studies that false positives show higher rates of anxiety symptomatology, previous depressive episodes, somatic complains, alcohol and nicotine consumption (e.g. Haringsma, Engels, Beekman, & Spinhoven, 2004).

## **Conclusions**

DS and DSs of LCPI is proved to have good criterion validity in detecting depression while using LCPI for the overall psychological assessment, and to be a reliable and valid instrument for assessment of depression symptoms in patients

with depression and in general population. Subjects scoring  $\geq 26$  points on DS or  $\geq 12$  on DSs constitute a target group for further diagnostic assessment in order to determine appropriate treatment.

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# LONG-DISTANCE TRUCK DRIVERS COPING STRATEGIES AND HARDINESS: SELF-ASSESSMENT PROCEDURE AND IMPLICIT ASSOCIATION TEST

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**Abstract.** *The activity efficiency of long-distance truck drivers is determined not only by professional knowledge and skills, but also the psychological features, such as hardiness and coping strategies to cope with stress. The relationship between coping strategies and hardiness measured with implicit methods has not been studied enough. The research aim is to study the relationship of hardiness measured by the Implicit Association Test (IAT) and self-assessment procedures with coping strategies among long-distance truck drivers. Research questions focused on the study of this relationship. Participants: 40 males, long-distance truck drivers, M=29.6, SD=6.9 years. Implicit method: Four experimental procedures of the IAT on the basis of two-categories were developed (IAT1 - Commitment, IAT2 - Control, IAT3 - Challenge, IAT4 - Hardiness). Explicit methods: „Dispositional Resilience Scale, DRS-15” (Bartone), Strategic Approach to the Coping Scale (Hobfoll). Positive and negative implicit effects for assessments of Hardiness, Control and Challenge were revealed. The greatest number of negative effects found in Challenge. The regression equation for the dependent variable Hardiness (implicit) contains predictors Control and Commitment, measured by the IAT. There is a difference in the relationship between coping strategies and implicitly and explicitly measured hardiness and its components.*

**Keywords:** *hardiness, strategies of coping behavior, explicit and implicit measures, implicit association test, long-distance truck drivers.*

## **Introduction**

Efficacy of drivers' activities is determined not only by professionally important knowledge, skills and abilities, but also by such an important characteristic as hardiness. Professional activities of long-distance truck drivers are associated with the constant risk and overcoming stress. Hardiness acts as a personal resource, increases the level of adaptive capacity and also affects the choice of efficient coping strategies in difficult life situations

Various researchers reveal different facets of a complex personality construct of hardiness. Hardiness is regarded as a pattern of attitudes, skills, and abilities which constitutes courage (Maddi, 2013), the ability not to lose health and self-possession under pressure of stressful situations (Bartone, Roland, Picano, & Williams, 2008), as a way for the formation of psychological stability (Bartone, 2006, Bonanno, 2004, Maddi, 2005). Hardiness includes three main components: commitment, control, and challenge (Maddi, 2013). Commitment, as a component of hardiness, is an important characteristic of the personality, which is formed in the course of person's interaction with the environment, motivates a person to self-realization, leadership, healthy way of thinking and behavior. Control, as a component of hardiness, is expressed in ability to control the activities and ongoing events; it manifests itself in the active search for ways to influence on stress factors, as opposed to helplessness and passivity. The presence of this ability motivates a person to transform all the stress from potential disasters into the possibilities of personal growth. It is the aspiration for action, for fight, that allows you to influence on outcome of ongoing events, despite the fact that this influence might be not absolute, and success is not guaranteed. Challenge determines the openness and receptivity of a person to changes, which happening in his/her life, which are seen as opportunities (as opposed to fear of changes). If a person is able to perceive life situations as a challenge, he or she achieves a sense of satisfaction, using stress as an opportunity for development. Such people believe that it is possible to learn on mistakes as well as on the achievements (Maddi, 2013, Shaplavska & Plotka, 2014).

In Latvia for several years the studies of hardiness using self-assessment procedures on samples of students, medical workers and rescue workers have been conducted. The studies showed the association between hardiness with a variety of psychological variables: coping strategies, tolerance for ambiguity, achievement motivation and life-meaning orientations. It was found that with the increase in hardiness the participants demonstrate active prosocial coping, using such strategies as seeking social support, social joining and assertive action. With the decrease of hardiness - passive strategies: avoidance and cautious action. Also, they found negative correlation of hardiness and its individual components with coping strategies: aggressive actions (Shaplavska & Plotka, 2011; Shaplavska &

Plotka, 2012). Research results of numerous studies show that the hardiness is associated with successful coping in stressful situations and helps to preserve the physical and mental health (e.g. Contrada, 1989; Kobasa, Maddi, & Kahn, 1982; Wiebe, 1991; Bartone, 2000; Britt, Adler, & Bartone, 2001; Kelly, Matthews, & Bartone, 2005; Grote, Weichbrodt, Günter, Zala-Mezö, & Künzle, 2009; Bartone, Kelly, & Matthews, 2013; Delahaija, Gaillard, & van Damb, 2010; Sandvik, Bartone, Hystad, Phillips, Thayer, & Johnsen, 2013) and others.

According to modern research, both the attitudes towards driving and the personal factors are important predictors of risky driving (Taubman-Ben-Ari & Yehiel, 2012; Ucho, Terwase, & Ucho, 2016; Fernandes & Hatfield, 2006; Stephens, 2011; etc.).

The literature devoted to the study of attitudes towards driving and driver behavior, analyzes personality characteristics such as aggression, anxiety, extraversion, neuroticism, impulsiveness, sensation seeking, locus of control, and others, as well as attitudes and beliefs. As the most important traits that affect driving, the majority of scientists allocate: aggressiveness (Silberman, 2014; Oltedal & Rundmo, 2006; Ulleberg & Rundmo, 2003), impulsiveness and sensation seeking (Amirfakhraei, Taghinejad, & Sadeghifar, 2013; Dahlen, Martin, Ragan, & Kuhlman, 2005), extroversion, (Lajunen, 2001; Benfield, Szlemko, & Bell, 2007; Clarke & Robertson, 2005; Renner & Anderle, 2000), neuroticism (Jovanovic, Lipovac, Stanojevic, & Stanojevic, 2011; Oltedal & Rundmo, 2006), depression (Hubicka, Kallmen, Hiltunen, & Bergman, 2010), anxiety (Scott-Parker, Watson, King, & Hyde, 2013) and some others. According to N. Sumer (2003), the severity of this personality characteristic is directly related to the frequency of involvement in traffic accidents.

A number of studies demonstrate the importance of examining the relationship between personality traits and attitudes of drivers (Yagil, 2001; Fernandes et al., 2006; Ulleberg & Rundmo, 2002; Scott-Parker et al., 2012).

As the researchers note, the absence of a direct effect of personality traits on risky behavior behind the wheel shows that personality traits have an indirect impact on behavior through their influence on attitudes. That is, the personality traits primarily affect the worldview determinants (attitudes) which in turn cause the intentions and future behavior of drivers (Ulleberg & Rundmo, 2002). The analysis of the researches has shown the lack of studies using a construct such as the hardiness among the drivers. It was found, that this construct is researched mainly by explicit measurements. But there is still a shortage of researches of hardiness using implicit measures. Implicit measurements are defined as unconscious, automatic and indirect, and explicit measurements are defined as conscious, controlled and direct (Petty, Fazio, & Brinol, 2009).

There are few papers on the study of hardiness with the Implicit Association Test (IAT) on samples of the participants whose professions are related to the risk

(militaries, security guards, athletes) (Plotka, Shaplavska, Blumenau, Igonin, & Kunavin, 2013; Shaplavska & Plotka, 2014; Plotka, Shaplavska, Blumenau, & Gajevska, 2015).

The **research aim** is to study the relationship of hardiness measured by the IAT and self-assessment procedures with coping strategies among long-distance truck drivers.

**Research questions:**

1. Are there differences between effects of implicit preferences for hardiness and its components, measured with IAT?
2. Are there differences between effects of explicit measured hardiness and its components?
3. How are implicitly measured preferences of hardiness and its components related to each other?
4. What is the contribution to implicitly estimated hardiness of its implicitly estimated components: commitment, control, challenge?
5. How are explicitly measured hardiness and its components related to each other?
6. How are explicitly and implicitly measured hardiness and its components related to each other?
7. How are implicitly and explicitly measured hardiness and its components related to coping strategies?

## **Method**

**Participants** - 40 males living in Latvia, whose profession is long-distance truck drivers, aged 21-50 years ( $M=28.6$ ,  $SD=6.9$  years,  $Mdn=27$  years) work experience 1-21 years, ( $M=6.9$ ,  $SD=4.8$  years,  $Mdn=6$  years).

**Explicit measures**

**„Dispositional Resilience Scale, DRS-15”** (Bartone, Eid, Hystad, Johnsen, & Laberg, 2008). To measure hardiness (Hardiness - Resilience), the research used the „Dispositional Resilience Scale (DRS-15)” by P. Bartone, which includes five characteristics of each hardiness component: commitment, control and challenge (Bartone et. al., 2008). The subscale of commitment determines how active the person is committed to life (as opposed to non-commitment) allows a person to feel important and valuable enough to be fully included in the decision of life tasks, despite the presence of stressful situations. The control determines the extent to which a person can influence on what is happening (as opposed to a sense of powerlessness). The challenge defines openness and sensitivity to changes in your life that are seen as opportunities for personal growth (as opposed to fear of changes). Overall hardiness (Hardiness -



Resilience) is calculated as the sum of all three subscales of the questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha was not sufficiently high:  $\alpha=.700$ .

«**Strategic Approach to the Coping Scale**» (SACS) (Situational Form) by Hobfoll (1998). The questionnaire contains 9 models (scales) of coping behavior: assertive actions (active strategy); avoidance (passive strategy); seeking social support (prosocial strategy); cautious actions (passive strategy); social joining (prosocial strategy); instinctive actions (direct strategy); aggressive actions (antisocial strategy); antisocial actions (antisocial strategy); indirect actions (indirect strategy).

“Assertive actions” is the ability to be independent from external influences and evaluations of others, confidence in one's actions, honesty, integrity, self-esteem and respect for others.

“Avoidance” is mental aspirations and behavioural efforts aimed at avoiding the problem rather than to achieve success.

“Seeking social support” is reflected in an attempt to rely on others in getting emotional and real support, advice.

“Cautious actions” are defined both as a sign of weakness, and the need to avoid being tactless, and demonstrates a desire to understand others and to act so that the interactive group has supported and would not move away.

“Social joining” are the action in accordance with the group.

“Instinctive actions” are actions without sufficient conscious control, under the influence of external circumstances or because of emotional distress.

“Aggressive actions” occur in a critical attitude to the environment, involve direct „storm” of problems and are aimed at gaining control over the situation, rather than harm.

“Antisocial actions” are actions performed in order to hurt someone or express in indifference, obtaining benefits through the use of „weak points” of other people to take a better position.

“Indirect (manipulative) actions” meant to hide one's true intentions.

Cronbach's alpha was not sufficiently high:  $\alpha=.748$ .

### **Implicit measures:**

Modified versions of Two-Category Implicit Association Tests (TC-IAT): IAT1 (Commitment), IAT2 (Control), IAT3 (Challenge), IAT4 (Hardiness) developed on the basis of IAT (Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998). For each procedure the appropriate categories and attributes were identified. The target attributes of IATs - the words of Schlosberg Scale (Schlosberg, 1952) with a strong affective meaning (positive or negative) were used. “Unpleasant” attributes: anger, disgust, contempt, evil, hatred. “Pleasant” attributes: peace, luck, love, joy, happiness. For correct selection of categories for measuring hardiness and its components, the authors relied on the theoretical approaches of “DRS-15” (Barton, 1998) was taken into consideration. For each IAT the

appropriate target categories have been identified. As target categories the authors used verbal stimuli representing a pattern of behavioral characteristics, determined by personality traits, its intentional and motivational characteristics, semantically associated with hardiness and its components. Target categories for each of the four IAT - „A Category” and their opposites „B Category” are shown in Table 1. These verbal stimuli prime appropriate cognitive-behavioral structures. For example, a person „directly” evaluates not the commitment, but the words - behavioral markers that correspond to his/her behavior, intentions and motivation. These words are associated with items of the DRS-15 questionnaire by Bartone. The IAT diagram is shown in Table 2.

As a result of IAT the *D*-scores (effect size) for implicitly measured variable “A - B implicit associations” were calculated (Rudman, 2011):

$$D = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{M_6 - M_3}{SD_{36}} + \frac{M_7 - M_4}{SD_{47}} \right), \quad (1)$$

where  $M_i$  is the mean of reaction time (RT) in block “*i*”,  $SD_{ik}$  – is combined standard deviation for blocks “*i*” and “*k*”.

All trials with  $RT < 300$  ms and  $RT > 10000$  ms were deleted (Rudman, 2011).

The *D*-statistic is an effect size, based on each person’s variance in response latencies. If  $|D| \leq 0.15$  - no effect, if  $0.15 < |D| \leq 0.35$  – p, if  $0.35 < |D| < 0.60$  - medium effect size, if  $|D| \geq 0.60$  – large effect size.

The positive values of *D* show the preference of A, the negative values – preference of B (see Table 1).

**Table 1 Target categories in four the IATs – two sets of words of „A Categories” and their opposites „B Categories” for each IAT**

<b>IAT</b>	<b>A Categories</b>	<b>B Categories</b>
IAT1 - Commitment	Commitment, Consciousness, Inclusion, Life richness, Interest	Isolation, Detachment, Meaningless Life monotony, Boredom
IAT2 – Control	To act, To overcome, To manage, To influence, To determine	To wait, To concede, To succumb, To go with the flow, To depend on circumstances
IAT3 – Challenge	Dynamism, Changes, Risk, Uncertainty, Search	Stability, Consistency, Trustworthiness, Safety, Stereotypeness
IAT4 – Hardiness	Consciousness, Overcoming, Persistence, Energy, Risk	Senselessness, Lack of initiative, Passivity, Avoiding the fight, Security

Table 2 **Procedures of IAT1 - Commitment, IAT2 - Control, IAT3 - Challenge, IAT4 – Hardiness**

<b>Block</b>	<b>Trials</b>	<b>Function</b>	<b>Left-key response „Q”</b>	<b>Right-key response „P”</b>
1	50	Practice	B Categories	A Categories
2	26	Practice	Unpleasant words	Pleasant words
3	50	Test	Unpleasant words + B Categories	Pleasant words + A Categories
4	50	Test	Unpleasant words + B Categories	Pleasant words + A Categories
5	50	Practice	A Categories	B Categories
6	50	Test	Unpleasant words + A Categories	Pleasant words + B Categories
7	50	Test	Unpleasant words + A Categories	Pleasant words + B Categories

**Apparatus.** Certified licensed software E-Prime 2.0 Professional ®.

**Procedure.** All the participants took part in the research voluntarily and anonymously. They were informed about the approximate duration of the experiment and filling the forms. To conduct the research a specially equipped room with good sound insulation was allocated. Research time from 10:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m. Performance of the four versions of the IAT took an average of 45 to 90 minutes. The participants were provided with necessary instructions and training procedures. At first they carried out IAT procedures and then filled in the questionnaires „DRS-15” and “SACS”. The text of instructions was written in black letters on a white background and located in the center of the monitor screen. Each sentence began with a new line. To ensure the internal validity of the experiment the key parameters were unchanged (time of presentation of the stimulus, intervals between stimuli, the number of stimuli - words, font and chromatic parameters of the background). The participants’ task was to differentiate the verbal stimuli. All target and category words were presented in lowercase letters. A stimulus word was displayed on the screen without auditory support and remained on the screen until the participant’s response. The RT for each sample was recorded. The order of stimulus presentation was set by the program accidentally. Stimuli were presented in the center of the screen. Each target category related to five different target attributes. After an erroneous reaction, a red cross appeared in the center of the screen. The instruction to the participants reported that the red cross means the erroneous reaction. Each study participant took four version of the experimental IAT procedure. The order of the experimental procedures was set to each participant individually and marked in his/her card, for example, to the participant No. 1 - (1, 2, 3, 4), to the participant No. 2 - (4, 1, 2, 3).

## Results

### Explicit measured variables

Variables B (COMMITMENT), B (CONTROL), B (CHALLENGE), B (HARDINESS) were measured with DRS-15 (Bartone et. al., 2008).

Variables Assertive Actions, Avoidance, Seeking Social Support, Cautious Actions, Social Joining, Aggressive Actions, Antisocial Actions, Instinctive Actions, Indirect Actions were measured with SACS by Hobfoll (1998).

### Implicit measured variables

Using the IAT, we measure variables constructed with the help of stimuli, semantically related to hardiness and its components (DRS-15). They express implicit preferences of the stimuli set forming A Category (positive effect) or B Category (negative effect) (Table 1) for each of the four IAT. They may be viewed as implicit preferences of certain properties „COMMITMENT - NON-COMMITMENT”, „CONTROL - NON-CONTROL”, „CHALLENGE - NON-CHALLENGE”, „HARDINESS - NON-HARDINESS”. Quantitatively, these variables are expressed as D-scores, according to the expression (1). They are designated as D (COMMITMENT), D (CONTROL), D (CHALLENGE), D (HARDINESS).

### Statistical methods

With research of descriptive statistics, extreme values of variables and compliance of data distribution with normal distribution it was found that all variables can be researched by methods of parametric statistics, using *t*-tests for means, Pearson's correlation coefficients and Multiple Regression Analysis.

*To answer the first research question*, the research of implicit preferences, expressed in D-scores was conducted. The D-scores is an effect size, based on each person's variance in response latencies. We viewed the division of D-scores into three intervals. If  $|D| \leq 0.15$  - no effect, if  $D < -0.15$  negative effect, if  $D > 0.15$  – positive effect. Both positive and negative effects were obtained (Fig. 1, Appendix A, Fig. A1-A4).

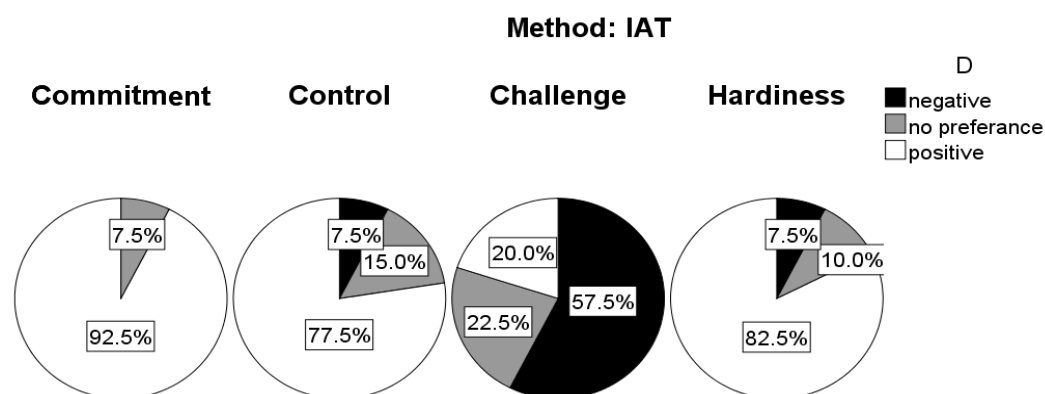


Figure 1 Percentages of sizes of the preference effect D for Hardiness and its components: Challenge, Commitment, Control, measured with IAT

With the help of Fisher's Angle Transformations Test it was found that the number of positive effects exceeds the number of negative effects for D (COMMITMENT):  $\phi^* = 11.57, p < .001$ ; for D (CONTROL):  $\phi^* = 7.15, p < .001$ ; and for D (HARDINESS):  $\phi^* = 7.71, p < .001$ . For D (CHALLENGE) the number of negative effects exceeds the number of positive effects:  $\phi^* = 3.55, p < .001$ .

**“COMMITMENT – NON-COMMITMENT”**. 92.5 % of OTR truckers have the implicit preference „Commitment, Consciousness, Inclusion, Life richness, Interest.” 0.0 % of OTR truckers have the implicit preference „Isolation, Detachment, Meaningless, Life monotony, Boredom.”

**„CONTROL - NON-CONTROL”**. 77.5 % of OTR truckers have the implicit preference „To act, To overcome, To manage, To influence, To determine. 7.5 % of OTR truckers have the implicit preference „To wait, To concede, To succumb, To go with the flow, To depend on circumstances to wait, give in, give in, go with the flow, and depend on the circumstances.”

**“CHALLENGE – NON-CHALLENGE”**. 20.0 % of OTR truckers have the implicit preference „Dynamism, Changes, Risk, Uncertainty, Search.” 57.5 % of OTR truckers have the implicit preference „Stability, Consistency, Trustworthiness, Safety, Stereotypeness.”

**“HARDINESS – NON-HARDINESS”**. 82.5 % of OTR truckers have the implicit preference „Consciousness, Overcoming, Persistence, Energy, Risk.” 7.5 % of OTR truckers have the implicit preference „Senselessness, Lack of initiative, Passivity, Avoiding the fight, Security.”

**To answer the second research question** the *t*-test for paired samples was used. It was found, that the mean of B (COMMITMENT) ( $M = 16.0, SD = 2.9$ ) exceeds the mean of B (CHALLENGE) ( $M = 12.6, SD = 3.1$ ) ( $t(39) = 5.44, p < .001$ ) and the mean of B (CONTROL) ( $M=16.3, SD=2.6$ ) exceeds the mean of B (CHALLENGE) ( $t(39) = 6.34, p < .001$ ). The differences between means of B (COMMITMENT) and B (CONTROL) were not revealed.

**To answer the third research question** the Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated. It was found, that D (COMMITMENT) is positively related with D (HARDINESS):  $r(40) = .42, p < .01$ ; D (CONTROL) is positively related with D (HARDINESS):  $r(40) = .43, p < .001$ .

**To answer the fourth research question** - to research the contribution of independent variables D (COMMITMENT), D (CONTROL), D (CHALLENGE) to the dependent variable D (HARDINESS) the multiple regression analysis was used.

Method *“Backward”*. Method's: criteria: probability-of-*F*-to-enter  $\leq .050$ , probability-of-*F*-to-remove  $\geq .101$ . The equation for estimations:

$$D \text{ (HARDINESS)}(estimate) = 0.167 + 0.332 * D \text{ (COMMITMENT)} + 0.359 * D \text{ (CONTROL)}.$$

The impact of each independent variable defines by “Beta-coefficients” ( $\beta$ ). The Beta coefficients are the coefficients in standardized regression equation.

The greatest impact on D (HARDINESS) is made by the variable D (CONTROL) ( $\beta_1 = .415, p < .01$ ) then, by D (COMMITMENT) ( $\beta_2 = .318, p < .05$ ).

$R$ -Square = .337 shows, that 33.7 % of variability of the dependent variable D (HARDINESS) is due to the influence of the independent variables D (CONTROL) and D (COMMITMENT). Adjusted  $R$ -square = .301. Standard error of estimate is 0.354. The result of ANOVA is:  $F(2,37) = 9.41, p < .001$ .

Method “Enter”. The equation for estimations:

$$D \text{ (HARDINESS)} (estimate) = 0.130 + 0.360 * D \text{ (COMMITMENT)} + 0.354 * D \text{ (CONTROL)} - 0.134 * D \text{ (CHALLENGE)}.$$

The greatest impact on D (HARDINESS) is made by the variable D (CONTROL) ( $\beta_1 = .409, p < .001$ ), then by D (COMMITMENT) ( $\beta_2 = -.345, p < .05$ ), then, by D (CHALLENGE) ( $\beta_3 = -.134, p = .332, ns$ ).  $R$ -Square = .355 shows, that 35.5 % of variability of the dependent variable is due to the influence of the independent variables D (S), D (COMMITMENT), D (CONTROL) and D (CHALLENGE). Adjusted  $R$ -square = .301. Standard error of estimate 0.354. The result of ANOVA is:  $F(3, 36) = 6.59; p = .001$ .

**To answer the fifth research question** the Pearson’s correlation coefficients were calculated. It was found, that B (CHALLENGE) is positively related with B (HARDINESS):  $r(40) = .678, p < .001$ ; B (CONTROL) is positively related with B (HARDINESS):  $r(40) = .700, p < .001$ ; B (COMMITMENT) is positively related with B (HARDINESS):  $r(40) = .730, p < .001$ .

**To answer the sixth research question** all the correlation coefficients between explicit and implicit measured hardiness and its components are statistically insignificant. Also the authors held Factor Analysis with two factors (Kaiser criterion), extraction method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation's method Varimax with Kaiser Normalization, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy equals to .54 (miserable), Bartlett's test of Sphericity  $\chi^2(21) = 32.63, p \leq .05$ , cumulative percent of total variance explained 48.7 %. As a result, it was found that Component 2 only describes explicit variables B (COMMITMENT), B (CONTROL), B (CHALLENGE) and the Component 1 describes only implicit variables D (COMMITMENT), D (CONTROL), D

(HARDINESS) without D (CHALLENGE) (Fig. 3). These components can be called the “Explicit hardiness factor” and “Implicit hardiness factor”.

The results of implicit and explicit measurements of hardiness and its components are independent from each other.

**Answering the seventh research question** Pearson and Spearman correlations coefficients were calculated (Appendix A, Table A1). Found statistically significant relationships are shown in Fig. 2.

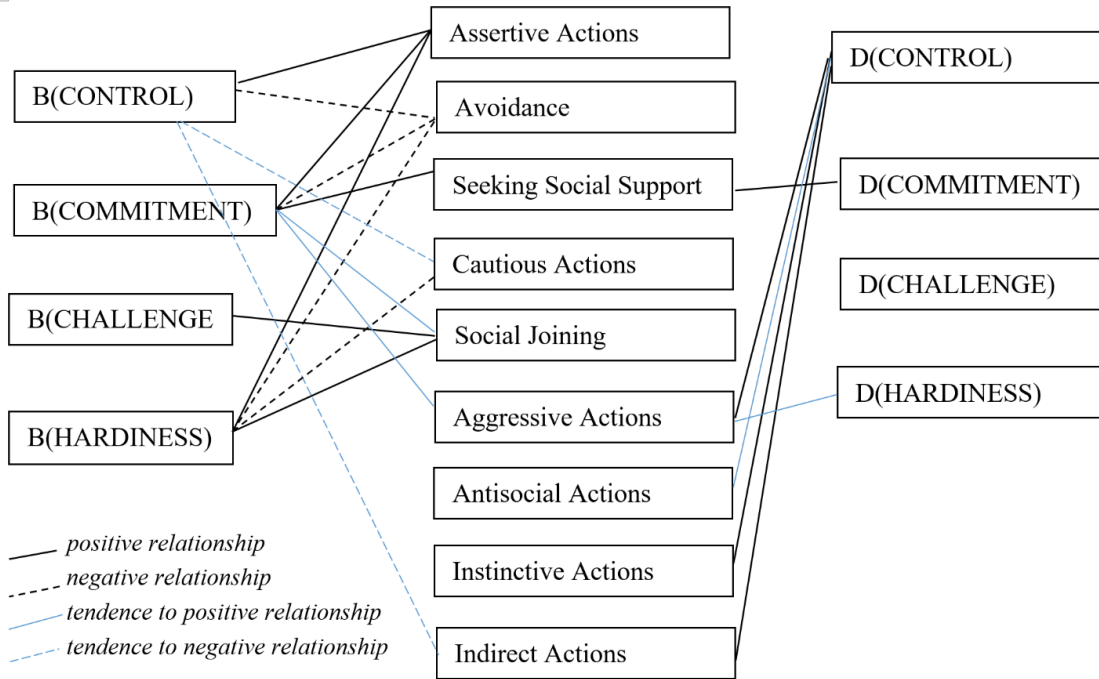


Fig.2 The relationship between coping strategies and hardiness and its components, measured using the IAT and DRS-15 (Bartone)

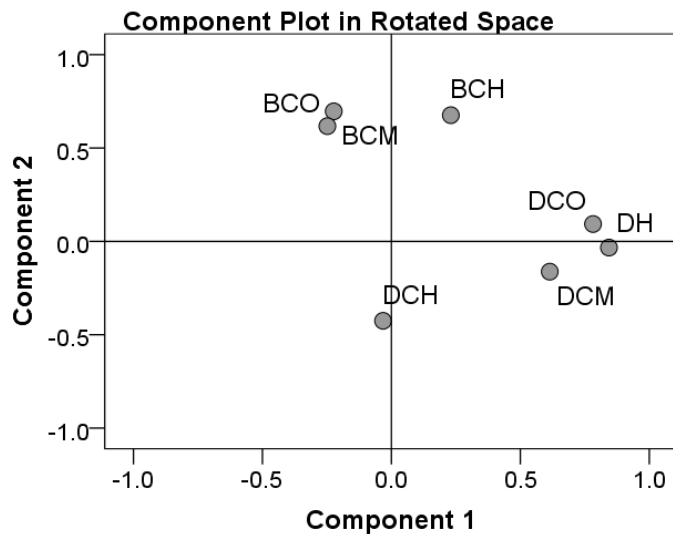


Figure 3 Component Plot in Rotated Space. Notations: B (COMMITMENT) - BCM, B (CONTROL) - BCO, B (CHALLENGE) – BCH, D (COMMITMENT -DCM, D (CONTROL) - DCO, D (CHALLENGE) - DCH, D (HARTINESS) –DH

## **Discussion and conclusions**

As a result of the research its aim was implemented and the main results are presented.

1. For the sample of long-distance truck drivers we used the four experimental procedures of the Implicit Association Test developed by the authors, designed with the help of stimuli, semantically related to hardiness and its components. These IAT allow to measure variables that can be considered as implicit preferences: „COMMITMENT - NON-COMMITMENT” („commitment, consciousness, inclusion, interest, life richness” - „isolation, detachment, meaningless life monotony, boredom”); „CONTROL - NON-CONTROL” („to act, to overcome, to manage, to influence, to determine” - „to wait, to concede, to succumb, to go with the flow, to depend on circumstances”); „CHALLENGE - NON-CHALLENGE” („dynamism, changes, risk, uncertainty and search” - „stability, consistency, trustworthiness, safety, stereotypeness”); „HARDINESS - NON-HARDINESS” („consciousness, overcoming, persistence, energy, risk” - „senselessness, lack of initiative, passivity, avoiding the fight, security”). Quantitatively, these variables are expressed in terms of D-scores IAT.

2. Long-distance truck drivers have implicit preferences: “COMMITMENT” („commitment, consciousness, inclusion, interest, life richness”) vs “NON-COMMITMENT” („isolation, detachment, meaningless life monotony, boredom”); “CONTROL” („to act, to overcome, to manage, to influence, to determine”) vs “NON-CONTROL” („to wait, to concede, to succumb, to go with the flow, to depend on circumstances”); “HARDINESS” („consciousness, overcoming, persistence, energy, risk”) vs “NON-HARDINESS” („senselessness, lack of initiative, passivity, avoiding the fight, security”) and negative implicit preference “NON-CHALLENGE” („stability, consistency, trustworthiness, safety, stereotypeness”) vs “CHALLENGE” („dynamism, changes, risk, uncertainty, search”).

The negative preference “NON-CHALLENGE” was observed on a sample of the guards (Plotka et. al., 2015). On a sample of militaries (Shaplavska & Plotka, 2014) the negative preference „NON-COMMITMENT” was observed. On a sample of football players the negative implicit preference „NON-CONTROL” (Plotka et. al., 2013) was observed.

3. The research shows that the hardiness component „CHALLENGE” is specifically manifested in long-distance truck drivers. Explicitly measured “CHALLENGE” component correlates only with the explicit measured overall “HARDINESS”, but does not correlate with explicitly measured hardiness components “CONTROL” and “COMMITMENT”. With this “CONTROL” and “COMMITMENT” positively correlate with each other. Both explicitly measured “CHALLENGE”, and implicitly measured by the IAT variable expressing



implicit preferences "CHALLENGE-NON-CHALLENGE" correlate (positively) only with "Social Joining" (among all coping strategies). According to Maddi (2013), „challenge” defines openness and receptivity of a person to the changes taking place in his/her life, which are considered as new opportunities (as opposed to fear of change). If a person is able to perceive life situations as a challenge, he/she achieves a sense of satisfaction, using stress as an opportunity for development. Such people believe that you can learn both on errors, and the achievements. Obviously, long-distance truck drivers, by virtue of their profession, should treat changes with extreme caution, to rely more on the adherence to their professional normativity, adherence to regulations, laws and rules. Implicit preferences „stability, consistency, trustworthiness, safety, stereotypeness” and „dynamism, changes, risk, uncertainty and search” in long-distance truck drivers witness to this. It is obvious that in stressful situations the best correlate to „CHALLENGE” is to join in a social contact.

4. An interesting fact was that the variable of implicit preferences CONTROL-NON-CONTROL („to act, to overcome, to manage, to influence, to determine” - „to wait, to concede, to succumb, to go with the flow, to depend on circumstances”) obtained using the IAT is positively associated with destructive coping strategies to cope with stress („Aggressive Actions”, „Instinctive Actions”, „Indirect Actions”) and tends to have positive relationship with „Antisocial Actions.”

The implicit preference „to act, to overcome, to manage, to influence, to determine” in long-distance truck drivers corresponds to the choice of behavioral strategies in stress situations associated with a critical attitude towards people around, and also with immediate „storm” of problems, and focus on gaining control over the situation (aggressive actions), actions without adequate conscious control, under the influence of external circumstances or because of emotional distress (instinctive actions), manipulatively, hiding one’s true intentions (indirect actions). These implicit preferences tend to correspond to actions taken to harm someone, or expressed in indifference, obtaining benefits through the use of „weak points” of other people in order to take a better position (aggressive driving, overtaking).

*Implicit preference „To wait, To concede, To succumb, To go with the flow, To depend on circumstances”* in long-distance truck drivers corresponds to choosing the behavioral strategies in stressful situations related to the uncritical attitude towards the environment, passive attitude to the problems, indifference to gaining control over the situation and deliberately controlled actions in the situation (the low score on the scale of „Aggressive Actions”), actions, not taking into account the influence of external circumstances, or, as opposed to emotional experiences (the low score on the scale of „Instinctive Actions”), not hiding one’s true intentions (the low score on the scale of „Indirect Actions”). These implicit

preferences in long-distance truck drivers tend to conform to acts committed without intent to harm someone, indifference to obtain benefits through the use of „weak points” of others, indifference to taking a better position (the low score on the scale of „Antisocial Activities”).

5. Explicitly measured commitment B (COMMITMENT) positively associated with “Assertive Actions” and “Seeking Social Support”. It is negatively associated with “Avoidance”. It has a tendency to positive relationship with “Social Joining” and “Aggressive Actions”.

High scores on the „Commitment” scale point the motivation to self-realization, leadership, healthy way of thinking and ability to be included in the solution of vital problems, despite the presence of stressful situations (Maddi, 2013).

High scores on the „COMMITMENT” scale corresponds to the high score on the scales of „Assertive Actions” (person's ability to be independent from external influences and evaluations of people around, assurance of one’s activities, honesty, integrity, self-respect and respect for others) and „Seeking Social Support” (attempts to rely on the others in an effort to get emotional and tangible support, advice) and the low scores on the „Avoidance” scale (mental striving and behavioral efforts to solve the challenges, to achieve success).

High scores on the „COMMITMENT” scale tend to meet high scores in social joining (actions in concert with the group) and the high scores on the „Aggressive Actions” scale (critical relation to the environment, they imply the immediate „storm” of the problems and are aimed at gaining control over the situation rather than causing harm).

6. Explicitly measured “CONTROL” is positively related to assertive actions. It is negatively associated with “Avoidance”. It has a tendency to negative correlation with “Cautious Actions” and “Indirect Actions”.

High scores on the „CONTROL” scale point the ability to control the actions and events of what is happening, to search for active ways to influence upon stressful effects, person’s motivation to turn all the stress from potential disasters into opportunities for personal growth. It is the desire for action, for fight that allows you to influence the outcome of events, despite the fact that this influence may not be absolute, and success is not guaranteed (Maddi, 2013).

High scores on the „CONTROL” scale corresponds to the high score on the scales of „Assertive Action” (person's ability to be independent from external influences and evaluations of people around, assurance of one’s activities, honesty, integrity, self-respect and respect for others) and the low scores on the „Avoidance” scale (mental striving and behavioral efforts to solve the challenges, to achieve success).

High scores on the „CONTROL” scale corresponds to the low score on the scale of „Cautious Actions” (as a sign of power and as a lack of the need to avoid

being tactless; unwillingness to understand the others and unwillingness to act in such a way that the interacting group would provide supported and would not move away) and low scores on the scale of „Indirect Action” (not to hide one’s true intentions, not to manipulate).

7. Explicitly measured “CHALLENGE” is positively related to “Social Joining”.

High scores on the „CHALLENGE” scale characterize the person’s openness and receptivity to changes taking place in his/her life, which are considered as new opportunities (as opposed to fear of change). If a person is able to perceive life situations as a challenge, he/she achieves a sense of satisfaction, using stress as an opportunity for development. Such people believe that you can learn both on errors, and on the achievements (Maddi, 2013).

High scores on the „CHALLENGE” scale (openness and receptivity to changes, which are seen as opportunities) correspond to the high score on the scale of „Social Joining” (action in concert with the group).

8. Explicitly measured “HARDINESS” is positively related to “Assertive Actions” and “Social Joining”. It is negatively related to “Avoidance” and “Cautious Actions”.

High scores on the „HARDINESS” scale correspond to the high score on the scale of „Assertive Actions” (person's ability to be independent from external influences and evaluations of people around, assurance of one’s activities, honesty, integrity, self-respect and respect for others) the high score on the scale of „Social Joining” (action in concert with the group).

Low scores on the „HARDINESS” scale correspond to the low score on the „Avoidance” scale (mental striving and behavioral efforts to solve the challenges, to achieve success) and the low scores on the scale of „Cautious Actions” (as a sign of power and as a lack of the need to avoid being tactless; unwillingness to understand the others and indifference to the support of the interacting group).

9. “COMMITMENT”, estimated using the IAT, is positively related to „Seeking Social Support,” as well as “COMMITMENT”, measured using DRS-15 (Bartone). High scores of “COMMITMENT”, estimated using the IAT, point the implicit preference of „commitment, consciousness, inclusion, interest and life richness.” They correspond in long-distance truck drivers the high score on the scale of „Seeking Social Support” (attempts to rely on the others in an effort to get emotional and tangible support, advice). Low scores of “COMMITMENT”, estimated using the IAT, point the implicit preference „isolation, detachment, meaningless life monotony, boredom”.

10. The monotonic relationship between explicitly measured variables of hardiness and its components and the corresponding implicit variables was not revealed. The application of factor analysis to explicitly and implicitly measured components of hardiness has revealed two factors, one of which is described only

with the explicit components of hardiness - commitment, control and challenge), and the other factor is described only with implicitly estimated variables „CONTROL - NON-CONTROL”, „COMMITMENT - NON-COMMITMENT”. These factors can be called the „Explicit hardiness factor” and „Implicit hardiness factor”.

11. Limitation of the research is that the research was conducted only on the sample not large enough that do not make it possible to study non-monotonic relationships and the effects of matching the results of implicit and explicit measurements associated with non-monotonicity.

12. The prospects for further research can be to attract participants of different age groups.

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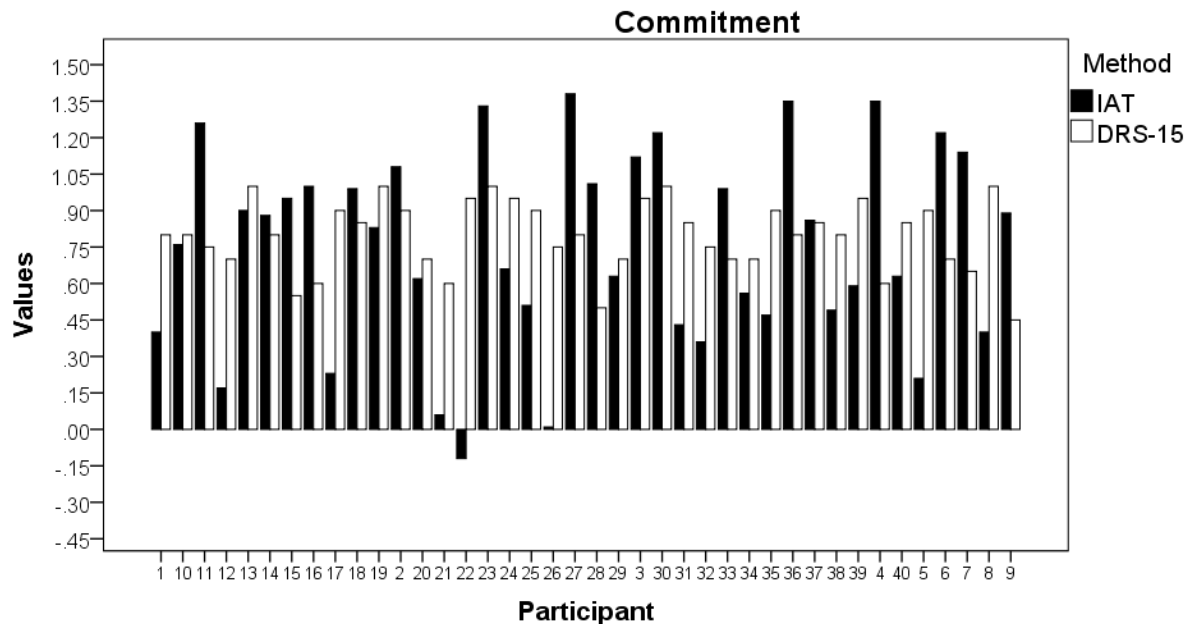
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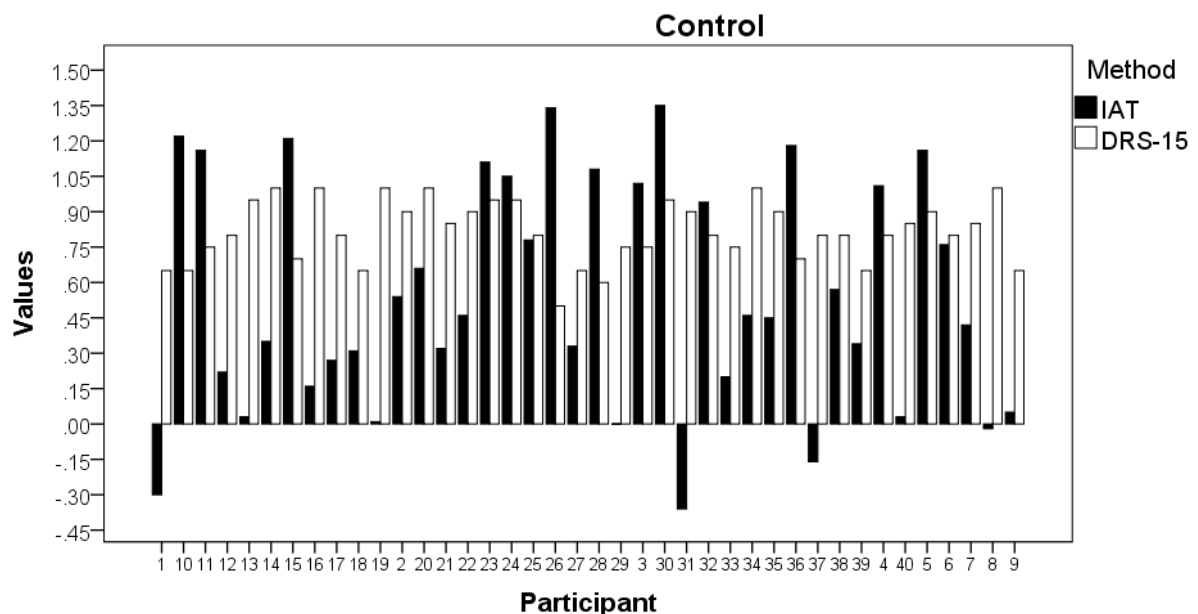
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**Appendix A**

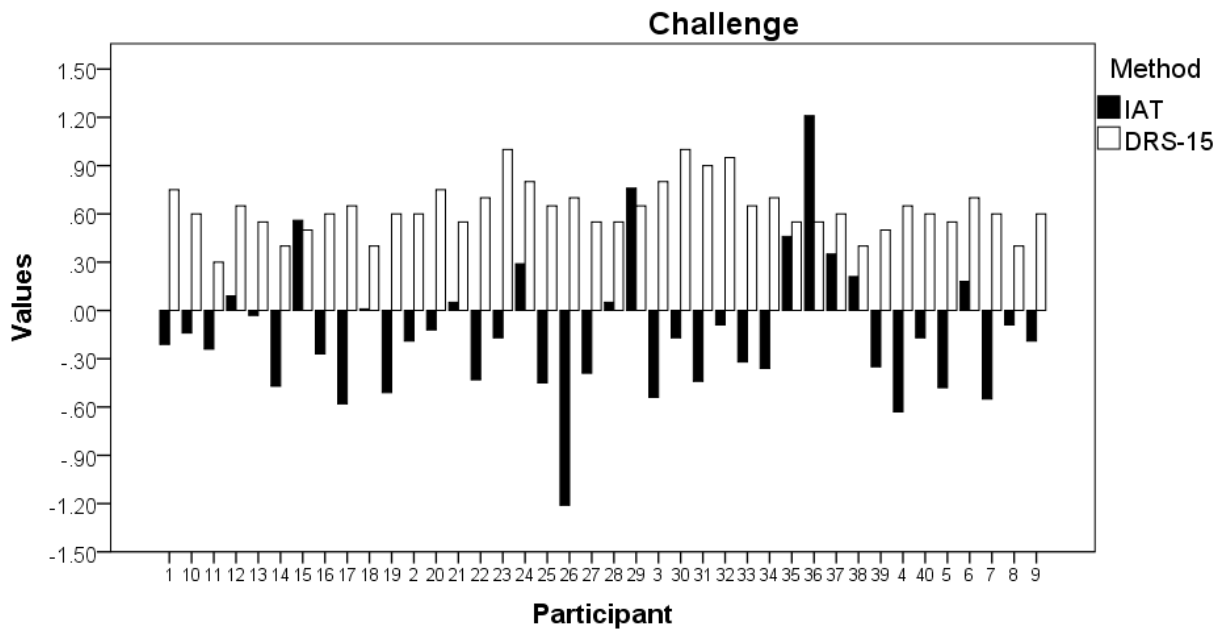


**Figure A1 Values of the variable Commitment, measured using the experimental procedure of IAT (black bars) and the P. Bartone technique (DRS-15), divided by 20 (gray bars)**

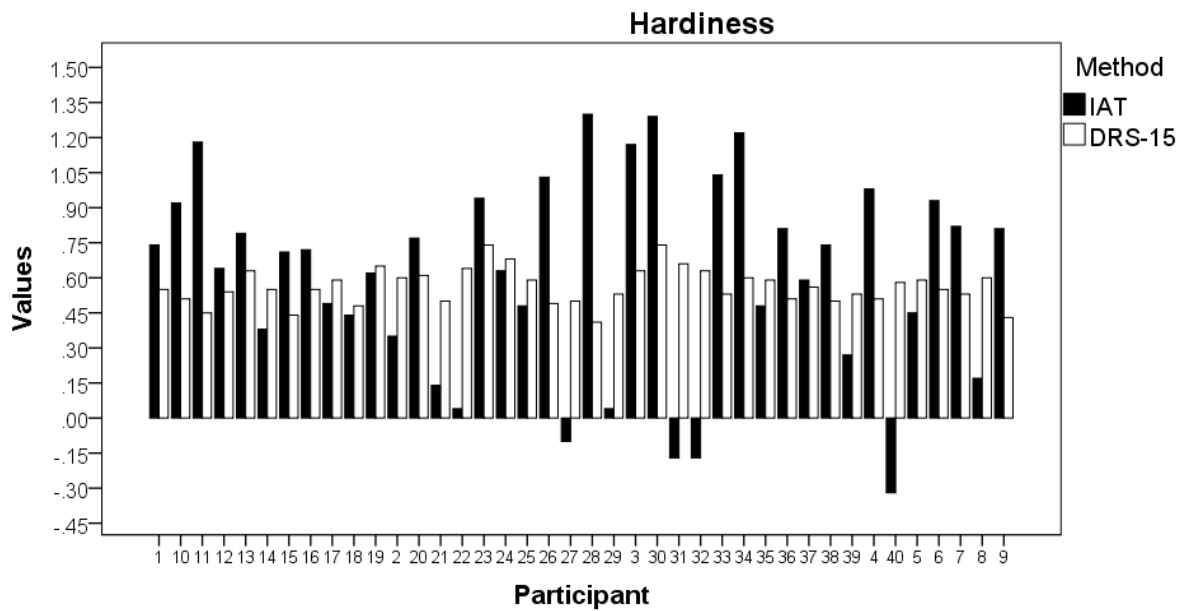


**Figure A2 Values of the variable Control, measured using the experimental procedure of IAT (black bars) and the P. Bartone technique (DRS-15), divided by 20 (gray bars)**





**Figure A3 Values of the variable Challenge, measured using the experimental procedure of IAT (black bars) and the P. Bartone technique (DRS-15), divided by 20 (gray bars)**



**Figure F4 Values of the variable Commitment, measured using the experimental procedure of IAT (black bars) and P. Bartone technique (DRS-15), divided by 80 (gray bars)**

**Table A1 Statistically significant correlation coefficients (Pearson  $r$ , Spearman,  $r_s$ ) and  $p$ -values**

<b>Variable 1</b>	<b>Variable 2</b>	<b>Correlation Coefficients Pearson <math>r</math>, Spearman, <math>r_s</math> and <math>p</math>-values</b>
B(COMMITMENT)	Assertive action	$r(40) = .37^*, p = .017 < .05$
B(COMMITMENT)	Avoidance	$r(40) = -.35^*, p = .025 < .05$
B(COMMITMENT)	Seeking social support	$r(40) = .33^*, p = .037 < .05$
B(COMMITMENT)	Social joining	$r_s(40) = .26^*, p = .101$
B(COMMITMENT)	Aggressive action	$r_s(40) = .27^*, p = .094 < .1$
B(CONTROL)	Assertive action	$r(40) = .33^*, p = .037 < .05^*$
B(CONTROL)	Avoidance	$r(40) = -.34^*, p = .035 < .05$
B(CONTROL)	Cautious action	$r(40) = .26, p = .108$
B(CONTROL)	Indirect action	$r(40) = -.26, p = .106$
B(CHALLENGE)	Social joining	$r(40) = .36^*, p = .025 < .05$
B(HARDINESS)	Assertive action	$r(40) = .33^*, p = .040 < .05$
B(HARDINESS)	Avoidance	$r(40) = -.42^{**}, p = .007 < .01$
B(HARDINESS)	Cautious action	$r_s(40) = -.32^*, p = .046 < .05$
B(HARDINESS)	Social joining	$r_s(40) = .35^*, p = .026 < .05$
D(COMMITMENT)	Seeking social support	$r(40) = .33^*, p = .040 < .05$
D(CONTROL)	Instinctive action	$r(40) = .42^{**}, p = .007 < .01$
D(CONTROL)	Aggressive action	$r(40) = .33^*, p = .041 < .05$
D(CONTROL)	Antisocial action	$r_s(40) = .30, p = .062 < .1$
D(CONTROL)	Indirect action	$r(40) = .36^*, p = .023 < .05$
D(HARDINESS)	Aggressive action	$r_s(40) = .26, p = .109$
Age	B(CONTROL)	$r(40) = -.33^*, p = .037 < .05$
Age	B(CHALLENGE)	$r(40) = -.34^*, p = .030 < .05$
Age	B(HARDINESS)	$r(40) = -.44^{**}, p = .004 < .01$
Age	Avoidance	$r(40) = .41^{**}, p = .010 < .01$
Work experience	D(CHALLENGE)	$r_s(40) = -.30, p = .064 < .1$
Work experience	Indirect action	$r_s(40) = .32, p = .044 < .05$

## ДНЕВНИК МАТЕРИ В СОВРЕМЕННОЙ СЕМЬЕ И ЕГО РОЛЬ ПРИ ФОРМИРОВАНИИ ОТНОШЕНИЯ К РЕБЕНКУ

### *Diary of a Mother in a Modern Family and Its Role in the Formation of Attitude Towards the Child*

**Valentina Romenkova**

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**Abstract.** *The study is devoted to factors of development of mother's attitude towards her child and the reflection of this attitude by keeping a diary. Keeping of mother's diary became common in privileged circles only in late 19<sup>th</sup> century. Scientists recommended it as a means of professionalization of motherhood, to improve the quality of childcare, and as an aid for pediatric control. Mother's diary was preceded by scientist diaries, which, in fact, became first scientific sources when assessing child's development.*

*Currently there are new issues affecting the relationship between mother and child. They concern the family – the environment that takes in the child and determines the direction of his development. Issues include the loss of social significance of motherhood, promotion of the “desired” child, propaganda of maternal realization in her career, having fewer children and other phenomena that did not exist before.*

*As a result of having fewer children, the expectant mother has little contact with babies before the birth of her own, she does not acquire communication experience with younger brothers or sisters, which reduces the ability to understand and accept her own children.*

*If in the relatively recent past it was possible to speak of a “natural” motherhood – rich, multi-generational experience of feeding and nurturing children, then in the so-called developed society motherhood (generalized social attitudes) is forced to rely on the experience of the new mother herself, who chooses a method to make up for the deficiencies in maternal education. Therefore, the theme of the study of mother's characteristics effect on the emotional, moral, and spiritual development is to be actively developed and topical.*

*Mother's diary is a means to improve the educational self-analysis of the mother and the reflection of her love and affection to the child.*

**Keywords:** *motherhood, mother's diary, “mother-child” relationship, child's development.*

### **Введение** **Introduction**

В настоящее время растет количество работ, посвященных взаимоотношениям матери и ребенка. Анализируются качества матери,

необходимые для создания оптимальных условий развития ребенка, как здорового, так и с проблемами в здоровье: отношение к ребенку как к субъекту, поддержка его инициатив в общении и исследовательской активности и др. (А. А. Дугева, Г. Ю. Одинокова, С. Ю. Мещерякова, Г. Филиппова, Т. И. Барановская), изучаются эмоциональное благополучие ребенка в его связи с типом материнского отношения и стилем материнско-детского взаимодействия (Ю. А. Бортникова, Н. А. Хаймовская, Н. Н. Авдеева), особенности развития отношения «взрослый - ребенок» в специальных учреждениях и детских домах.

Влияние взрослого на развитие ребенка традиционно активно изучается в современной отечественной психологии. Между тем феномен отношения, механизм его возникновения и усвоения, рассматриваемый в рамках деятельностного подхода, нельзя считать раскрытым. Возможно, сам подход нерелевантный изучаемому явлению.

Так, отношение никак нельзя свести к деятельности или действию. Отношение, по мнению Е. О. Смирновой, а) не имеет цели и не может быть произвольным, б) не является процессом и, следовательно, не имеет пространственно-временной развертки; оно скорее есть состояние, а не процесс, в) не имеет культурно-нормированных внешних средств осуществления и, следовательно, не может быть представлено и усвоено в обобщенной форме; оно всегда предельно индивидуально и конкретно.

Кроме того, содержание отношения далеко не всегда осознается субъектом, в то время как объект этого отношения обязательно должен для него существовать.

Отношение матери к ребенку, по мнению ученого, существует еще до его рождения и активно реализуется в первые месяцы жизни (Смирнова, 1994).

Г. Г. Филиппова, определяя материнство как обеспечение условий для развития ребенка, считая его обобщенными социальными установками, полагает, что потребность женщины быть матерью не означает безусловного наличия положительного отношения к ребенку. На это отношение оказывают влияние многие общественные нормы и ценности. Это связано с тем, что материнство – это только одна из женских ролей (Филиппова, 2000).

**Целью исследования** было выявление особенностей формирования отношения матери к ребенку на ранних этапах онтогенеза при анализе дневника матери.

**Гипотеза исследования** состояла в предположении, что в дневниках матери отражено ее отношение к ребенку, и что само ведение дневника способствует развитию рефлексии.

**Выборка.** В исследовании приняли участие 61 женщина в возрасте от 18 до 51 года, которые в период ухода за ребенком вели дневник матери. У 21 из них в период исследования были младенцы в возрасте от 1 месяца до 1 года.

Исследование проводилось силами педагогов и студентов Рижской академии педагогики и управления образованием в 2013-2016 г. г.

**Материалы и методы** включают теоретический анализ литературы, психолингвистический анализ текста, анализ полученных данных.

В **результате** анализа содержания и характера дневников была определена его роль в формировании отношения к ребенку.

### **Постановка проблемы** **Definition of problem**

В настоящее время феномен рефлексии активно изучается. Рефлексия является необходимым механизмом познания, общения, формирования самосознания. А.В.Карпов (2004) считает рефлексией единой психологической реальностью и при познании внутреннего мира и при познании внешнего, в т. ч. «субъективного мира других». Данное единство, по мнению автора, осуществляется в рефлексивном действии (Карпов, 2004).

Е.В.Пискунова (2005) выделила два подхода в трактовке рефлексивных процессов: 1) рефлексивный анализ сознания, ведущий к разъяснению значений объектов, и их конструирование; 2) рефлексия как понимание смысла межличностного общения.

Ф. Кортхаген (Korthagen & Kessels, 1999) рассматривает рефлексию как умственный процесс, структурирующий и реструктурирующий опыт, проблемы, существующие знания и представления, что позволяет создавать альтернативные методы действия и их апробацию. Популярным направлением в исследовании рефлексии является ее включенность в формировании саногенного мышления – стремления избегать или уменьшать страдания, вызванные негативными эмоциями и переживаниями.

Под педагогической рефлексией понимают, приобретенное в процессе деятельности, качество учителя анализировать опыт своей профессиональной деятельности, определять противоречия между ее целью и результатом, находить причины возникших в работе трудностей и новые пути взаимодействия с учениками. В контексте нашей темы осмысление матерью своего опыта при общении с ребенком способно улучшить выполнение ею своей роли. Высокий уровень рефлексии способствует достижению ребенком и матерью эмоционального благополучия (Андюбек,

2015), формирует оптимальное функционирование системы «мать-дитя» (Кузнецова, 2012).

В работе С. С. Савенышевой и В. Ф. Чижовой (Савенышева & Чижова, 2013) психологическое взаимодействие матери и ребенка изучается как двусторонний процесс, где каждый является активным партнером, что способствует развитию ребенка. При сравнении особенностей отношения матери к младенцу определена связь установок на воспитание у женщин – матерей и уровня развития малыша.

Важная роль принадлежит вербальной чувствительности (проговариванию), несамостоятельности матери, признанию авторитета родителей, а также опасениям обидеть ребенка, стремлению обеспечить его активность, равнодушию к миру ребенка и отношению к нему в общении как к равному, т.к. ей нравятся младенцы. Авторы отмечают, что женщины, младенцы которых успешно развиваются, не стремятся навязать им высокий темп овладения навыками, а принимают ребенка таким, каков он есть. Большую роль играет качество и количество материнского внимания и эмоциональная чувствительность.

По-нашему мнению, происходит иерархическая перестройка семейной системы с учетом появившегося младенца. Как видно из результатов работы указанных выше авторов, система «мать-дитя» не только создается, но и встраивается как часть в общую систему семьи. Об этом свидетельствует несамостоятельность женщины, признание авторитета родителей, зависимость от семьи. Наряду с этим, эмоциональная близость у матери с ребенком больше, чем даже с супругом; она редко ограничивает, критикует, наказывает младенца, но часто поощряет и хвалит, что позволяет создать радостный и оптимистичный мир как в диаде «мать – дитя», так и в семье в целом.

Из анализа результатов данного исследования вытекает также вывод о необходимости «большой» семьи, т.к. одна мать не сможет в полной мере обеспечить защиту диады и свободу функционирования в ней.

## **Изложение материала**

### ***Results***

Изучение особенностей отношения к ребенку происходило в несколько этапов. Сначала был сделан **анализ текстов дневников**. Выявлены были формальные показатели ведения дневников: периодичность, форма, цель и основная тематика.

(9,8 % участников вели дневник каждый день, 27,9 % - 1 раз в неделю, 14,7 %- по крайней мере 1 раз в месяц, а 47,6 % записывали событие, когда оно случилось (ребенок улыбнулся, обратил внимание на игрушку,

прислушался к звукам речи, пошел и т.д). Следует отметить, что некоторые начинали вести дневник еще до рождения младенца. Некоторые матери вели дневники весь дошкольный период, но большинство 1 – 1,5 года.

Форма ведения дневников также была очень разная: небольшие тетради, таблицы развития детей, альбомы с фотографиями и заметками, сделанные самостоятельно, компьютерные книги, надиктованные на магнитофон сообщения, видеоматериалы и фильмы, а также готовые купленные дневники. Большинство всех материалов были в виде простой тетради с рукописным текстом (50,8 %), а также напечатанных на компьютере заметок (32,8 %). Все остальные формы дневников-16, 4 %. Постепенно растет количество видеофильмов.

Тематика записей свидетельствует о большом круге интересов матерей. Это вес и рост детей, физическое развитие ребенка, большая и малая моторика рук, интеллектуальное развитие, значимые события в жизни ребенка, вещи и события, которые нравятся либо не нравятся ребенку, проблемы в семье, идеи и достижения родителей, развитие речи, общение, средства общения (сигналы).

В работе Е. Шкуратовой (Škuratova, 2015) приводятся примеры из ее опыта расшифровки сигналов, которые подает младенец. «Дитя долго смотрит в глаза, не отводя взгляда. Повторяет взгляд матери. Пытаюсь понять, что ребенок хочет. Перевожу как «хочу общаться». «Разговариваем» глазами, ребенок пытается «говорить». После этого долго спит». Сигналом прекращения общения служат слезы, крик, икота, зевание, энергичные движения руками и ногами, сжимание губ, гримасы, отведение взгляда, сердитый взгляд. Это подтверждает особую активную роль как матери, так и ребенка в процессе взаимодействия.

Матери описывали также способы вызвать у ребенка радость, изменения в характере ребенка, кризисы в развитии, формулировали свои принципы воспитания. Вот одна из записей: «Сын рассердился и бросил кружку. Пора приучать к сдержанности».

При **психолингвистическом анализе текстов дневника**, а также при опросе матерей были выявлены **главные мотивы** работы над ним. Это:

- 1) проявление хорошего, трепетного отношения к младенцу;
- 2) в надежде на пользу для ребенка (больше знать, лучше ухаживать и т.п.);
- 3) самосовершенствование;
- 4) общий взгляд в будущее (появление временной перспективы как у матери, так и у семьи в целом);
- 5) материалы пригодятся ребенку в будущем (показать, когда родится ребенок у него, сравнить с развитием других детей);
- 6) выразить счастье и положительные эмоции;

7) впустить ребенка в свою жизнь (быть вместе, “dzīve līdzi bērnam”).

Содержание текста дневников сопоставлялось с результатом наблюдений за молодыми матерями. Критериями наблюдений являлись: 1) характер взаимодействия с ребенком, 2) эмоциональные проявления матери и ребенка, 3) приемы активизации младенца со стороны матери, 4) вербальная активность взрослого.

На следующем этапе матери ранжировали названные выше утверждения. Предпочтения распределились следующим образом (среднее знач. по рангу): 1) хорошее отношение к ребенку (2,2); 2) впустить ребенка в свою жизнь (2,3); 3) выражение счастья и положительных эмоций (4,0); 4) самосовершенствование (4,64); 5) польза для ребенка (4,68); 6) послание в будущее (4,9); 7) взгляд в будущее (5,3).

Таким образом, эмоционально-смысловые компоненты деятельности матери в возникшей диаде «мать-дитя» оказались первичными, а способы деятельности соподчиненными. Настроенность на совместную с ребенком жизнь, положительное отношение к нему, возвышение до уровня ребенка определяет терпимость, мягкость, желание все объяснить, поддержать младенца обеспечивают комфортность в общении между матерью и дитем, способность увидеть важное в жизни малыша и преодолеть трудности.

При анализе текста обращает на себя внимание скромность женщины, оценка ею своих интересов как менее важных, вторичных. Так, самосовершенствование понималось в перспективе дальнейшей жизни с ребенком («Научилась водить машину, не надо ездить в общественном транспорте, там ребенку трудно», «Выучусь на педагога, чтобы быть хорошей матерью, понимать ребенка»).

Мы не обнаружили в дневниках желаний участников исследования вербализовать или каким-либо иным способом «осознавать» свои эмоции при возникновении проблем в педагогической деятельности. Возможно, это было связано с сложившимся уже, устойчивым отношением к ребенку, с новым статусом женщины в диаде. Опыт взаимодействия выдвигал иные проблемы, связанные с анализом и коррекцией собственных способов общения, активности-пассивности в контактах, адекватных методов поощрения и т.п. При целеполагании в общей деятельности мать ориентировалась на конкретные, хорошо проверяемые показатели (развеселить ребенка, предложить новые игрушки, чтобы он был активен, постараться смягчить негативные проявления, приучить к новому блюду и т.п.

Содержание текста дневников сопоставлялось с результатом наблюдений за молодыми матерями. Критериями наблюдений являлись: 1) характер взаимодействия с ребенком, 2) эмоциональные проявления



матери и ребенка, 3) приемы активизации младенца со стороны матери, 4) вербальная активность взрослого.

Результаты наблюдения показали, что деятельность матери в подавляющем большинстве случаев определяется отношением к ребенку, отрешением от себя, вниманием к каждому изменению в его поведении. В начальный период существования диады «мать-дитя» женщина руководствуется тем, как ее действия воспринимаются, служат ли они на благо ребенка. Те немногие матери, которые пытались сначала продумать модель деятельности, а потом уже действовать (3 человека из 61), испытывали значительные трудности, так как не могли предусмотреть, как младенец будет реагировать. Через некоторое время они отмечали разочарование своими качествами как матерей и меняли мнение о ребенке.

Таким образом, взаимоотношения матери и ребенка – живой процесс, определяемый готовностью женщины взять на себя ответственность за другого, действенным положительным отношением, которое развивается в процессе развития младенца.

Если рассматривать рефлексивность как целостный феномен, схема эмоциональной регуляции деятельности включает наличие а) настроения (более или менее длительные эмоциональные состояния, образующие исходный фон жизнедеятельности); б) чувства (устойчивые эмоциональные отношения к определенному предмету); и в) собственно эмоции: гнева, страха, радости и т.п. (конструирующие психическое отражение и состояние организма в соответствии с актуальными мотивами), которые неспецифичны и соответствуют деятельности вообще (Бреслав, 2004). Таким образом не тренинг эмоций определяет характер деятельности, но сложившиеся отношение, которое влияет и на характер производных эмоций.

## **Выводы** *Conclusions*

При рождении ребенка происходит иерархическая перестройка семейной системы с учетом появившегося младенца. Система «мать-дитя» не только создается, но и встраивается, как часть, в общую систему семьи. Мотивы, целеполагание, способы действия, оценки деятельности, решение проблем с момента появления ребенка касается обоих субъектов диады «мать-дитя».

Само наличие дневника матери свидетельствовало о сформировавшемся у женщины еще во время беременности в высшей степени положительном, трепетном отношении к ребенку, которое ей хочется отразить.

Важным является принятие ребенка («впустить дитя в свою жизнь», «dzīve līdzi bērnam») как неотъемлемой и ценной части своей жизни.

Большое значение ведения дневника опрашиваемые видят в его пользе для ребенка, совершенствовании себя как матери.

Дневник отражает появление с рождением ребенка временной перспективы как у самой матери, так и у семьи в целом.

У большинства матерей дневник является письмом в будущее: самому ребенку, когда он станет взрослым, его детям или самой матери.

В дневнике находит отражение сфера счастья и положительных эмоций женщины, которые она хотела бы увековечить.

Педагогическая рефлексия матери развивается благодаря сильному положительному отношению к младенцу, эмоциональной разоружённости по отношению к нему, а также благодаря распознаванию и правильной интерпретации знаков ребенка по отношению к матери. Важную роль играет высокая речевая активность в процессе взаимодействия с малышом.

Таким образом, при ведении дневника матери женщина планирует свою деятельность как ответственная за духовное, эмоциональное и физическое благополучие ребенка. Цель деятельности матери смещается с себя на обоих и определяется пользой для ребенка.

### **Summary**

Currently there is a growing number of studies devoted to the relationship between mother and child. They analyze the characteristics of the mother needed to create optimal conditions for child's development, both healthy and with health issues: attitude towards the child as a subject, support of his initiative in communication and investigative activities, etc. (A. A. Dueva, G. Y. Odinkova, S. Y. Meshcheryakova, G. Filipova, T. I. Baranovska), study the emotional wellbeing of the child in his relation to the type of maternal attitudes and styles of mother-child interaction (Y.A. Bortnikova, N. A. Haymovska, N. N. Avdeeva), special aspects of "adult-child" relationship development in special institutions and orphanages.

The impact of an adult on child's development is traditionally actively studied in modern national psychology. Meanwhile, phenomenon of relationship, mechanism of its occurrence and adoption, considered in the framework of activity approach, cannot be perceived as disclosed. Perhaps the approach itself is irrelevant for the studied phenomenon.

Thus, attitude or relationship cannot be reduced to activity or action. Attitude, according to E. O. Smirnova, a) has no purpose and cannot be arbitrary, b) is not a process, and therefore has no space-time projection: rather it's a state, not process; c) it has no external cultural-valuated means of implementation and, therefore, cannot be represented and understood in a generalized form; it is always very individual and specific.

Furthermore, the subject rarely perceives the content of the relationship, while he definitely has to be aware of the object of this relationship.

In scientist's opinion, relationship between mother and child exists even before his birth and is actively realized in the first months of his life (Smirnova, 1994).

G. G. Filipova, when defining motherhood as providing conditions for child's development, and considering it as generalized social attitudes, believes that woman's desire to become a mother does not mean unconditional presence of positive attitude towards the child. Numerous social norms and values affect this attitude. It is due to the fact that motherhood – it's only one of the roles of a woman (Filipova, 2000).

The aim of our study was to identify the characteristics of the formation of mother's attitude towards the child in the early stages of ontogenesis in the process of analyzing mother's diary.

The study was carried out by teachers and students of the Riga Teacher Training and Education Management Academy in 2010-2016.

As a result of analysis of the content and nature of diaries, the role of mother's diary in the formation of attitude towards the child was determined.

The very presence of mother's diary indicated that the woman during pregnancy had formed a highly positive and reverent attitude towards the child.

**Result.** Respondents saw that the main benefit from keeping a diary was for the baby. improvement of themselves as mothers.

The very presence of mother's diary indicated that the woman during pregnancy had formed a highly positive and reverent attitude towards the child.

Respondents saw that the main benefit from keeping a diary was for the baby and improvement of themselves as mothers.

The diary showed that with the birth of the child a time perspective emerged for the mother and the family as a whole.

For the majority of mothers, the diary was a letter to the future: to the child, when he grows up, his children or the mother herself.

The diary reflected the happiness and positive emotions of the woman, she wanted to eternalize.

Mother's educational self-analysis developed by recognizing and correctly interpreting the signs of the child in relation to his mother.

Thus, by keeping a mother's diary the woman planned her actions as the responsible figure for the spiritual, emotional and physical wellbeing of the child. The purpose of mother's activities shifted from herself to another and was beneficial for the child

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## EXPLORING 35-44 YEAR OLD MEN'S HEALTH BEHAVIOUR: A QUALITATIVE PERSPECTIVE

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**Abstract.** *Upon reaching 35-44 year of age, men experience their first health problems, often because of an unhealthy way of life e.g., smoking, physical inactivity, unhealthy nutrition habits, etc. In comparison with other age groups, these men rarely look for medical help, thus, opening themselves up to a number of potentially negative consequences e.g. health risks in future. This study explores the health behaviour of 35-44 year old men by conducting semi-structured in-depth interviews with 48 participants. The data are further analysed using inductive thematic analysis. Results indicate the presence of three main types of men's behaviour: 1) participants with positive attitude towards one's health and practice of health behaviour, 2) well-informed participants with intentions to perform health behaviour as well as excuses not to follow these intentions, 3) men with negative attitude towards one's health and lack of practice of health behaviour.*

**Keywords:** *health behaviour, men's health behaviour.*

### Introduction

Health is one of the core values for quality of life and well-being which is influenced by several elements including individual lifestyle and habits. In general, people consider health to be important; however, very often a healthy lifestyle is not lived or is postponed to a later date.

Healthy lifestyle and health-affecting habits are best characterised by health behaviour – activities undertaken by an individual that promote good health and prevent diseases (Sanderson, 2013). Health behaviour is impossible without the individual's participation; therefore, it is essential to study the factors that promote and affect health. Health behaviour mostly studied from a perspective of personality, or attitudes, while studies explaining postponing and failure to maintain health behaviour are not so common.

Nowadays, health behaviour usually means any activity undertaken in order to prevent or detect a disease, or to improve health and subjective well-being

(Conner & Norman, 1996; Conner, 2002), or any behaviour that can affect the physical health of an individual (Sutton, 2004).

Health behaviour can be sub-divided into preventive health behaviour, illness behaviour and sick-role behaviour (Kasl & Cobb, 1966a, 1966b). Preventive health behaviour includes activities undertaken by an individual in order to prevent diseases or detect them as soon as possible (Kasl & Cobb, 1966a, 1966b; Gochman, 1997). By its subject matter, this concept resembles primary prevention, for example, physical activities, non-smoking, healthy nutrition, etc., and secondary prevention, for example, immunisation, cholesterol tests, regular visits to a physician, etc.

Matarazzo (1984) defined health behaviour by dividing it into health impairing habits and health protective behaviour. Matarazzo distinguished between behaviour having negative impact (behavioural pathogens – smoking, eating a high fat diet, alcohol abuse) and behaviour that can have a positive effect (behavioural immunogens, for example, tooth brushing, using a seat belt, search of health-related information, regular health checks, appropriate night rest time) (Ogden, 2004). Most commonly, health behaviour includes a healthy diet, physical activities and preventive health checks, while health impairing behaviour includes smoking, alcohol abuse, use of illegal substances and risky sexual behaviour (Conner, 2002).

There are several models explaining how people develop health-promoting behaviour. Many of them are social cognition models which assume that people engage in preventive health behaviour after the analysis of consequences, assessment of the disease risk, self-efficacy assessment. Self-efficacy is the main determinant of preventive health behaviour, which has been proved by several researches (Schwarzer, 1992; Schwarzer & Fuchs, 1996; Werle, 2011).

Conscientiousness and neuroticism as two personality factors representing the Big Five often appear in research as health behaviour predictors. Conscientiousness has an important role in explaining and predicting both health promoting and risk behaviour. It is evident that the most conscientious and self-disciplined individuals will more eagerly and to a greater degree take care of their health, including engaging in physical activities, following a healthy diet, not smoking, alcohol abuse, undergoing preventive checks at a certain age or, being in a risk group, using a seat belt when driving, etc. In 2004, a meta-analysis of 194 studies regarding the correlation of conscientiousness and health behaviour was carried out (Bogg & Roberts, 2004) and the most important conclusion is that the characteristic features of conscientiousness (for example, responsibility, self-control) are negatively related to all risk health behaviour (for example, smoking, unhealthy diet, alcohol abuse), and positively related to all health promoting behaviour (for example, physical activities). Also, other researches have shown the same results regarding the role of conscientiousness and neuroticism.

Conscientiousness and neuroticism, by controlling the age, predict health behaviour (Hall et al., 2013). Also, other personality manifestations apart from conscientiousness and neuroticism appear in researches as important health behaviour predictors, for example, extraversion.

Health promoting behaviour can also be influenced by such individual factors as, for example, temporal orientation (Bergadaa, 1990; Werle, 2011) or future time perspective (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999; Werle, 2011). According to Bergadaa's temporal orientation construction, future-oriented people are more proactive, they search for personal development changes and opportunities, while past-oriented people are more reactive and resist to outer stimuli.

One of the groups of population to which special research attention should be paid is 35-45 year old men. At the age of 35-44 men start having first health problems, and unhealthy lifestyle, for example, symptoms caused by smoking, lack of physical activity, or alcohol, is rather common. On the other hand, according to Latvian statistical data, 35-44 year old men most rarely visit a physician for solving health-related issues (The Centre for Disease Prevention and Control, 2012, 2014). Consequently, men of this age group have the highest risk of not noticing health problems.

Men's health behaviour is studied fairly rarely and mostly is formed by quantitative research design dealing with masculinity and sexuality topics (e.g., Mahalik et al., 2007; Calasanti et al., 2013). In order to conduct a better examination of men's health behaviour experience and most common reasons why men don't take care of their health, it is important to use a qualitative study approach. The aim of the research is to study the health behaviour experience and the most important reasons for postponing health behaviour among 35-45 year old men.

## Method

*Participants.* Participants were recruited using snowball sampling and participation in this study was voluntary. 48 individual interviews were conducted among 35–44 years old men, the average age was  $M = 40.44$ ,  $SD = 3.96$ . When quoted, study participants were identified by code number and age, for example, (A15, 37).

*Data collection.* Semi-structured in-depth interviews were used for data collection. Interview questions were formulated in such a way as it would be possible to find out the participants' health behaviour experience, and the following topics were examined: taking care of health, healthy lifestyle motivators, reasons for not taking care of health, opinion concerning preventive health checks. Participants were informed about confidentiality of any information collected.

*Data analysis.* Inductive thematic analysis was used. First, repeated acquainting with each interview took place. Then, the search and definition of topics and sub-topics was performed.

## **Results and discussion**

*Health behaviour.* Health promoting behaviour of 35-44 year old men comprise the following topics: physical activities, healthy diet, avoiding bad habits – smoking and alcohol abuse, sleep and rest, preventive health checks. In connection with health behaviour also other topics have been explored: when one considers himself to be healthy, taking care of health, reasons for not taking care of health.

*Physical activities.* Majority of men assumed that taking care of health means physical activities and healthy diet. 85.1 % of the interviewed men engage in physical activities. Physical activities are various, with different intensity and regularity. Men mostly consider that physical activities mean going for a walk, jogging, orienteering, cycling, activities in a gym, skiing, swimming in a swimming pool, team sport games (football, basketball, volleyball). Many participants had an opinion that they have a sufficient physical load daily and at work, for example, activities in a household, work in a security service, or police.

*Diet.* The second most common manifestation of health promoting behaviour among the interviewed men was a healthy diet. Healthy diet was mentioned by 44.7 % of men during the interviews. Men speak both about certain products that they consider to be healthy and about their efforts to have „a healthy and correct diet” (A44, 35). Many of the respondents do not follow a healthy diet or do not pay attention to it, for example, „don't think in such [healthy diet] categories” (A22, 40), eat irregularly, unhealthy, „eat everything they like and what is tasty” (A20, 36). Several men think that a healthy diet is related to giving up something pleasant and do not want to do it, for example, they like sweets, they understand that it's not healthy, but do not want to forsake it.

*Smoking and consumption of alcohol.* 21.3 % of interviewed men were smokers. Men that smoke say that smoking is a habit, social process and helps to structure work. Several men emphasized that they enjoy smoking. There were individuals among the interviewed men who have given up smoking and those who wanted to give it up and have tried, but have not succeed. With respect to the consumption of alcohol, men avoided this topic and only 4.3 % of men mentioned alcohol. It can be explained by two factors: 1) it's not a problem and because of that there is nothing to be recalled, or 2) they do not mention it in their answers because of the social desirability. Even if any of the interviewed men abuses alcohol, it can be understood that they do not want to mention it. Probably, most



part men use alcohol, but do not abuse it, for example, alcohol does not cause any problems, they use it from time to time, do not use regularly, or do not use at all.

*Sleep and rest.* Though sleep and rest are related to health promoting behaviour and there are many studies that describe the significance of sleep or a balanced day regimen, nevertheless, only few men (14.9 %) mention it in a conversation. For example, they go to bed on time and have regular sleep, have enough rest, don't experience excess load or stress.

*Preventive health checks.* The men interviewed in the research have different experience related to preventive health checks. 27.7 % of men have to carry out mandatory health checks due to the workplace requirements and 23.4 % of men carry out health checks on their own initiative; however, it does not always include preventive checks and often these are checks related to health problems. Men, who think that health checks are not necessary, often do not take care about their health due to the lack of motivation.

Men's opinions and explanations concerning preventive health checks are various. For instance, some consider it to be „a good idea, but someday later” (A38, 39). Many men indicate that there is lack of information regarding the preventive health measures for men and they don't know which preventive measures should be taken, which doctor should be visited, what health risks are present in each age group. If it was more clearly stated which risks are present at certain age for having a certain disease, they would pay more attention to health. At the same time, many men are informed about the checks necessary for women, for example, breast cancer checks. It can be explained by the results of the informative campaigns concerning women's health and the fact that men's health is discussed by the public relatively less and not so explicitly. There are men, who have an opinion that preventive checks are necessary only in case of risk, or that these are not needed if they feel well. One of the men said that he did not see any point in health checks: „What will it change?” (A14, 44).

Many men pointed it out that there are flaws in the healthcare system, for example, mandatory health checks at workplace are formal or the general practitioner is not interested in prevention. If a general practitioner is not interested in preventive checks of patients, does not discuss such issues with patients, it reduces the probability that 35-44 year old men will choose health checks. Good cooperation experience with the general practitioner can, in its turn, promote the decision of an individual to carry out examination of his health more often. The role of a general practitioner in promoting health checks is more often mentioned by men who do not take care of their health due to the lack of motivation. Probably, „not-interested general practitioner” (A34, 41) sometimes is just an excuse and there are other explanations for not carrying out preventive health checks.

Explanations of many men can be related to perception of their age. For example, men say that they still feel good and young; therefore, they don't notice first problems and don't see the necessity of carrying out preventive checks. One of the men was thinking about preventive checks for his parents, but not himself, because it is not topical and can be done „someday later” (A38, 39). Some men note that they have been thinking about preventive checks from the age of 40. Such a symbolic age limit lets them postpone taking care of their health to a later time period.

Men, for who health promoting behaviour is a characteristic, more often show their own initiative in carrying out preventive checks. While men, who carry out mandatory health checks due to the workplace requirements, more often mention lack of time and other priorities as a reason why they don't take care of their health. Mandatory health checks are like a compulsive mechanism, though many men point out its usefulness, if it weren't so formal. The interviews with 35-44 year old men attest that for less motivated and busy men such an approach can help, at least from time to time, to pay attention to and get to know more about their health condition.

Many respondents note that they regularly carry out preventive checks at the dentist or hygienist. Even those men who mention lack of time due to other priorities as one of the excuses regarding not taking care of their health, visit the dentist. The men who visit dentist and carry out preventive dental checks informed that 1) they don't see any necessity to carry out other health checks, or 2) they do not carry out health checks due to the lack of information. When explaining this contradiction, one man pointed out that problems with teeth are more visible and he can't solve the problem with holes himself.

***Why men don't take care of their health.*** When examining health behaviour, it is essential to understand the most significant reasons and explanations why 35-44 year old men don't take care of their health. The reason why they „can't afford healthy lifestyle” (A14, 44) that is mentioned more often is *lack of time* (25.5 %). Usually, lack of time is followed by an explanation that there is lack of time for taking care of health because of other priorities, more often – family and job. Some men speak about work conditions due to which healthy lifestyle can't be lived, for example, irregular meals due to shift work. These men more often speak about efforts that are required by a healthy lifestyle. Sometimes these are objective obstructions – work conditions that require more effort; however, the psychological abilities of an individual to overcome different life difficulties must be analysed simultaneously.

The second reason that is often mentioned is *a lack of self-discipline and self-efficacy* (19.1 %). For example, men speak about the lack of motivation, lack of willpower, laziness for doing something, taking care of health require efforts. It was observed that men, who were tended to mention that healthy lifestyle

requires efforts, more rarely pay attention to a healthy diet and more often mentioned work conditions as an excuse. Probably, many of the reasons mentioned by these men are socially accepted excuses that are adapted to prevailing opinions in society, for example, that modern people must work a lot in order to survive.

Finally, *lack of finances or expensiveness of a healthy lifestyle* (10.6 %) was mentioned. Lack of finances is often mentioned together with lack of time and lack of willpower. Simultaneous mentioning of several reasons was often characteristic if a strong excuse was needed to explain why something can't be done.

At the same time, other men believe that they can't afford not to take care of their health, because poor health will cause additional expenses. Differences in perception of what is more expensive – taking care of their health or not taking care, demonstrates long-term vs. short-time reasoning. The issue concerning the expensiveness of healthy lifestyle can be discussed, since not all of the activities related to health behaviour are a paid service. There are physical activities that do not require financial investments, for example, exercising at home, and it's not always necessary to go to a gym or swimming pool. This is the argument that is mentioned by many men explaining that they can't engage in physical activities, because they can't afford going to a gym or swimming pool. Probably, there are also misconceptions concerning a healthy diet, presuming that more expensive biologically grown or ecological products must be used and that everything that is sold in a shop is full of chemical substances, poisoned and harmful, or that „it is impossible to buy qualitative food products in Latvia” (A6, 44).

Expensiveness of a healthy lifestyle is more often mentioned as an excuse by men for whom health impairing behaviour is a characteristic, for example, smoking and alcohol abuse. It proves the assumption that expensiveness of a healthy lifestyle is more an excuse and myth, because smoking and alcohol require additional expenses that could be used for the benefit of health. Health impairing behaviour is self-destructing; however, these individuals need to find an excuse for their actions and lack of finances is chosen as an appropriate excuse.

Depending on *self-perception and opinions concerning themselves and their age*, men have different explanations why they don't take care of their health. One part of men has an opinion that between the age of 35-44 it is too late to do something and, therefore, there is no point in taking special care of their health, while other part of men believes that nothing should still be done, because there is no necessity to do it and no problems have been manifested yet, good health is self-evident and consequences of an unhealthy lifestyle are not felt at a young age. Opinions concerning their age appear both directly and indirectly. For example, one man, when talking about giving up smoking, said „I doubt that it can change something at my age” (A6, 44). Some men emphasize that „a man can do

everything” (A44, 35) and they have been raised not to pay attention to themselves. One man says that he wants to „assert himself as a man” (A44, 35) and be sporty. Like previously, one and the same argument is used as substantiation for different health behaviour – health behaviour is not suitable for a man and health behaviour as a masculinity proof.

*Family role.* Some men explained postponing the living of a healthy lifestyle by saying that they should take care of the family and therefore they don't have time to take care of themselves (taking care of themselves distracts from taking care of the family), while others are afraid that, if something happens to their health, the whole life rhythm will be „destroyed” (A13, 43) and no one will be able to take care of their family, therefore, they can't afford being ill, so they have to take care of their health. In spite of the fact that several men use „taking care of the family” (A9, 42) as an explanation for postponing a healthy lifestyle, there are also many men who emphasize the positive role of the family in health behaviour. For example, men believe that „company is needed for a healthy diet” (A9, 42) and it is much easier to achieve it if their wife makes healthy meals. Children are also motivators for a healthy lifestyle – there are men who want to create a positive example for children, and therefore, they promote healthy lifestyle and educate children, while other men are motivated for healthy behaviour by children. Motivating others can have a significant role in promoting healthy behaviour.

## **Conclusions**

In the narratives of 35-44 year old men study identified all in literature most frequently mentioned health behaviour (Conner, 2002): physical activities, diet, smoking and use of alcohol, sleep and rest, preventive health checks.

It can be concluded from the interviews that preventive health checks would be beneficiary since 1) there is a lack of information concerning the importance of health prevention in certain age groups, 2) there are system-related and bureaucratic obstacles, and 3) mandatory health checks should be made more effective in timely detecting health problems.

One of the topics identified in the interview is an attitude towards health, including how health is perceived and if care of health is taken. Analysis of the reasons for not taking care of health is useful because it allows for identifying the most significant problems and looking for solutions. The most commonly mentioned reasons can be divided into two groups: 1) reasons related to different external circumstances (lack of resources, lack of time, job obligations); 2) psychological reasons (lack of motivation, willpower, efforts). Objective difficulties cannot be excluded; however, it is possible that external circumstances sometimes serve as an excuse for not doing something. Thus, it can be considered that the first group of reasons can be connected with an individual's own role and

abilities to overcome external obstacles. Men, who mentioned psychological reasons, probably better understand their responsibility in taking care of health and they don't need external circumstances for explaining why they don't do enough for the benefit of their health. In order to promote taking care of health, people can be given assistance for understanding that healthy lifestyle does not always require big expenses, and, secondly, they can be given assistance for overcoming difficulties connected with willpower and efforts.

Using the descriptions of health behaviour of the interviewed men and explanations concerning why they take or do not take care of their health, three distinctive behaviour types can be identified. The first type is related to personality trait of conscientiousness and for these men health promoting behaviour is often present; also, they carry out preventive health checks. Well-being and desire to be fit are their most common motivators for taking care of health. Sometimes these men experience lack of time for doing more for their benefit, but lack of self-discipline is not characteristic for them. The second type has some health promoting behaviour signs and sometimes health impairing behaviour, for example, smoking, can be observed. Such behaviour combines with lack of self-discipline and low self-efficacy. For these men the following explanations for postponing healthy lifestyle are characteristic 1) lack of time for taking care of health; and 2) lack of finances for healthy lifestyle. Finally, for the third type health impairing behaviour and lack of interest in taking care of their health are characteristic. Their most common explanation is lack of finances; however, it has already been written previously that expensiveness of healthy lifestyle is rather a myth and health impairing behaviour also requires financial resources.

Like in many quantitative studies (Bogg & Roberts, 2004; Hall et al., 2013), the thematic analysis of interviews confirms the role of conscientiousness and self-discipline in promoting health behaviour. At the same time, sub-topics that discover the most significant explanations why men take or don't take care of their health can help in forming health promoting campaigns and health promoting policy.

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