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Introducing the April issue 2021

Dear Readers,

we would like to introduce the open English issue of the ninth year of the Social Education journal. The past year has seen significant social changes occurring due to the spread of Covid-19. Not only are these changes seen in the everyday reality of individuals and groups, but in addition the consideration of and perspectives on individual areas of the educational reality have also been affected. It is now more than evident that this (un)predictable phenomenon is not a matter of a single year, but brings with it a number of challenges which will need to be responded to, and not just within social pedagogy, in order to keep up with the pressure of current and future changes. In parallel, and often overshadowed by, this phenomenon are other areas which are transforming, accelerating and being dealt with which are no less important within social pedagogy, and which cannot be forgotten under the weight of the current situation.

While this issue contains articles diverse in terms of content and form, they share a commonality at their core, such as a response to social circumstances, a selected dimension of social pedagogy within educational institutions, and development and changes in social pedagogy at a theoretical or practical Czech or international context.

The first **study**, entitled **Causes, consequences and control of student protests** by author Adams Ogirima Onivehu reflects on the current social circumstances in Nigeria. The study analyses data acquired from questionnaires in order to reveal students' opinion on the causes, consequences and control of End SARS (Special Anti-Robbery Squad) protests in Nigeria. Since society assesses the immediate and future consequences of the End SARS protests, this study expands our knowledge of the hidden background of these protests from the perspective of university students, who comprise a large number of End SARS demonstrators. It also puts forward proposals and recommendations in order to facilitate effective management and control of future protests. Since this is a society-wide phenomenon, this article can be perceived in the context of its environment as unique and innovative.

In his study entitled **Erasmus staff exchanges: A critical exploration of intentions and effects**, Paul G. Nixon provides a particular perspective on the ERASMUS+ Teaching/Training Exchanges scheme in the context of its benefits for the individuals, institutions and study programmes within the Hague University of Applied Sciences (THUAS). The author notes that the entire Teaching/Training Exchanges process can make a significant contribution towards developing professional experience, but can also be of benefit to the particular institution. The study endeavours to clarify whether expectations really have been met, and further examines the processes and procedures in place for monitoring such exchanges exploring control and monitoring prior to the exchange taking place, and post-exchange outcomes and evaluations.

The subsequent study, entitled **Creating a positive elementary school climate based on cooperation between the form teacher, headmaster and social pedagogue**, by author Lucie Blaštíková, focuses on identifying and describing the specific features and dimensions of a positive school climate from the perspective of different actors – the principal, form teachers and social pedagogue. The study presents new findings through creating models which describe and accentuate the need for co-operation of all subjects. The presented study is rather unique within the Czech social pedagogy context, making its findings of all the more benefit. Lucie Nečasová's final study, entitled **The resilience of high school students, analysis of compensatory measures, and preferred strategies for coping with adverse situations** presents the results of measuring resilience amongst high school students. The author submits her results focusing on the ascertained level of resilience and preferred choices of

management strategy. This study utilises statistical analysis to identify factors which have positive and negative effects on the level of pupils' resilience while also presenting the most favoured strategies for managing problems and strategies which students mostly avoid. The author presents results relating to the ascertained connection between choice of management strategy and level of high school student resilience.

We are extremely pleased to be able to present three articles in our **discussion** section. Authors Paul G. Nixon and Robin Metiary open the debate with an unusual article entitled **Teaching protest and pressure as participation**, which portrays relevant, interesting and one might say provocative ideas at whose core is an endeavour to ensure that protest and pressure as participation should be a key element of education. In the subsequent article entitled **Ulrikes are here with us: A few notes on the text Teaching protest and pressure as participation**, Radim Šíp presents his response to the preceding article. It is our conviction that dialogue represents the path to mutual enrichment, or can elicit more much needed questions in order to find sought-for answers and ascertain the merit of the problem. The third article in the discussion section by authors Lucie Blaštíková, Helena Grecmanová and Miroslav Dopita entitled **Social pedagogues and social workers in primary school** looks at an issue which is highly topical and important within the Czech environment for social pedagogy. An analysis of the activities, specific aspects, boundaries, rights and obligations of the social pedagogue and the social worker within educational institutions would seem of the utmost necessity at the current time when the profession of social pedagogue is still not enshrined in law within Czech education.

Lotte Junke Harbo (Associate Professor at VIA University College, Denmark) and Svend Bak (trained social pedagogue, Chairman of the Danish Association of Social Pedagogy) agreed to an **interview** in this issue. This interview provides a lot of fascinating information on Danish social pedagogy, its theoretical foundation and development, and its current position and application. In their interview, the authors also refer to the already noted relationship between social pedagogy and social work. No less fascinating is their reflection on the current society-wide situation in the context of Covid-19 in the practice of social pedagogy in Denmark.

The subsequent section, **Social pedagogy as a study programme**, loosely follows on from last issue's presentations of the first three Czech universities to implement social pedagogy as a study programme. In this issue, our attention is specifically focused on social pedagogy as a study programme at the workplaces of Bohuslav Kraus (Institute of Social Studies at the Faculty of Education, University of Hradec Králové) and Milena Öbrink Hobzová (Department of Christian Education at the Sts Cyril and Methodius Faculty of Theology, Palacký University Olomouc).

The following article in the **Trends and changes of social pedagogy** section looks at the concept of the social pedagogy field. This article by Lenka Gulová and Martina Kurowski opens discussion on the missed opportunity to transform the field of social pedagogy within the Department of Social Education at Masaryk University in Brno's Faculty of Education.

This issue concludes with **information** from Gabriel Eichsteller, one of the founders of the ThemPra Social Pedagogy organisation which looks at the development of social pedagogy in the United Kingdom and Kara O'Neil, co-president of the Social Pedagogy Association. Authors inform us of the steps and trends leading to the establishment of the Global Alliance for Social Pedagogy and Social Education. This global alliance, which would bring together social pedagogues from all the corners of the world, is perceived as another major opportunity for the development and internationalisation of social pedagogy.

Finally, we would like to thank all members of the editorial board, authors and in particular reviewers for their co-operation in producing this issue. We realise that this period has brought with it a number of challenges for individuals, groups, society and also the field of social pedagogy, but if we monitor, reflect and respond to individual changes (at a personal and community-wide level and within our field) then we will keep pace with them and perhaps also gain something of value: progress.

Editorial team

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Causes, consequences and control of student protests

Adams Ogirima Onivehu

Abstract: This study investigated the causes, consequences and control of student protests, especially the EndSARS (Special Anti-Robbery Squad) protest. A descriptive survey was adopted for the study. A total of 600 undergraduates, selected by multi-stage sampling, participated in the study. Three research questions were raised and a questionnaire titled Causes, Consequences and Control of Youth Protest Questionnaire (CCCYPQ) was used to collect data. The findings showed that the protest was caused by extra-judicial killings, assaults, harassment, extortion, bad governance, and youth unemployment. In addition, the findings indicated that the consequences of the protest include destruction of lives and property, hacking of the websites of public ministries, departments, agencies and corporate organizations, destruction of public infrastructural facilities, and disruption of academic activities in schools. The various control measures include disbandment of SARS, compensation for victims of police brutality, and provision of skills acquisition programmes and employment opportunities for youths. There were no significant gender differences in the perceived causes, consequences and control of the protest. Based on the findings, it was recommended that dialogue and collaborative decision-making should be employed in controlling student protest.

Keywords: causes, consequences, control, protest, student, EndSARS, gender

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Příčiny, následky a kontrola studentských protestů

Abstrakt: Tato studie vyšetřuje příčiny, následky a kontrolu studentských protestů, obzvláště pak protest EndSARS (Speciální oddíl proti loupežím). Pro studii byl zvolen popisný výzkum. Zúčastnilo se jí celkem 600 vysokoškolských studentů zvolených vícefázovým vzorkováním. Položeny byly tři výzkumné otázky a ke shromáždění dat byl použitý dotazník Příčiny, následky a kontrola protestů mládeže (CCCYPQ). Zjištění ukázala, že protesty byly zapříčiněny mimosoudním zabitím, napadeními, obtěžováním, vydíráním, špatným vládnutím a nezaměstnaností mládeže. Dále zjištění naznačila, že následky protestů zahrnují ničení života a majetku, hacking internetových stránek ministerstev a vládních úřadů, agentur a firem, ničení vybavení veřejné infrastruktury a narušování akademických aktivit ve školách. Ke kontrolním opatřením patří rozpuštění SARS, kompenzace pro oběti policejní brutality a programy pro získání dovedností a pracovních příležitosti pro mládež. Ve vnímaných

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příčinách, následcích a kontrole protestů se nevyskytovaly výrazné genderové rozdíly. Na základě zjištění bylo doporučeno, aby se při kontrole studentských protestů využíval dialog a společné rozhodování.

Klíčová slova: příčiny, následky, kontrola, protest, student, EndSARS, gender

1 Introduction

Protest is a global phenomenon. Therefore, the past decade is saturated with instances of protests across the world, such as Occupy Wall Street, the Spanish Indignados, the first Arab Spring uprising of 2010 in Tunisia and Egypt, and the second Arab Spring in Morocco, Jordan, Sudan, Algeria, Egypt, Lebanon, Iraq and Syria in the period of 2018-2020. The Black Lives Matter movement, Gorge Floyd and anti-lockdown protests were also carried out in various nations, such as the United States of America, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom, Italy, Spain, Germany, the Czech Republic and other European nations. Similarly, the South American nations (Brazil, Ecuador, Chile, Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, Peru and Venezuela) also experienced widespread protests due to long periods of frustrations, dissatisfaction with the social policies of governments and mismanagement of the COVID-19 pandemic. In Asia, common protests included the labour protests in China, the Anti-Extradition Law Amendment Bill movement in Hong Kong (2019-2020), the Candlelight Struggle or Candlelight Revolution of South Korea (2016-2017) and a host of others. In the African setting, common protests included protests related to the COVID-19 pandemic, the Fees Must Fall protest (2015-2016) and xenophobic protests in South Africa, the Malian spring protests of 2020, and the anti-third-term presidential bid protests in Ivory Coast in the run-up to the presidential election of 31 October 2020. In recent times, Ghanaians have also protested as a result of widespread socio-economic challenges, such as rising inflation, high cost of living, corruption and removal of fuel subsidies on goods and services.

Nigeria has a rich history of protests, especially student protests, which played a seminal role in the struggle for the nation's independence in 1960. Thus, there has been a preponderance of protests in Nigeria. This unwelcome development is so pervasive that many have considered protests to be an indispensable part of contemporary Nigerian society. Nigerians have protested for several reasons, which include police brutality. Given that the political and socio-economic structure of Nigeria plays a key role in the determination of the roles and priority of the citizenry and the police force, various tasks of the police in Nigeria are related to the various conflicting interests among various citizens, which could threaten the peace and stability of the society. Therefore, in an attempt to ensure law and order, some police officers have resorted to the use of excessive violence and other forms of police brutality, leading to a gross violation of the human rights of Nigerians (Alemika, 1999; Ibrahim, 2016). The resulting protests against acts of brutality, especially those committed by the Special Anti-Robbery Squad (SARS), an elite group within the police force tasked with combating armed robbery and its associated crimes, have been a recurring theme in Nigerian society. The EndSARS (Special Anti-Robbery Squad) protest, which resembles related global protests, was largely unanticipated, leaderless, local and global, online and offline, violent and non-violent. As Nigerians and the global community takes stock of the immediate and future implications of the EndSARS protests, this study expands the frontiers of knowledge with a focus on the causes, consequences, and control of the EndSARS protest in Nigeria from the perspective of university students, who form a large number of the EndSARS protesters, in order to facilitate the effective management and control of future protests.

2 Theoretical framework

2.1 Concept of student protest

While there is a consensus among various scholars that protest, whether violent or non-violent, is a social action, there is no universally accepted definition of protest. Hence, the exact meaning of protest is highly contested and debated among scholars in the extant literature. Protest has been defined as participation in several collective socio-political and problem-oriented behaviours, which vary from passive, non-violent and institutionalized acts to active, violent and unacceptable behaviours (Adejuwon & Okewale, 2009; Singh, 2013). Adejuwon and Okewale (2009) referred to protest as the end product of human interaction, especially where there is a need to meet incompatible ends and satisfy the needs of members of the society. Imobighe (1997) referred to protest as a clash of interests between two or more parties involved in an interactive process, which leads to a state of disharmony or hostility. Wilmot and Hocket (1998) averred that protest is an expression of the struggle between two or more related parties who have to deal with incompatible goals, scarce resources and interpersonal interference in the process of achieving set goals. Bloisi (2007) defined protest as a condition of disagreement between two or more parties who have dissimilar needs and interests. Thus, individuals and groups of people are said to be engaging in protest whenever the action of one party is perceived to hamper the achievement of the goals and aspirations of another. Thus, student protest is a broad term which refers to a disagreement between students and other significant parties in the university system, such as lecturers, non-academic staff, administrators, policy makers, politicians and the host community, among others, over the distribution of resources and other issues touching on student welfare. Adeyemi, Ekundayo and Alonge (2010) posited that student protest is a situation of tension among students who are motivated to revolt against real and imagined social ills and irregularities in the school system and society at large.

2.2 Causes of student protests

The causes of student protests are manifold. Thus, several studies have attributed the prevalence of student protest to a broad range of internal and external factors. In other words, university students might participate in protests due to various issues, which could be primarily related to the university system or based on trending and pressing issues in the society and global community (Odebode, 2019). For instance, the Finnish Ministry of Education increased the autonomy of universities in Finland in 2010 (“Ministry of Education,” 2009). By doing so, Finnish universities were allowed to be more innovative and entrepreneurial by charging tuition fees. Consequently, several university students protested in Finland to challenge the promulgation of the new legislation on student tuition fees (Hölttä, Janssen, & Kivisto, 2010). Likewise, students at the University of Rijeka, Croatia, protested for about 20 days to express their views on the implementation of the Bologna Process, high tuition fees and the neoliberal agenda for education in 2009 (Dolenec & Doolan, 2013).

K'okul (2010) also found that student riots in Kenyan universities were caused by age, socio-economic background, past rioting experience, financial issues, academic stress, drug abuse, lack of understanding between the students and university administrators, police brutality and political influence. Nigerian society is replete with internal factors or university-system-based causes of student protest. For instance, Davies, Ekwere and Uyanga (2013) found that the breaking of rules and regulations, lack of social amenities, student involvement in cultism, an effective student union and periodic strikes by staff of the institution were the causes of student protests at the University of Uyo, Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. Odu (2013) reported that student protests are caused by cultism, a communication gap between authorities and the student union, youthful exuberance and the students' home background in Ebonyi and Enugu States, Nigeria. Etaneki and Okolie (2020) also found that an increase in tuition fees, dissatisfaction over academic programmes, poor leadership and cult activities were the causes of student unrest in tertiary institutions in Delta State, Nigeria. At the University of Lagos, Nigeria, students have protested, shut down the university and clashed with the

police due to a lack of basic amenities (Abah & Folarin, 2016). Adegun and Ojo (2016) investigated the socio-cultural factors influencing the attitude of students towards unrest in tertiary institutions in Ekiti State and revealed that exorbitant transport fares, poor management policies, an increase in school fees and a lack of social amenities were the causes of student unrest.

Further to the above, students may also play active or passive roles in protests due to various reasons or factors outside the university system. Indeed, students form a major part of the university system, which in turn forms a germane part of any modern society. Thus, external factors or matters of national and international significance could be potential drivers of student protest. For instance, students protested in Burundi over the president's bid for a third term until the government closed all universities in April, 2015 (Moore, 2015). University students in Egypt and Morocco also participated massively in the Arab Spring uprisings of 2011 to express their dissatisfaction with authoritarian regimes and unfavourable socio-economic policies (Kohstall, 2015). The separation of South Sudan from Sudan was partly due to widespread student protests across the country and unwelcome economic regulations (Hale & Kadoda, 2014). Nigerian students have protested against various issues and changes in the socio-political landscape of Nigeria, such as the annulment of the 12 June 1993 presidential election, the Structural Adjustment Programme, an increase in fuel prices and the removal of subsidies from petroleum and related products (Davies et al., 2013; David, 2013).

2.3 Consequences of student protests

Student protests have several consequences for various stakeholders in society. Thus, student protests disrupt institutional activities and have contributed to poor educational standards. There is the incessant closure of institutions of learning whenever there is a protest, which adversely affects the scope and curriculum of the programmes offered (Davies et al., 2013). Chiluba (2019) found that the effects of student protests at the University of Zambia include violence and destruction of property, disruption of academic activities, suspension and punishment of students and their leaders, and the conducting of examinations without completion of the course contents. Likewise, violent student protests at the University of Zambia also precipitated the burning of tires, barricading of roads and stoning of vehicles. Consequently, many students were injured while others were arrested by the security forces (Mfula, 2016). Adeyemi (2009) concluded that the consequences of student crises in Nigerian public universities include disruption of academic programmes, destruction of lives, wanton destruction of property, closure of institutions, suspension of errant students and dismissal of students. MacGregor (2011) also noted that student protests forced the government of Togo to close the University of Lomé after two days of incessant student protests, which led to a clash with the security forces, thereby causing colossal destruction of university property and injuries among students. Hall (2016) reported that students at the University of Cape Town looted residences, disrupted the peace of the campus community and destroyed vehicles and university infrastructure, leading to the arrest and suspension of students. Odebode (2019) also noted that student protests have resulted in serious injury, death, destruction of property and disruption of peaceful co-existence within society. Vincent, Okon and Njoku (2018) also noted that destruction of lives and property worth millions of Naira and disruption of the academic calendar were the consequences of student unrest at the University of Portharcourt, Nigeria.

2.4 Measures for controlling student protests

The extant literature indicates that control measures for the effective control of student protests include the use of dialogue, training of school administrators in crisis management, the presence of adequate infrastructure on campuses, and the establishment of committees made up of experts in conflict management and resolution to immediately mediate in students protests, as well as the introduction of peace education into the school curriculum to make students appreciate the need for resolving differences without adopting violent means (Davies et al., 2013). Adeyemi (2009) found that a strategy of dialogue, signing of agreements with students and their parents on the prohibition of student unionism, and co-operation with students in decision-making were effective control measures

for reducing the prevalence of student unrest at Nigerian public universities. Etaneki and Okolie (2020) concluded that student unrest could be controlled by adopting the use of effective communication, stable and moderate tuition fees, student involvement in decision-making, and effective leadership behaviour. Akeusola, Viatonu and Asikhia (2012) found that the provision of better welfare for students as well as stable and moderate tuition fees were perceived as good control measures for student crises in higher education institutions in Lagos State, Nigeria.

Likewise, Odebode (2019) proposed the use of counselling to control student protests, especially with regard to facilitating a cordial and mutual relationship between students and administrators. Ramsbothan, Miall and Woodhouse (2011) have also advocated the use of negotiation, bargaining, reconciliation, mediation, arbitration and intervention approaches in the control and management of student unrest. Likewise, Usman (2013) also noted that therapeutic counselling strategies such as dialogue, boxing the problem, arbitration, confrontation and neglect or silence could be used to control student unrest. However, neglect or silence control measures should be applied with caution, as it could turn peaceful protests into violent protests. K'okul (2010) also suggested the use of guidance and counselling for minimizing student riots in Kenyan universities. Vincent et al. (2018) suggested the use of corporate communication strategies and conflict resolution in the management of future protests at the university of Portharcourt. Kuji (2016) also found that lecturers and students in North-West Nigerian universities perceived citizenship and value education to be effective for the control of student unrest. While it can be concluded from the foregoing that various measures could be adopted for the effective management of student protests, it should be noted that some non-constructive measures have also been adopted by the relevant authorities to control student protests. For instance, the indiscriminate use of security forces and political thugs to control student protests has been widely condemned by experts in the field of conflict management, as it often adds more tension to already volatile conditions (Mangcu, 2016; Swart, 2016).

2.5 Influence of gender on the perceived causes, consequences and control of student protests

Gender refers to the status, roles, responsibilities, duties, advantages, disadvantages and power being accorded to men and women in the society. By and large, the topic of the influence of gender on individual and group behaviour, especially student protests, has been saturated by a plethora of studies in the extant literature. For instance, Odebode (2019) found that gender did not influence students' perceptions of the factors responsible for student unrest in Nigerian tertiary institutions. Similarly, Singh (2013) found that there was no significant difference in the level of student unrest among graduate students in professional and non-professional degree colleges in the city of Ghaziabad, India. However, Adegun and Ojo (2016) found no significant difference in the attitude of male and female students in tertiary institutions in Ekiti State, Nigeria towards unrest. Etaneki and Okolie (2020) found that there was no significant difference in the perception of male and female students of the causes of unrest in tertiary educational institutions in Delta State, Nigeria.

3 Methodology

The study was conducted to investigate the causes, consequences and control of student protests. Specifically, the study sought to investigate students' opinions on the causes, consequences and control of the EndSARS protest in Nigeria. Therefore, a quantitative type of research using the descriptive survey method of research design, which makes it possible for a researcher to explain a phenomenon or make a generalization of the entire population from a sample, was deemed appropriate.

3.1 Participants

The population for this study consisted of all university students in Kwara State, Nigeria. However, the target population comprised university students in federal and state universities in Kwara State, Nigeria. Given that most of the respondents could not be accessed on the university premises due to the ASUU strike, the researcher had to intentionally choose students who reside in the university community or off-campus hostels. From selected hostels, 600 students were chosen using the convenience sampling procedure.

3.2 Research instrument

The Causes, Consequences and Control of Youth Protests Questionnaire (CCCYPQ) was designed and used for data collection (see Supplementary Table 1). CCCYPQ comprised Sections A-D and contained 30 items that sought information on the causes, consequences and control of the EndSARS protests. Specifically, Section A elicited respondents' bio-data; Section B elicited information on the causes of the EndSARS protests; Section C elicited information on the consequences of the EndSARS protests; and Section D elicited information on the control measures for the EndSARS protests. Sample items on the CCCYQ include: *In my opinion, the EndSARS protests are caused by the loss of jobs and livelihoods during the COVID-19 lockdowns; In my opinion, the consequences of the EndSARS protests include destruction of lives and property; In my opinion, the control measures for the EndSARS protests include the provision of compensation for victims of police brutality.*

The face and content validity of the CCCYPQ was established by experts in the field of education. The reliability of the questionnaire was affirmed by pre-testing it on 20 students at a private university in Ilorin, Kwara State, at an interval of two weeks. These students only participated in the pilot study because they share common characteristics with the actual respondents of this study. The two sets of scores were correlated and a reliability co-efficient of 0.78 was obtained, which was found to be reliable.

The cut-off mean score for including an item was 2.5. By implication, any item with a mean score of 2.5 or above was considered to be a cause, consequence or control measure for the EndSARS protest in Nigeria. The data and hypotheses were analysed and tested using frequency counts and percentages, means, and a t-test with significance level .05.

3.3 Research questions and hypotheses

The main purpose of this study is to investigate students' opinions on the causes, consequences and control of student protests. Specifically, the study sought to answer the following research questions: "What are the causes of the EndSARS protest in Nigeria?" (RQ1); "What are the consequences of the EndSARS protest in Nigeria?" (RQ2); and "What are the control measures for the EndSARS protest in Nigeria?" (RQ3).

Based on the stated research questions, the hypotheses tested in the study are as follows: There is a significant difference in the causes of the EndSARS protest in Nigeria based on gender (H1); There is a significant difference in the consequences of the EndSARS protest in Nigeria based on gender (H2); There is a significant difference in the control measures for the EndSARS protest in Nigeria based on gender (H3).

4 Results

Supplementary Table 2 indicates the respondents' gender, age, academic level and school ownership type. Thus, out of the 600 respondents that were sampled, 343 (57.17%) were males while 257 (42.83%) were females. This indicates that the study fairly represented male university students and their female counterparts in Kwara State. However, male university students participated more in the study. Results also show that those within the range of 15-20 years old constituted the greatest

proportion (63.0%) of respondents; 195 (32.50%) of the respondents were 21-30 years old, and 27 (4.50%) of the respondents were 31 years old and above. This indicates that most of the respondents were young people or adolescents aged between 15-20 years old.

185 (57.17%) of the respondents were 100-level students; 138 (23.0%) of the respondents were 200-level students; 107 (17.83%) of the respondents were 300-level students; 112 (18.67) of the respondents were 400-level students, while 58 (9.67%) of the respondents were 500-level students. Regarding the ownership of the universities attended by the protesters, 418 (69.66%) of the respondents attended a federal government university, while 182 (30.33%) attended a state government university.

4.1 What are the causes of the EndSARS protest in Nigeria?

Table 1 shows an analysis of the causes of the EndSARS protest in Nigeria by rank. It was observed that extra-judicial killings was ranked 1st, with a mean of 3.59, while the ASSU strike action was ranked 10th, with a corresponding mean of 2.57. On the whole, it can be deduced from Table 2 that the mean scores of all the items in the table are statistically higher than 2.50 – the cut-off mean for the four-point Likert scale used for the study. This mean (2.57) indicates that all the items had an influence on the EndSARS protest in Nigeria.

Table 1
Mean and rank order of the causes of the EndSARS protest in Nigeria

No.	Item	Mean	Rank
3	Extra-judicial killings	3.59	1st
6	Assaults	3.76	2nd
9	Harassment	3.41	3rd
8	Extortion	3.37	4th
5	Bad governance	3.03	5th
7	Youth unemployment	2.95	6th
2	Loss of jobs and livelihoods during the COVID-19 lockdowns	2.82	7th
4	Cybercrime	2.78	8th
10	Social media	2.64	9th
1	Strike action of the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU)	2.57	10th

4.2 What are the consequences of the EndSARS protest in Nigeria?

Table 2 shows an analysis of the consequences of the EndSARS protest in Nigeria by rank. Thus, the destruction of lives and property was ranked 1st, with a mean of 3.83, while the freezing of the bank accounts of the protesters was ranked 10th, with a corresponding mean of 2.58. This implies that all the items represent the consequences of the EndSARS protest in Nigeria, since the means of all the items were higher than the cut-off mean of 2.50.

Table 2
Mean and rank order of the consequences of the EndSARS protest in Nigeria

No.	Item	Mean	Rank
6	Extra-judicial killings of protesters	3.83	1st
4	Destruction of lives and property	3.78	2nd
1	Hacking of the websites of public ministries, departments, agencies and corporate organizations	3.72	3rd
8	Destruction of public infrastructure facilities	3.60	4th
5	Disruption of academic activities in schools	3.09	5th
7	Disruption of economic activities	2.98	6th
9	Imposition of curfews	2.73	7th

3	Arrest and detention of protesters	2.70	8th
2	Looting of COVID-19 relief palliatives from warehouses and stores	2.67	9th
10	Freezing of the bank accounts of protesters	2.58	10th

4.3 What are the control measures for the EndSARS protest in Nigeria?

Table 3 shows an analysis of the control measures for the EndSARS protest in Nigeria by rank. Thus, the disbandment of SARS was ranked 1st, with a mean of 3.79, while calling off the ASUU strike was ranked 10th, with a mean score of 2.53. This shows that all the items indicate possible control measures for the EndSARS protest in Nigeria.

Table 3
Mean and rank order of control measures for the EndSARS protest in Nigeria

No.	Item	Mean	Rank
3	Disbandment of SARS	3.79	1st
6	Provision of compensation for victims of police brutality	3.74	2nd
7	Provision of skills acquisition programmes and employment opportunities for youths	3.41	3rd
8	Improved youth participation in governance	3.37	4th
5	Provision of good governance for youths	3.13	5th
1	Improved training, funding and professionalism of police officers	2.80	6th
4	Dialogue	2.73	7th
9	Establishing panels of inquiry concerning public complaints relating to SARS	2.69	8th
10	Collaborative decision making	2.57	9th
2	Calling off the ASUU strike	2.53	10th

4.4 Testing hypotheses

There is a significant difference in the causes of the EndSARS protest in Nigeria based on gender

Regarding the causes of the EndSARS protest in Nigeria, the mean score for male respondents was M = 17.26 (SD = 8.27) and for female respondents was M = 15.19 (SD = 6.93), which was in favour of the male students. However, this difference did not reach significance (p = .35) with regard to gender.

There is no significant difference in the consequences of the EndSARS protest in Nigeria based on gender

The mean score for male respondents was M = 13.57 (SD = 7.81) and for female respondents was M = 12.74 (SD = 6.30) regarding the consequences of the EndSARS protest in Nigeria; this also favoured male students. However, there was no significant difference in the consequences of the EndSARS protest in Nigeria based on gender (p = .19).

There is no significant difference in the control measures for the EndSARS protest in Nigeria based on gender

The difference between the mean scores for male respondents (M = 16.34, SD = 7.45) and female respondents (M = 15.19, SD =5.92) regarding the control measures for the EndSARS protest in Nigeria was in favour of the male students. However, there was no significant difference in the control measures for the EndSARS protest in Nigeria based on gender (p = .57).

5 Discussion

Millions of Nigerian youths protested for the disbandment of the SARS unit in October 2020. Thus, the present study was carried out to investigate students' opinions on the causes, consequences and control measures for the EndSARS protest in Nigeria. It was found that the EndSARS protest in Nigeria was caused by extra-judicial killings, assaults, harassment, extortion, bad governance, youth unemployment, loss of jobs and livelihoods during the COVID-19 lockdowns, cybercrime, social media and the strike action of the ASUU. This is in agreement with the submissions of previous researchers, such as Adeyemi (2009), Odu (2013) and Obi (2014). This could be a result of the nature of the respondents, who are literate, knowledgeable and mature enough to observe or experience the causes of various phenomena in the society, such as widespread police brutality and its associated extra-judicial killings, assaults, extortion, harassment, and a host of others. Taken together, police brutality and its associated socio-economic issues form a good breeding ground for protests in Nigeria (Adegun & Ojo, 2016; Alemika, 1999; Davies et al., 2013; Ibrahim, 2016).

Nigerian university students are digital natives or migrants who use various technological devices and applications to perform various tasks on a daily basis. Given the worrisome rate of unemployment among Nigerian youths, it is not surprising that some university students seek out alternative sources of income, thereby indulging in cybercrime (Asaju, Arome, & Anyio, 2014)**.** Thus, as these students get more money from various acts of cybercrime, they tend to live a lavish lifestyle, which might include wearing dreadlocks/coloured hair and tattoos, dressing in crazy clothes, driving exotic cars, using costly smartphones, laptops and other ICT devices, and spending huge sums of money at clubs and parties. By doing so, the SARS officials who patrol the hidden depths of Nigerian society might deem such students suspicious, or intentionally track the movements of identified online fraudsters who reside in various student hostels in the university community.

University students in Nigeria are frequent users of social media for various purposes (Onivehu, Adegunju, Ohawuiro, & Oyeniran, 2018). It therefore follows that social media platforms such as YouTube, Facebook, WhatsApp, Instagram and Twitter contributed greatly to the circulation of photos, videos, comments, ideas, trending news and fake news during the EndSARS protest by providing audio-visual spectacles, which stimulate emotional feelings towards the protest (Jenkins, 2019; McGarry, Jenzen, Eslen-Ziya, Erhart, & Korkut, 2019).

As action begets reaction, the EndSARS protest was associated with some consequences in Nigerian society. Thus, the study indicated that the EndSARS protest was associated with the extra-judicial killings of protesters, destruction of lives and property, hacking of the websites of public ministries, departments, agencies and corporate organizations, destruction of public infrastructure facilities, disruption of academic activities in schools, imposition of curfews, arrest and detention of protesters, and looting of COVID-19 palliatives from warehouses and stores. This finding is in consonance with the findings of some studies on the consequences of student protests in Nigeria (Adeyemi, 2009; Davies et al., 2013; Odebode, 2019; Vincent et al., 2018). Nigerian youths embarked on widespread destruction of lives and property, hacking of the websites of public ministries, departments, agencies and corporate organizations, destruction of public infrastructure facilities, and looting of COVID-19 palliatives from warehouses and stores to get even with the relevant authorities during the EndSARS protest. As a preventive measure, security agents arrested and detained some protesters, while some state governments imposed various curfew periods to keep the society safe. Likewise, teaching-learning activities were on hold in the schools, especially in the primary and secondary schools as well as higher institutions of learning.

The respondents also indicated that the measures for controlling the EndSARS protest include the disbandment of SARS, provision of compensation for victims of police brutality, provision of skills acquisition programmes and employment opportunities for youths, improved youth participation in governance, provision of good governance for youths, improved training and funding of the police force, dialogue, establishment of panels of inquiry on public complaints relating to SARS, collaborative

decision making, and cancellation of the strike of the ASUU. The SARS unit of the Nigerian Police Force had been disbanded by the Inspector General of Police. In this regard, the leadership of the Nigerian Police Force deserves some commendation for professionally handling the EndSARS protest, despite pockets or reported cases of police brutality during the protests. The Nigerian government also constituted various panels of inquiry to investigate cases of police brutality in Nigeria. It is therefore necessary that the panels carry out their mandates with maximum professionalism. Consequently, identified victims of police brutality should be properly compensated by the government. There is also the need for the government to provide adequate counselling and psychosocial support for victims of police brutality in Nigeria, especially those who are grappling with various degrees of depression, suicidal ideation, substance abuse, Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD), insomnia and other mental health issues at Nigerian universities (Odebode, 2019).

The Nigerian government should provide more opportunities for university students and other Nigerian youths to be gainfully employed in the formal and informal sectors. Moreover, youths should be engaged in constant dialogue with elders and the political class in Nigerian society. This will facilitate trust, understanding, co-operation, collaborative decision-making and peaceful co-existence among Nigerians (Etaneki & Okolie, 2020; Usman, 2013). The ASUU strike also contributed in one way or the other to the EndSARS protest. In this regard, the Nigerian government and the ASUU also deserve some commendation for calling off the strike in December 2020. It is therefore hoped that, as Nigerian universities commence teaching-learning activities in the post-EndSARS protest era, university students and other youths will be able to live peacefully without being worried about the menace of police brutality.

The *t*-test computation on the difference in the causes, consequences and control measures for the EndSARS protest in Nigeria based on gender indicated that there is no significant difference in the causes, consequences and control measures for the EndSARS protest based on gender. This finding is better understood in light of the fact that male university students and their female counterparts reside in the environment and have therefore experienced the dynamic of the EndSARS protest. In a like manner, this finding could be attributed to the various sources of information available to male university students and their female counterparts on the causes, consequences and possible measures for controlling the EndSARS protest in Nigeria (Adegun & Ojo, 2016; Etaneki & Okolie, 2020; Odebode, 2019).

6 Conclusion

Based on the findings of the study, one could conclude that the EndSARS protest in Nigeria was caused by extra-judicial killings, assaults, harassment, extortion, bad governance, youth unemployment, loss of jobs and livelihoods during the COVID-10 lockdowns, cybercrime, social media and the strike action of the ASUU. It is also the submission of the researcher that the consequences of the EndSARS protest include extra-judicial killings of protesters, destruction of lives and property, hacking of the websites of public ministries, departments, agencies and corporate organizations, destruction of public infrastructure facilities, disruption of academic activities in schools, imposition of curfews, arrest and detention of protesters, and looting of COVID-19 palliatives from warehouses and stores. The results of the study also indicate that the control measures for the EndSARS protest include the disbandment of SARS, provision of compensation for victims of police brutality, provision of skills acquisition programmes and

The EndSARS protest was caused by various acts of police brutality, while the consequences of the protest include destruction of lives and property. The disbandment of SARS and provision of compensation for victims of police brutality were found to be control measures for the protest.

employment opportunities for youths, improved youth participation in governance, provision of good governance for youths, improved training, funding and professionalism of police officers, dialogue, establishment of panels of inquiry on public complaints relating to SARS, collaborative decision-making, and cancellation of the strike of the ASUU.

6.1 Recommendations

The major findings indicate that the EndSARS protest was caused by various acts of police brutality, while the consequences of the protest include the extra-judicial killing of protesters. The findings also reveal the disbandment of SARS as a control measure for the EndSARS protest. With these findings: (i) The Nigerian government and the relevant authorities should work with identified leaders of student protests in the future to ensure that dialogue and collaborative decision-making is given more priority over the use of excessive force to stop students from engaging in protests; (ii) Social educators, through the Social Studies Association of Nigeria (SOSAN), should periodically organize seminars, conferences and workshops to equip parents, university students, community members, school administrators and lecturers with the required life skills in order to produce violence-free students at universities. Such seminars, conferences or workshops should be geared towards building the skills of tolerance and conflict resolution in staff, students and other stakeholders in the university system to ensure peaceful co-existence in the society; and (iii) The Nigerian Police Force should be friendlier and more tolerant in dealing with various youths in Nigerian society, especially university students who have various maladaptive behaviours.

Declaration of conflicting interests

No potential conflict of interest is reported by the author.

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Supplementary Table 1. Causes, Consequences and Control of Youth Protests Questionnaire (CCCYPQ)

Dear respondent,

The researcher is carrying out a study on the causes and consequences of student protests, especially the EndSARS protest in Nigeria. You are implored to please assist by objectively responding to the questionnaire. The information supplied will be treated with the utmost confidentiality and used for research purposes only.

Thank you for your anticipated co-operation.

SECTION A: Demographic data

Directions: Kindly tick (√) as applicable to you.

1. Gender: Male ( ); Female ( )
2. Age: 15-20 years ( ); 21-30 years ( ); 31 years and above ( )
3. Academic Level: 100 ( ); 200 ( ); 300 ( ); 400 ( ); 500 ( )
4. School Ownership Type: Federal Government ( ); State Government ( ); Other

Section B: Causes of the EndSARS protest

Directions: Kindly tick (√) as applicable to you.
Key: Strongly Agree (SA); Agree (A); Disagree (D); Strongly Disagree (SD)

S|N	In my opinion, the EndSARS protest is caused by:	SA	A	D	SD
1	The strike action of the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU)				
2	Loss of jobs and livelihoods during the COVID-19 lockdowns				
3	Extra-judicial killings				
4	Cybercrime				
5	Bad governance				
6	Assaults				
7	Youth unemployment				
8	Extortion				
9	Harassment				
10	Social media				

Directions: Kindly tick (√) as applicable to you.
Key: Strongly Agree (SA); Agree (A); Disagree (D); Strongly Disagree (SD)

S|N	In my opinion, the consequences of the EndSARS protest include:	SA	A	D	SD
1	Hacking of the websites of public ministries, departments, agencies and corporate organizations				
2	Looting of COVID-19 relief palliatives from warehouses and stores				
3	Arrest and detention of protesters				
4	Destruction of lives and property				
5	Disruption of academic activities in schools				
6	Extra-judicial killings of protesters				
7	Disruption of economic activities				
8	Destruction of public infrastructure facilities				
9	Imposition of curfews				
10	Freezing of the bank accounts of protesters				

Section C: Control measures for the EndSARS protest

Directions: Kindly tick ($\surd$) as applicable to you.
Key: Strongly Agree (SA); Agree (A); Disagree (D); Strongly Disagree (SD)

S|N	In my opinion, the control measures for the EndSARS protest include:	SA	A	D	SD
1	Improved training, funding and professionalism of police officers				
2	Calling off the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) strike				
3	Disbandment of SARS				
4	Dialogue				
5	Provision of good governance for youths				
6	Provision of compensation for victims of police brutality				
7	Provision of skills acquisition programmes and employment opportunities for youths				
8	Improved youth participation in governance				
9	Establishment of panels of inquiry on public complaints relating to SARS				
10	Collaborative decision-making				

Supplementary Table 2. Demographic distribution of respondents by gender, age, academic level and school ownership (*n* = 600)

Variable	Frequency (*n*)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	343	57.17
Female	257	42.83
Age		
15-20 years	378	63.00
21-30 years	195	32.50
31 years and above	27	4.50
Academic level		
100	185	30.83
200	138	23.00
300	107	17.83
400	112	18.67
500	58	9.67
School ownership type		
Federal government	418	69.66
State government	182	30.33

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Erasmus staff exchanges: A critical exploration of intentions and effects

Paul G. Nixon

Abstract: This article outlines the expected benefits of ERASMUS+ Teaching/Training Exchanges for individuals, the institution as a whole and the degree programmes of The Hague University of Applied Sciences (THUAS), the Netherlands. The method employed was a series of semi-structured interviews, following initial email contact of 32 (approx. 1.5% of staff) who had been on exchange, or were scheduled to be, during the academic year. Interviews were agreed with 7 staff. Leask (2015) identified a lack of research in this area, and it is hoped this research will help to stimulate thinking on this issue. Despite the small sample size, general preliminary conclusions can be drawn and further research is encouraged. The article examines processes and procedures in place for monitoring such exchanges, and it also explores control and monitoring prior to the exchange taking place, as well as post-exchange outcomes and evaluations. It describes the context and theoretical frameworks and discusses the major findings, including accounts of the participants' experiences and the benefits for them as individuals, their perceptions, their line manager's responses and institutional policies and processes. The conclusion has recommendations for improvement based upon the participants' comments. The main message of this article is the need to set goals for the individual and the institution and to evaluate them upon return.

Keywords: staff exchange, policy, implementation, feedback, outcomes

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Výměna zaměstnanců v rámci programu Erasmus: Kritický průzkum záměrů a efektivity

Abstrakt: Cílem této případové studie je vysvětlení a pochopení očekávaných přínosů výměnných programů ERASMUS+ Teaching nebo Training jak pro jednotlivé účastníky, tak pro instituce a programy. Dotyčnou institucí je Hague University of Applied Sciences (THUAS) sídlící v nizozemském Haagu. Studie se snaží objasnit, zda skutečně došlo ke splnění očekávání. Zkoumá procesy a postupy stanovené pro monitorování takových výměn a prozkoumává stupeň kontroly a monitorování potenciálu před uskutečněním výměny, a také kontrolu a monitorování výstupů, příležitostí po ukončení výměny a následné vyhodnocení. Následující sekce popisují kontext a teoretické rámce vycházející z různorodých perspektiv podporujících tuto studii. Poté jsou

rozebírány metody výzkumu. Dále studie prezentuje a rozebírá hlavní zjištění včetně citací zkušeností účastníků jak ohledně interakce při výměně a přínosů pro účastníky jako jednotlivce, tak také ohledně jejich vnímání reakcí přímého nadřízeného a strategií a procesů instituce. Následují závěrečné postřehy a série doporučení na zlepšení managementu na základě případové studie názorů a pozorování účastníků. Leask (2015) identifikovala nedostatečný výzkum tohoto kontextu a doufáme, že tato případová studie pomůže, byť i v malém rozsahu, vyrovnat nerovnováhu a osvítit smýšlení o této problematice.

Klíčová slova: výměna zaměstnanců, politika, implementace, zpětná vazba, výsledky

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1 Introduction

Erasmus+ KA 103 is the European Union's key 'mobility' programme in education and training and one of the few EU programmes widely recognised by the general public. It has undergone a number of revisions during the lifespan of the programme and now forms part of the Lifelong Learning programme (Cairns, 2017; "Education and Culture," 2015a, 2015b). A further update and revision of the programme is now being crafted that will take much more account of notions of virtual mobility, emphasising the increasing incorporation of the notion of internationalisation at home as a concept in order to enhance the reach of the programme beyond those who would be able to participate in its actual physical international mobility exchanges, and to include those who for a number of reasons may be unable to undertake such mobility. In its present form the Erasmus Programme fosters support of Learning Mobility for Individuals, Cooperation for Innovation and Exchange of Good Practices, and Support for Policy Reform. This is normally evidenced in student mobility, teacher/staff mobility, joint curriculum development, and intensive teaching programmes. This investment in knowledge, skills, and competences will benefit individuals, institutions, organizations and society as a whole by contributing to growth and ensuring equity, prosperity and social inclusion in Europe and beyond ("The new Erasmus+," 2021). During the programmes, individuals encounter new situations that will aid "their educational, academic and professional development" ("Education and Culture," 2015b). Because of these (international) aims it can thus be seen as a tool of social education, for it further enhances the (educational) development of its participants.

Staff mobility for academics and support staff provides an opportunity for academics, the focus of this paper, to travel to develop and enhance knowledge and skills, broaden perspectives and seek potential new avenues for personal and institutional cooperation in teaching and research, which can then be incorporated into the learning experiences of students at both the home and host institutions (Brandenburg, de Wit, Jones, & Leask, 2019; Cushner & Mahon, 2002). It also allows individuals to respond to the changing demands from the global labour market and society at large, which requires both educators and students to acquire updated skills and knowledge (Frisk, 2015; Schleicher, 2012). The rapid changes in society require new strategies and a concomitant re-evaluation of the role of higher education institutions in a globalised market, and of the ways in which they deliver content to students to meet their needs and address the challenges in front of us. There is a wide acceptance that "The global world is not built on national identities or marginalized kinship but rather inclusive values and 'no-border' strategies" ("Education and Culture," 2015a, 2015b) and thus there is a need for higher educational institutions to facilitate their staff to break out of national silos and learn from their peers ("European Union," 2014).

Leung (2013) and Jansone and Dislere (2016) note that global mobility of academics and other university staff helps to engender academic excellence. This is also a mechanism which aids staff in

universities of applied sciences to keep up with the latest developments in their subjects and also in pedagogical practices by learning from their partners. Reflecting the way that knowledge economies, in general, have become more globally connected, staff mobility impacts both the individual and the institutions, with both benefitting from a wider perspective and the flexibility gained through travel and experiential learning during the mobility.

However, Sursock (2015) mentions the negative consequences of mobility that can impact upon an institution. They can lead to extra administrative burdens upon the institution's staff and to the creation of a mobile elite of lecturers who undertake mobility, as opposed to their colleagues who choose not to or are not offered the opportunity to be mobile. It is therefore important that the institution operates under a clear sense of purpose in such matters.

1.1 THUAS and internationalisation

The Hague University of Applied Sciences is situated in The Hague, Netherlands. As a university of applied sciences its primary role is as a teaching institution, although its research focus is now growing in line with Dutch government policy to encourage more applied research in universities of applied sciences. It has approx. 26,000 students and employs approx. 2,000 staff.

One of the things THUAS seeks to do is prepare students to be future professionals and global citizens capable of operating in a global, inclusive and changing environment. Thus, the field of internationalisation is of prime importance in the policies and activities of THUAS. Hunter and De Wit (2015) build upon Knight's definition of internationalisation (2004) and view it as being "the **intentional** process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions **and** delivery of post-secondary education, **in order to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff, and to make a meaningful contribution to society**" (Hunter & De Wit, 2015).

THUAS policies on internationalisation include a recognition that in order to effect realistic change towards a goal of delivering global or international education (Quezada, 2012), there is a need to recognise the notion of internationalising the curriculum (Leask, 2015) or 'internationalisation at home'". For this, one needs the buy-in of academic staff who quite often, particularly at the onset of their career, may have little or no experience of teaching in an international classroom. This stretches far beyond the simple capability of being able to operate in a number of different languages, useful tools though they may be in internationalisation. These include such elements as a willingness to foster cross-national and cross-cultural partnerships and help students to further develop into their roles as dutifully conscientious citizens of their local and global habitats; knowledge, understanding and expertise in global issues and how they may impact upon one's students and shape the teaching one is expected to undertake; an understanding of different cultures and the capacity to be interculturally sensitive; and the ability to interculturally communicate knowledge and skills to students from diverse backgrounds and help them be aware of competing discourses. In short, one needs to engender a mindset that is open to flexible and, in these technologically driven times, repeated, if not constant, evaluation and change as evidenced by the THUAS slogan of "Let's Change. You. Us. The World." This manifests itself in such things as the design and implementation of international/multi-cultural research projects and collaborative online international learning opportunities (evidenced in THUAS as part of a range of COIL projects), which may also be aided by the incorporation of mobile students' prior experiences to enrich the diversity of input to the learner's educational experience.

This requires a willingness to be more inclusive, not just in terms of de-colonialization (Vorster & Quinn, 2017) but also in terms of recognizing and integrating voices from groups who have often been non-privileged into one's daily practices (Pett, 2015), encompassing diversity on the basis of issues such as race, gender, sexuality and class. One of the pre-requisites for THUAS to bring this about is to have a staff group who themselves share that same inquisitive openness about the wider society and recognise that higher education is not immune to, but operates within, an existing, but often fluctuating, political agenda. Recognising that, the staff group can then play a role in redesigning

curricula, pedagogies and behaviours to better reflect and project the values of society and make the student experience more relevant by bringing about a wider systematic transformation of higher education.

As Lourenço notes, it is vital "to create times and spaces for academics to (re)construct knowledge in a collaborative way" (2018, p. 157). Leask (2015) has noted the way in which in-house training courses for new entrants to the profession have increasingly incorporated elements of international perspectives in the content, learning objectives, methodologies, and assessment strategy of study programmes. Academics sometimes struggle to reconcile broad overarching institutional policies and goals in relation to internationalisation with their own experiences, ambitions and disciplinary focus. This can often lead to a disconnect between those responsible for ensuring the smooth delivery of such institutional policies and goals, who are more often than not located in the international offices of service departments (Leask, Beelen, & Kaunda, 2013), and the academics who are the lynchpin of any moves to internationalise educational delivery via any form of internationalisation of the curriculum (Sawir, 2011).

Erasmus+ Teaching/Training experiences are one key conduit through which the participants may easily engage with differing learning communities in order to share, gain and appraise the values of expertise, knowledge and pedagogical behaviours within contexts that may differ to varying extents to the 'norms' experienced in the 'home' institution. To use Archer's wider concept of a triumvirate of effects of culture, structure and people as being integral determinants of actions or outcomes (1995) and apply it to higher education situations, we can posit that observing and participating in educational delivery in different contexts and environments can also allow the participant to step outside of the constraints imposed by hierarchies, processes and procedures that are the norm at the home institution (Stohl, 2007) and sometimes outsides the constraints of subject specialisation. The Erasmus Impact Study, which included surveys of those staff taking part in outgoing staff mobility schemes, identified that 95% of HEI's and 92% of staff thought it an effective tool "to allow students who do not have the possibility to participate in a mobility scheme, to benefit from the knowledge" (Stohl, 2007, p. 149). However, Beelen and Jones (2015) have critiqued this assumption of a definitive link between mobility and the subsequent cascading of knowledge as suggested above. Whilst it may occur, there is little if any evidence available to say how and to what extent it takes place. As the surveys concentrate on the opinions of the staff who were the subjects of the mobility, the actual impact on the students is not measured in any way and the self-evaluations may well be subject to a certain degree of inflation in relation to that cascading of knowledge, in order for the staff member to justify their mobility to others.

1.2 Notions of staff development through mobility?

We can see that participants in the Erasmus+ mobility scheme are almost certainly meeting some, if not all of the basic tenets of andragogy as set out by Knowles (1980), particularly in the fields of self-motivation and personal improvement through study, as evidenced in Chametzky (2014). It has also been shown that staff mobility is only effective when it is part of a deliberate process of staff development, as noted by Brewer and Leask (2012, p. 251). This research set out to ascertain how far the staff mobility process at THUAS and, in particular, the mobility undertaken as part of the ERASMUS Staff Exchange/Training Programme was part of a deliberate staff development process or fulfilled written and/or unwritten requirements.

If we examine Kennedy's typology of continuing professional development (2005, pp. 237–238) we can see that of the nine distinct identified types – training; award-bearing; deficit; cascade; standards-based; coaching/mentoring; community of practice; action research; transformative – all could potentially be relevant to the experiences of those undertaking an exchange. In the cases studied here, however, it would seem that where there were any benefits to accrue in terms of personal development they could be found situated in the typologies of training; cascade; and community of

practice. Any transformative elements that could be identified seemed to be solely incidental and not pre-planned, as we shall see below.

2 Research

2.1 Methodology

The purpose of the research was to understand the way in which ERASMUS staff mobility took place in THUAS, what the goals were and how the lack of a distinct policy may impact upon the experiences of those undertaking periods of mobility. By focusing on the following two research questions, i.e. (i) How is this type of mobility institutionalized at THUAS?; and (ii) What are the effects of this form of mobility on the actors and institution?, this aim was achieved.

In order to gain answers to these questions, semi-structured interviews were held, as they would give the opportunity for respondents to amplify their answers and for the researcher to ask for clarifications if necessary. In order to contact the relevant personnel, I requested from the International Office a list of all those staff members who had already undertaken an ERASMUS exchange or were scheduled to do so in the academic year 2018/19. Due to privacy concerns over issuing data I was not given a list of names to work with. Instead I had to produce an email text, outlining the scope and purpose of the project and requesting people to volunteer to be interviewed and also aiming for the snowball effect approach. This mail content was forwarded to the 32 staff members who were identified by the International Office as having undertaken ERASMUS exchanges during that academic year. This means that of the total THUAS academic staff, approximately 1.5% undertook a period of ERASMUS mobility in 2018/19. The invitation to be interviewed was sent out via email and, due to a poor initial response rate, I subsequently asked that a reminder be forwarded to those same personnel. This elicited a total of 10 volunteers. Each of them were asked to fill in a short information form in order to limit the time needed for interviews and to eliminate those who may have been ineligible for whatever reasons.

Due to time clashes, etc., it was only possible to arrange interviews with 7 of those who volunteered. It was decided to proceed with the 7 available, and they form the self-reported evidence given below. Thus, approx. 22% of academic staff who took part in the ERASMUS mobility were interviewed. The interviews were first recorded, then fully transcribed. The questions asked were as shown in Supplementary Table 1. The seven interviewees were drawn from degree programmes across four faculties within THUAS. The interviewees undertook their mobility during the academic year 2018-2019 in the Czech Republic, Finland, France, Germany, Iceland, and Norway. Details of the respondents, the programmes they were from and the language of tuition in that programme, are shown in Supplementary Table 2. It is important to note that this study took place before the advent of COVID-19. Even though the sample size of this research is small, general preliminary conclusions can be made and further research is encouraged.

3 Results

At the request of the Erasmus+ National Agency for Education and Training, the Kohnstamm Instituut recently conducted a study into the impact of international mobility on professional development under Erasmus+. They examined previous literature and official participatory reports of individuals undertaking staff mobility in order to try to establish how the mobility was viewed by participants (Verbeek, 2019). The reports suggested that impact rates with the experiences of undertaking mobility in 5 key areas (see Figure 1) ranged from moderate, through variable, to very high. For example, under the category of intercultural development, 90% of respondents reported an increase in their social, linguistic and/or cultural competences. Perhaps, as is the case with some of the respondents to the questions asked in the interviews below, the other 10% considered their cultural competences to be

already very well developed. However, we have no concrete evidence nor way of measuring that this is, indeed, the case:

> *"If it had been someone else, maybe they would have learned more about the intercultural competences and things like that, but given that I've spoken the language since I was three and I did my PhD at that university in France, well not at all in that department but I did my PhD in France and everything, it wasn't such a cultural revelation; but still maybe on reflection maybe I would say that it certainly created a stronger bond and awareness with that institution."* (Interviewee 5)

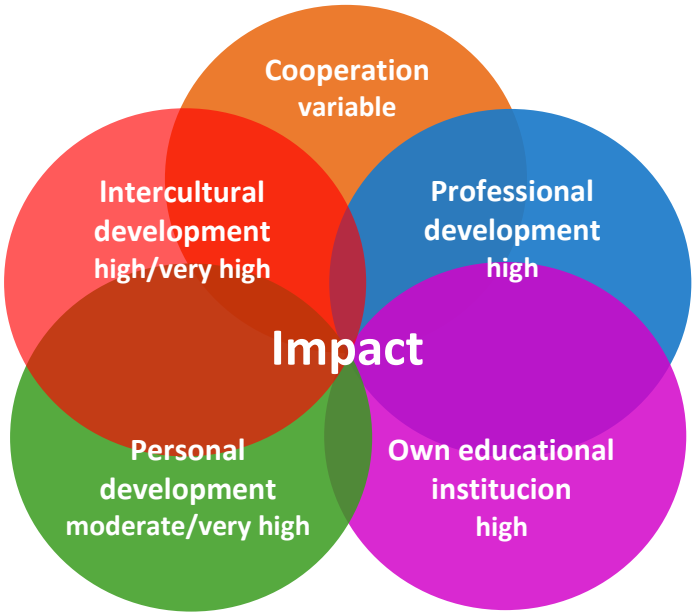

Figure 1 Impact of international mobility

Source: Verbeek (2019).

We can also see from the summary of Verbeek's work (see Figure 1; "Erasmus+," 2019) that there were a number of factors that were termed as contributing to *Success*, namely having an open attitude; involvement of supervisors/ management; affinity with the hosting partner institution; effective preparation; solid communication skills; and advance consideration of promotion and dissemination. *Limiting* factors were finances; workload; and the delegation or reallocation of tasks that the participant would not be able to perform at the home institution whilst undertaking a staff exchange. The Erasmus+ Higher Education Impact Study ("European Union," 2019, p. 119) shows that family and personal relationships (67% reporting this as a limiting factor) and working responsibilities (64%) were considered to be the main barriers hindering participation of staff who did not participate in mobility. Difficulties in finding an appropriate institution and or training/teaching programmes abroad; difficulty in being replaced if absent; and lack of information about the Erasmus+ programme and how it works, were all mentioned as barriers by more than 50% of people taking part in the survey for the impact study ("European Union," 2019, p. 120). We shall see below if the respondents in this case study also shared the same reflections on the positive and negative aspects of their exchange, or if they raised other issues.

So, if we examine Verbeek's success factors (Verbeek, 2019) in relation to our research subjects, we can immediately see that an *open attitude* was present in all respondents. No-one was 'forced' to go on exchange and all were to some extent volunteers. There was no doubt that as volunteers, they were already broadly in line with the aims of benefiting from an international exchange; however, as we shall see later, the reasons for them to do so varied. Some had specific tasks allocated to them whilst on the exchange, whereas others were free to negotiate their own tasks. Only one person was given

explicit goals set by their management, whilst all of the respondents also set their own personal goals and, it would seem, broadly achieved them. Some colleagues were positively encouraged to go on exchange whilst others had to suggest it as a possibility. One in particular found it more of a struggle to get permission to go, and didn't always feel that the management wanted staff to be out of the department. As interviewee 1 commented:

> *"Well I think it has been seen as a, you can say, for* [my] *programme they don't like you to be away because when you are here you can solve all the problems."* (Interviewee 1)

When examining the notion of *involvement of supervisors/management* in the planning of the process, one sees that involvement was in most cases often limited to signing forms and authorising the procedure. As interviewee 5 remarked:

> *"It was definitely my initiative… it wasn't really a meeting to discuss the substance of it, more the fact that it was being organised. The nature of the process is that you kind of have to sort of identify the partner, contact the partner and secure the potential opportunity, at which point you then just ask them permission to go, so in fact a lot of the contacts are predetermined about that stage – you know where you want to go, you know what you want to do, you have it all ready and then you ask for permission."* (Interviewee 5)

This seems to be a missed opportunity to align Erasmus staff exchanges with the actual needs of the organisation as a whole and the programme in particular. It also seems to suggest that THUAS does not follow the practice of *effective preparation*, at least in the cases referred to in this study.

Nevertheless, it should be said that all the participants reported spending a great deal of time in preparing for their visit, both in terms of clarifying the desires of the host institution and in preparing teaching materials and other resources. One of the necessities that caused some concern with the respondents was the processes centred around the form filling required, not just in terms of the requirements from Erasmus itself but also the internal form filling and the lack of cohesive relationships with some of the support/service departments:

> "*Well, there could be improvements with the personnel department here in school. Human resources department, those are ..[pause]..they are really difficult sometimes. They are really difficult, but also because we are not used to them. We never have meetings with them.*" (Interviewee 4)

It was suggested that THUAS needed to designate someone to give advice on the procedure and also on the general organisation of a teaching mobility exchange.

> "*Somebody… who can tell you that [Pause] that's [sic] those are the priorities now and later you can think of that. That would help 'cause then you lose less time doing it.*" (Interviewee 6)

> Another respondent also commented that: "*I think they could simply make a checklist or a process diagram for the exchange quite simply to clarify the steps of the process and the documents required. Right now, it's very much about, you know, contacting individually for these updates, so it seems very repetitive that information needs to be given each time to the same person and it isn't provided in the form of a booklet or flyer or something. It's quite simple, you just need a process diagram and links to the specific forms and when they need to be done and handed in, but that's not a very clear process right now."* (Interviewee 5)

It should be noted that this feedback was given by interviewee 5 to the mobility team of that programme, and that they have now produced an interactive document, complete with hyperlinks to all necessary documentation both internal to THUAS and external, etc., which addresses this request. This document would be easily adaptable for others to utilise should they choose to, if they have not done so already.

What can be derived from these findings is that in relation to the first research question, THUAS seems to lack some form of (strategic) alignment when it comes to mobility activities. Although mobility is

often encouraged, it is not embedded in the institutional framework. Different (international) programmes approach these forms of mobility in different ways. Where one employee felt supported and even received explicit goals from their management team, another interviewee felt (active) push-back against their mobility plans. Staff mobility funded by Erasmus+ is thus envisaged in different ways within the programmes of THUAS and is not embedded or institutionalized. This is shown by the lack of a coherent, common and comprehensive staff exchange policy.

When one looks at the notion of *affinity with hosting partner institution* and how that pays dividends for THUAS, there were a number of positive reactions from the respondents:

> "*It's so good for me to know and to realise that there is more than one world.*" (Interviewee 4)
>
> "*I think it's really important to see a bit more than your own room that you are always in*." (Interviewee 4)
>
> "*Well, it certainly helped me as a country tutor to build a relationship with the exchange coordinator there, so since then our communication and everything is much easier and much faster*." (Interviewee 2)

Building relationships with one's counterpart at a partner institution allows for easier communication and can help in strengthening the bond between institutions and/or programmes.

> "*I think I really learned a lot in terms of professional skills, just the didactics of how different students respond very differently to THUAS students, to the way of teaching, [pause] to the way that I teach. I was able to immediately implement with our students and, because I dared to go deeper in terms of the content and higher in terms of the level, I realised when I came back that our students could in fact do that as well.*
>
> *The whole way the university works was very different. So, there was a lot that I learned, cultural things but also how the university system works, how students respond, how you need to approach students differently from different cultures and backgrounds, if you have a not-so-diverse classroom as we are blessed with here. … So, there was a lot that I learned during that exchange. I think."* (Interviewee 3)

One of the things that we can see is that the funds are being used in an extremely productive way to allow lecturers to either undertake experimental teaching and learning strategies or see if the existing skills, methods and procedures they use in their teaching at THUAS are to any degree transferable to other contexts, environments and cohorts via opportunities afforded under the ERASMUS exchange, as evidenced from the answers of Interviewee 2, 3 and 7. One commented:

> *"I tested my elective there so it certainly added value in a way that I could see that one of my case studies was too long, or students found it too difficult or complex so I had to simplify it a bit for the course here. So, in that sense it really helped me to finalize my new elective [at THUAS]."* (Interviewee 2).
>
> Whilst another said "*Testing [it] with a basically only [national] audience, there were two exchange students in there, it was very different."* (Interviewee 3)

Clearly there are lessons to be learned here in relation to research question 2, as shown in the previous paragraphs, by developing intercultural competences and knowledge of other forms of pedagogy and also within the area of *solid communication skills*, both in terms of improving oneself as a part of the exchange experience and also by having a greater understanding of the learning experiences and needs of many students at THUAS who might benefit from this as well and, as was said:

> "*I would say my sensibility grew towards students from a non-Dutch background.*" (Interviewee 7)

This leads us to our last area of potentially successful impacts, *consideration of promotion and dissemination in advance*, and this is an area where our respondents seemed less happy. In this section

we will also broaden this to explicitly include the dissemination of individual experiences post-exchange, and the failure to often capitalise or celebrate the efforts of that person in contributing to the host institution while there, and to THUAS on their return. Not one of our seven respondents reported that they had been asked for a formal report by their line manager, and this was interpreted by some as downgrading their experience and the potential contributions that they could make to a programme in the future.

This lack of involvement at the programme manager level highlighted the lack of strategic thinking and planning going into this area. There appears to be a disconnect here with management at programme level, though one might conjecture that it is not at that level alone, which may not be totally their fault given that they are operating under time pressure and the need to prioritise more urgent problems, or 'firefighting', meaning that issues that are not immediately problematic, and paradoxically could add to the cache of the institution, are not addressed in the optimum way:

> "*I don't think it is because they don't want to or something. It is more that they don't realise that that is important and that there seems to be no time for this kind of exchange between management and colleagues*…" (Interviewee 6)

However, that is not to say that those who undertook the exchange did not report back in various forms, normally to a group of colleagues, either by short written reports for newsletters or blogs or via verbal presentations to staff groups and colleagues. Thus, we can see at least some evidence of Kennedy's idea of personal development spreading beyond only the actual exchange participants via cascade training or information dissemination (Kennedy, 2005). However, some reported that due to the pressure of work and a plethora of other demands on their time, it was difficult to interest colleagues in listening and potentially benefiting from their experiences:

> "*… also among colleagues that's not very common, then you have your little group, the people who are interested in what you do, but it's not that you would be more curious as to what everybody does. We don't create opportunities where you have the time, more the, what do you call that, peace, room in your head to have it about that. Except we all talk about organisation of everyday life and all that, and we are eaten by it. I don't know how you say that in English.*" (Interviewee 6)

One of the interviewees felt that more should be made of recording and publicising the efforts of those who did a teaching exchange:

> "*Well stories actually, so stories like mine, I think that helps. Because I think if you hear someone show enthusiasm for an activity, that is a really good way for people to actually go and do it themselves. So, I think a collection of stories from teachers who have done it will actually be beneficial for others. So, he has done it and like me he is a teacher here as well, so I'm going to do it as well."* (Interviewee 6)

This brings us to the limiting or more negative factors of *finances, workload, and the delegation of tasks.* In a sense it seems apposite to consider them all as belonging under the broad definition of resource allocation. Thus, we shall consider them as a package instead of individually and examine what suggestions our respondents had for reducing the effects of the limiting factors. When we speak of resources, we should not forget the opportunity costs inherent in taking part in such an exchange. If someone is abroad, then de facto they are generally unable to continue with their normal duties at the home institution, although some of their tasks which are capable of being performed remotely may well be expected of them, adding to the burden whilst on exchange and potentially taking time away from the cultural interactions they are there to experience. The very fact that they are away can lead to extra pressures on their return, with their work not being covered by others:

> "*There is quite a lot of time that goes into preparing a teaching exchange. Especially if you are going for an in-depth content programme, there is a lot of time teaching it there and you won't*

> *be getting a lot of work done for here [THUAS], and there is a lot that you need to catch up on when you come back.*" (Interviewee 3)
>
> "*What happened now for me at least was that I didn't get time off, so it means my work, sort of the week after, was twice the work load. [N]o one is going to say 'Oh you are going to [teaching exchange] so that means I am going to take your work for you'.*" (Interviewee 7)

When asked if they felt that many people could benefit from an Erasmus teaching mobility experience, there were mixed views about both the generality and also the methods of selection.

> *"[M]any of my colleagues also said, 'I don't think I could ever do that'. If that is already your basic attitude ….I don't think it will be beneficial to them and also, you know, if you are stressed already and you are going to teach stressfully, I don't see how that will benefit the students."* (Interviewee 7)
>
> "*It's such a good experience, it teaches you so much and on different levels. Some of my colleagues are the adventurous ones, they go often, but the other ones, they should go. It's often our team leader that decides who is allowed to go or not to go. And sometimes I think she should have chosen other people. People that don't ask for much.*" (Interviewee 7)

Thus, whilst some programme managers may view a teaching exchange as a reward, others seem to view it as something to be undertaken on top of the tasks that one is contracted to perform. The idea of being rewarded for undertaking an exchange is one that does not seem to hold sway in THUAS. Indeed, some see it as anything but:

> "*To do it in your own free time doesn't really feel like a reward. No!*" (Interviewee 1)

Three of our seven respondents had to either use their holiday allowance or take their DI hours (to be used for study leave, sabbaticals), even though the period of their teaching exchange did not exceed one week.

The notion of recognition, or should one say the lack of recognition, was one that was brought up by interviewees. Interviewees 2, 3, 5, and 6 all felt that it should be an integral part of the R&O (Staff Performance Appraisal) scheme. At present, it is not formally recognised within it. Where it did form a part of the discussions, there seemed to be mixed reactions to how it was dealt with. Some clearly felt it did not receive the recognition it merited:

> "*Well, they only asked me did I go or not and I said 'yes' then they said 'ok then you have achieved your target for the year'. (laughs). Well, they seem to think it's great that you go on exchange but they don't really ask you to elaborate on it, or why was it great or what did you achieve there.*" (Interviewee 2)
>
> *"[I]t was probably mentioned as one of the tasks I have, but discussed in the sense of how good was that or do you want to do more of that and blah blah blah. No."* (Interviewee 6)
>
> "… whilst others differed, and it was commented upon by one respondent that they did feel it was noteworthy and that "*It was much appreciated that I went on staff exchange, it seemed to be highly valued. And I think it should be reflected in your R&O cycle because it means you are doing something additional, something extra that other colleagues are maybe not willing to do."* (Interviewee 3)

It is quite clear that the main intention of the Erasmus+ programme, namely increasing and sharing knowledge to further academic knowledge and the European Union sense of community, is achieved overall when looking at the responses given by the interviewees. They acknowledge that the programme provided them with (unique) experiences, which furthers their understanding and increases their ability to teach in an international setting. However, in relation to research question 2, because some basic (pre-)conditions are not met by THUAS, such as administrative support or setting clearly defined goals, the overall effect on the institution is mitigated.

4 Conclusion

It is evident from the above that a range of questions become apparent. Despite the limited nature of the size and scope of this piece of research, the results would seem to indicate that there are opportunities to delve deeper into the issues raised in this brief document. Such issues could be split into two differing categories. Firstly institutional. What are the perceived advantages of academic mobility as viewed by the institution? Also, as previously noted above, what is the level of importance given to international mobility activities by managers. One can hypothesise that the level of importance might rise in programmes that are more internationally focused, or are taught through the medium of a language other than that of the sending institution, although this remains to be proven. What are the criteria for choosing certain individuals for mobility opportunities? What are the institutional goals that managers are seeking to meet when using mobility opportunities for their staff? For individuals, there are questions such as why those individuals choose to take up such opportunities and what they, as individuals, see as the benefits of doing so, and are those benefits realised? In addition, there is the effort to ascertain what support, training, or advice might be needed prior to the mobility. All of these areas are ripe for further in-depth research in order to give a clearer understanding of the place of mobility, including virtual mobility, in modern higher education.

To paraphrase de Wit, internationalisation is not a goal in itself but simply one tool that can be used to help improve the standard of educational experience for all. Clearly there is much to be improved around the operationalisation of ERASMUS mobility, although one should also be prepared to limit one's expectations of what one period of mobility can do to influence an individual, let alone to influence the effects upon a programme – especially when one considers the relatively small number of staff who undertake such periods of mobility. This should presumably spread out to more people in the next ERASMUS programme, which will emphasise the role of virtual mobility much more explicitly and thus may be more inclusive to the general staff, as well as to a far greater number of students, than the present scheme is. No doubt the shift to online course provision and the curtailing of the availability of travel inherent in the COVID-19 crisis will give further impetus to the notion of virtual exchange or internationalisation at home. This may help to reduce or remove the largest barriers hindering the participation of staff who did not participate in previous mobility as identified in the Erasmus+ Higher Education Impact Study ("European Union," 2019, p. 119), namely, family and personal relationships inhibiting the availability to travel, and the requirement of performing existing work responsibilities at the home institution.

> The need for goal setting prior to a teaching exchange and evaluation on return to ensure it meets the goals of the individual and the institution.

4.1 Recommendations

The following are recommendations specifically focused on and drawn from research relating to staff mobility at THUAS. Whilst not necessarily directly transferable to other institutions, they may be of use as a starting point for analysis. Considering the research questions, when we evaluate the responses to Verbeek's (2019) factors for success and the limiting factors for staff mobility, we can identify areas that are ripe for improvement in order to make THUAS's use of ERASMUS+ staff mobility more efficient and effective, in order to further THUAS's goal of using internationalisation to increase the overall quality of the education provided. Whilst the following recommendations directly relate to the experiences in THUAS related above, they may also be applicable more generally to those in other institutions. It is hoped that their implementation would help, in however small a way, to increase the quality of education on offer.

It is thus recommended that there be further research both within THUAS and in a wider context in order to properly ascertain the situation with regard to academic staff mobility. THUAS should create

a central policy that sets out criteria and goals for staff mobility and locates staff mobility within the notion of increasing the overall quality of the education provided, and also relates to notions of staff development under the broader policy of HRM. The policy, whilst central, should also maintain an element of flexibility in order to meet the needs and aspirations of individual programmes, student cohorts and individual staff members.

The possibility of ERASMUS staff mobility opportunities (particularly those of virtual mobility) be promoted more vigorously throughout THUAS to include those outside the 'mobile elite' with consideration being given to aiding those programmes where there is little or no academic staff mobility, in order to allow them to also benefit from such opportunities. The 'idea' of undertaking a teaching mobility should not only be encouraged within THUAS but form a recognised part of an academic's planned work hours, where personal circumstances allow. Time should be allocated to take advantage of a valuable and useful developmental tool which benefits both the institution and the individual. THUAS management should also be more aware of the potential for the piloting of new developments relating to curricula and pedagogical change whilst undertaking teaching mobility prior to implementing them at THUAS.

The goals for future teaching exchanges be set in conjunction with line managers and monitored on return. The reporting of exchange experiences need to be more effectively communicated and used as a learning tool for others. It is also imperative that a comprehensive review of mobility activities, both existing and potential, be undertaken and a coherent strategy for implementation be addressed at each level of the organisation. In order to be most productive, for the institution collectively as well as the individual staff, this strategy should be broad in focus, integrated into the overall goals of the degree programmes and be fully inclusive of all staff.

Declaration of conflicting interests

No potential conflict of interest is reported by the author.

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Supplementary Table 1. Interview questions

No.	Interview questions
1.	Why did you decide to go on a teaching exchange?
2.	Why [place] in particular?
3.	Was it your initiative or your programme's?
4.	What goals did you set for yourself from the exchange and did you achieve them?
5.	Were there any other goals set by your programme and did you achieve them?
6.	Did you have a meeting to discuss your exchange with your line manager (or similar) before departure?
7.	If so, what did you discuss?
8.	Did you have a meeting to discuss your exchange with your line manager (or similar) after your return?
9.	If so, what did you discuss?
10.	Were you asked for any written report (other than that required under ERASMUS)?
11.	Was the exchange discussed at any R&O session?
12.	If no, do you think it should have been? If yes, was it seen as a plus or a neutral activity?
13.	Were you given any reward for going apart from the ERASMUS grant, i.e. time off, other form of recognition?
14.	What did you gain personally from the exchange?
15.	Did you change/refine your teaching/admin practices as a result of this exchange?
16.	Was there anything that you learned or brought back from your exchange that you shared with colleagues?
17.	If, so how did this impact upon the programme?
18.	What , if any, efforts were made to publicise your experience of exchange?
19.	How would you rate the overall exchange experience? Was it positive, neutral, negative why?
20.	What could THUAS have done to make the exchange experience better for you?
21.	What would you suggest is the best way to encourage others to undertake a teaching/admin exchange?
22.	Should it be rewarded in some way ? (If so how) or should it be seen as a requirement of the job?
23.	If a teaching exchange is to be made a compulsory element of the job, how often should one have to undertake one? Every x years?

Note. No. = number of interview questions.

Supplementary Table 2. Interview subjects

No.	Programme (language of instruction)	Country of mobility
1.	International Communication Management (English)	Czech Republic
2.	European Studies (English)	Iceland
3.	European Studies (English)	Iceland, Czech Republic
4.	Communication and Multi Media Design (Dutch)	Germany
5.	European Studies (English)	France
6.	Social Work (Dutch)	Germany
7.	ICT (Dutch)	Norway

Note. No. = number of subjects.

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Creating a positive elementary school climate based on cooperation between the form teacher, headmaster and social pedagogue

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Abstract: The empirical study presents the dimension of positive school climate using illustrative models that reflect the statements of the participants of a qualitatively oriented research survey including semi-structured interviews. The theoretical introduction deals with the definition of key concepts and briefly outlines selected domestic and foreign models of positive climate. Based on the interviews, it was found that interpersonal relationships are important for all actors who create the school climate and influence mutual cooperation. Teachers point to the need for a fair approach to all pupils; the school principal pays attention to physical and social-emotional security; and the social educator seeks to work with groups of pupils as well as provide counselling for teachers. The aim is to link all these processes in the interest of a positive school climate. For this reason, it is necessary to focus on the mutual cooperation of selected actors who affect the school climate and to reveal possible shortcomings in the field of their cooperation. These shortcomings include, in particular, little involvement, disinterest, lack of concern or poor school philosophy.

Keywords: cooperation, elementary school, form teacher, headmaster, school climate, social pedagogue

Spolupráce třídního učitele, ředitele a sociálního pedagoga při vytváření pozitivního klimatu v základní škole

Abstrakt: Studie představuje dimenze pozitivního klimatu školy v jednotlivých modelech, které odrážejí výpovědi respondentů, které byly získány na základě kvalitativně orientovaného výzkumného šetření v rámci polostrukturovaných rozhovorů. Teoretický úvod se věnuje vymezení stěžejních pojmů a stručně nastiňuje vybrané tuzemské i zahraniční modely pozitivního klimatu. Na základě rozhovorů bylo zjištěno, že mezilidské vztahy jsou důležité pro všechny činitele, kteří klima školy vytváří a vzájemnou spoluprací ovlivňují. Učitelé poukazují na nutnost spravedlivého přístupu ke všem žákům, ředitel školy věnuje pozornost fyzickému a sociálně-emočnímu bezpečí a sociální pedagog se snaží o práci s kolektivem žáků, ale i o poradenství pro učitele. Cílem je propojit všechny tyto procesy v zájmu pozitivního klimatu školy. Z tohoto důvodu je nutné soustředit se

na vzájemnou spolupráci vybraných činitelů klimatu školy a odhalit možné nedostatky v oblasti jejich kooperace. Mezi tyto nedostatky patří zejména malá angažovanost, nezájem, obavy nebo filozofie školy.

Klíčová slova: klima školy, ředitel, třídní učitel, sociální pedagog, základní škola, spolupráce, model

1 Introduction

The issue of school climate and other variations of climate (school climate, teaching climate, faculty climate) is already well known in the field of educational research, particularly in the context of the identification of the current and preferred climate (Lašek, 2012) or evaluation of the school climate by agents (parents, teachers, pupils) (Grecmanová, 2008). The concept of climate in other countries is broader and more sophisticated and the research is more variable, and it is not restricted only to questionnaire surveys. Moreover, there are obvious efforts to intervene in a school's negative climate (Phillips & Rowley, 2016). They also monitor the relationship between pupil and teacher, which aims to monitor the relationship between class and teacher (Veiskarami, Ghadampour, & Mottaghinia, 2017). This study aims to introduce qualitative research into the dimensions of a positive climate according to selected school agents.[1] Subsequently, it analyses the nature of the cooperation between these agents to create a positive school climate. The selected agents are teachers, pupils and school management – the headmaster and his deputy, as well as parents and administrative and operational staff. Not only school employees, but also other external agencies cooperating with school – statutory authorities, the social-legal child protection authority, the police of the Czech Republic, etc. – have an impact on the climate. Teachers, pupils and parents are most often selected for climate research (Grecmanová, Dopita, Poláchová Vašťatková, & Skopalová, 2012; Pinkas & Bulić, 2017; "Shared leadership," 2018). The questionnaires are most often used not only in the Czech but also foreign pedagogical field (Dalbert & Stöber, 2002; Edgren & Hiffling, 2010; Tapia & Heredia, 2008). Certain members of the school environment were selected for research purposes. From management, the position of headmaster was selected; therefore, he is an important factor in the school climate (Adams, Ware, Miskell, & Forsyth, 2016; Grecmanová, 2008). Other important factors in school climate are form teachers, who influence the climate in their classrooms. Based on experience abroad from Slovakia, Germany, Poland and Finland (Cameron & Moss, 2011; Kraus, 2014), social pedagogue, a position that is still developing and seeking its place in the Czech school environment, was also chosen for research as a member of a school counselling centre. Cooperation of selected members is briefly outlined within the theoretical background. The main concepts and selected theories will be presented, followed by the definition of a positive school climate, its dimensions and areas according to the National School Climate Center ("Shared leadership," 2018).

2 Positive school climate

There is a terminological inconsistency in the Czech pedagogical environment, thus different terms are often used, like the 'good climate', 'supportive climate' (Lašek, 2001), 'favourable climate' (Grecmanová, 2008) or 'open climate' of the school (Mareš & Čáp, 2007). In the Czech environment, a positive school climate is considered to be an environment in which a cooperative and healthy competitive atmosphere is encouraged (Hrabal, 2002). The National Center on Safe Supportive Learning Environments (2018) conceives a positive climate as a phenomenon associated with the pupils' school achievements, as the climate also affects educational attainment. Understanding the

[1] The research is set at the second stage of elementary school (which in the Czech educational system are grades 6–9). Selected agents for this research are the headmaster, form teacher and social pedagogue.

climate framework can help teachers identify the key areas they will focus on to create favourable and safe climatic conditions in school. A sustainable and positive school climate helps with the development of young people and with teaching them important knowledge, so they will be able to live a productive and satisfying life in a democratic society. This climate includes norms, values and expectations forwarded by people who have acted in the social sphere and feel emotionally and physically safe. Everyone is involved and respected. Students and pupils, families and educators cooperate to develop and contribute to the shared school vision (Cohen, McCabe, Michelli, & Pickeral, 2009).

The model of a positive school climate according to the National School Climate Center ("Shared leadership," 2018), where the term sustainable climate in connection with a positive climate is used, is presented further; moreover, this model is an inspiration for qualitative research and its conclusions. The model is presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Areas and dimensions of a positive school climate

Areas	Dimensions
Safety	Rules and Norms
	Physical Security
	Social-Emotional Security
Teaching and Learning	Support for Learning
	Social and Civic Learning
Interpersonal Relationships	Respect for Diversity
	Social Support—Adults
	Social Support—Students
Institutional Environment	School Connectedness/Engagement
	Physical Surroundings
Staff Only	Leadership
	Professional Relationships

Source: National School Climate Center ("Shared leadership," 2018).

The presented model (Table 1) contains five areas of positive school climate, which are then specified into dimensions. The National School Climate Center has a long-term focus on positive climate content, which it seeks to research and verify by collaboration with the school or at various research levels. For this reason, the positive climate model has been increased by one area, namely All Populations, which is particularly concerned with protecting pupils from social networks. Rudasill, Snyder, Levinson and Adelson (2017) are among the authors who have devoted their work to a positive school climate. The research team presented the *Systems model of school climate* (Rudasill et al., 2017) based on the analysis of several selected theories. It was Anderson's model from 1982 in which emphasis was placed on adherence to rules within the school (Anderson, 1982). Furthermore, the authors analysed the model of Hoy and Hannum (1997), where closer cooperation with parents and a higher degree of collegiate behaviour were already foreseen. The model of Creemers and Rezzigt (1999) also addresses the teacher-pupil relationship. However, the above-mentioned *Systems model of school climate* is primarily based on the work of Cohen et al. (2009) and Thapa, Cohen, Guffey, and Higgins-D'Alessandro (2013), where the emphasis is put on ensuring safety during teaching, the teacher-pupil relationship and relationships among pupils. The National Center on Safe Supportive Learning Environments (2018) presents a school climate model that addresses safety and support in the school environment and focuses on involvement in specific parts of the model. Emphasis is placed on the relationship between teacher and pupil, which is essential for a positive climate. Respect for diversity is also part of the model and is related to respect for other racial and religious affiliations. Furthermore, it deals with participation, i.e. participation in school life, which means engaging in those activities that can positively influence the climate (extracurricular activities of children, trips, etc.). The model also

includes emotional and physical security, particularly situations where the pupil does not have to be afraid of teachers and classmates. The safety part also includes the issue of substance abuse in the context of risky behaviour. The authors devoted the last part of the model to the environment, namely the academic environment of the teachers. Furthermore, it mentions discipline, where there is room for rules which should be introduced to pupils in advance.

Other interesting models are presented, for example, by Lane-Garon, Yergat, and Kralowec (2012), where they try to carry on the improvement of the current school climate. Townsend et al. (2017) talk about a positive climate, focusing on non-stigmatizing environments. The common feature of all these models is the pupils' safety, which cannot be clearly described. Safety should be seen as a non-threatening environment in the classroom and in the school, in which all agents of the school climate should participate.

3 Cooperation of selected agents

Píšová (2004) states that for the cooperation of teachers, it is important to maintain a favourable social climate in which open and friendly communication, trust, and willingness to listen to each other and help is present. In the absence of a favourable climate and mutual collegiality, its artificial enforcement is an obstacle to cooperation between teachers (Dewitt, 2018). Harpe developed a model of cooperation that includes four components. These include working time collaborations, setting and adhering to common goals, a results orientation and mutual support (Harpe, 2016). Statistically significant differences were found during the evaluation of cooperation among teachers and pupils' school results, which could primarily depend on the cooperation of teachers. The study stated that one uncooperative teacher could disrupt the whole concept of school functioning.

The study not only discusses cooperation between teachers, but also focuses on the cooperation of selected agents of the school climate, namely form teacher, headmaster and social pedagogue. All three agents are briefly described below. Hermochová (2009) states that in the current school system, form teachers are primarily expected to fulfil coordination and integration functions. On the contrary, the work of a form teacher is discussed by many authors (e.g. Bréda, Čapek, Dandová, & Kendíková, 2017). The form teacher plays an irreplaceable role in a pupil's life and should have a wide range of competences and skills. Gillernová and Krejčová (2012) pay particular attention to the social skills of the teacher, meaning the importance of respecting the personality of the pupil, colleagues, and parents. Furthermore, the authors mention the authenticity of teachers' speeches, empathy, listening, differentiation of experiences and feelings from reflections, judgments and opinions about oneself and others. The teacher must be able to praise and to be a conflict manager (Dicken, 2013). "The headmaster is the principal and irreplaceable person of each school, responsible for the school's development and quality results" (Trojan, Tureckiová, & Trunda, 2015, p. 30). There is a growing demand for the position of headmaster in connection to the legal subjectivity of schools, a change in the state organization and many changes in the school management system (Dědina & Odcházel, 2007). Kalnický, Malčík, and Uhlař (2012) and Murphy and Louis (2018) include the following among the important processes managed by the headmaster:

- **development of the school, climate and relationships;**
- maintaining relationships with parents and the public;
- learning and teaching with knowledge exams;
- guidance counselling;
- management and quality control;
- provide support for individual needs including special learning needs;
- structure of curriculum and study programmes.

According to Grecmanová (2003), the headmaster's characteristics influence a positive school climate, i.e. empathy, 'non-authoritative' genuine behaviour, acceptance of others, self-identity, and activity (Oyetunji, 2010). The position of social pedagogue in elementary school is somewhat less widespread. Based on an analysis of the current situation, there are about 32 public elementary schools (information from the school year 2017/2018) where the social pedagogue acts as a member of school counselling and does not have other functions such as teacher assistant, educator, etc. Kraus defines a social pedagogue as follows:

> "A social pedagogue, on the professional level, manages and organizes the educational process and affects the subject of the education on two levels: integration – the social pedagogue focuses on persons (clients) who need professional help and support (people in crisis, under a psychological, social or psychosocial threat, who are becoming an obstacle for their surroundings); and development – the social pedagogue supports and consolidates desirable personality development" (Kraus, 2014, p. 198).

Cameron and Moss (2011) argue that the role of the social pedagogue can be understood not only in a pedagogical context but also more comprehensively as care and education on behalf of society. As examples, the authors mention leisure activities, early childhood care and other options of education with some social overlap. According to Stephens, the activities of a social pedagogue are different and have various descriptions. Examples include childcare, educational psychology, centres for substance abuse, personal assistance and community work (Stephens, 2013). The fact should be stressed that Czech legislation does not recognise a social pedagogue as a pedagogical worker. However, the Association of Educators in Social Pedagogy helped to open up Act No. 563/2004 Coll., on pedagogical staff, as amended ("Act No. 563/2004," 2019), with social pedagogues implemented within it. Considering the future conclusions of the legislative process, the position of the social pedagogue within Czech primary schools may undergo significant transformation. This is not to say, however, that social pedagogues do not already work in Czech primary schools. We can already find many schools which employ social pedagogues within the school counselling service. Their job descriptions correspond to the job description issued by the Association of Educators in Social Pedagogy ("Association of Educators," 2020). One area of focus is in promoting a positive climate within the school and classroom, in order to secure working relationships between individual school climate agents.

All these agents are connected by the school environment, in which they strive to create a positive school climate. Among other things, this research requires the definition of a school as a social institution.

> "The school fulfils several functions (an activity with a specific purpose, task, goal and mission) that express how useful it is for society. The functions of the school justify its existence in society, express the meaning of the school's activities and its relationship to the needs of society, and determine its position among other institutions. Schools are established on the initiative of the state and certain groups within society (private founders, churches, etc.). The relationship between society and the school reflects the general objectives that the school should pursue through its activities" (Walterová & Greger, 2009, p. 10).

The content of basic education is a part of the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education ("Act No. 561/2004," 2019).

4 Materials and methods

This study aims to identify and describe the positive climate dimensions created by the headmaster, form teacher and social pedagogue;[2] and characterize the cooperation to create a positive climate between headmaster, form teacher of the second stage of elementary schools and social pedagogue, based on existing models of positive climate.[3]

A qualitative research strategy with the design of a case study and a semi-structured interview method was used to achieve the research goal. Specific selection criteria were set for the selection of the research sample. It was important for the sample that the public elementary school has a social pedagogue position. Based on my survey of the current situation, 32 elementary schools were found. Another criterion for the research was that the school have grades 6 – 9, with at least one class from each grade. A total of 25 elementary schools were addressed. Based on the feedback, four more schools were contacted. One elementary school was chosen, as it employs a social pedagogue full-time. This elementary school has a second stage, with 224 pupils educated in nine classes. Altogether, seven form teachers took part in the research. Two other form teachers refused to take part in the research because of their workload. Two other agents selected for the research were the headmaster and the social pedagogue. Semi-structured interviews were used to determine the content and importance of the school climate according to selected agents, in the context of the school climate dimensions according to the National School Climate Center (see above). At the same time, the questions in the interview focused on the area of cooperation between selected agents in the context of the school climate. The interview for the social pedagogue consisted of 28 questions and covered six areas that focus on field competence, relationships and collaboration with teachers, pupils and school management, the concept of the school, and the area related to climate. The interview with the headmaster had 33 questions covering similar areas as those for the social pedagogue. Interviews with form teachers were designed the same way. The interview with the headmaster took 50 minutes, and the one with the social pedagogue lasted 56 minutes. Interviews with form teachers ranged from 15 to 45 minutes. Teachers had worked at the selected elementary school in the range of 3 to 20 years. All interviews were recorded[4] and subsequently transcribed and coded.

The method of data analysis was open coding, i.e. work with data snippets, codes and categories. Based on the interviews with form teachers, categories were created on the basis of codes from respondents' statements.[5] The interview with the headmaster, who has been in the education sector for 30 years and is in the position for a fifth year, was coded the same way.[6] The interview with the social pedagogue, who has been working in the selected school for three years, was analysed in the same way.[7] At the same time, there was a detailed study of one case that was defined by the case study design (Stake, 2005; Švaříček & Šeďová, 2007).

Cmap Tools was chosen for better illustration of the individual dimension of positive climate according to the selected factors. Individual models result from the created codes and categories and adhere to

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2 The research question is: What are the dimensions of a positive climate according to the headmaster, form teachers and social pedagogue?

3 The research question is: What is the character of the cooperation between the form teacher, the headmaster and the social pedagogue based on the models of positive climate?

4 Respondent agreed to this method.

5 Examples of the categories: What belongs to the school climate?; Rules, rules and rules again…; Positive climate = the approach towards everyone; I want a positive school climate, so what should I do?; etc.

6 Examples of the categories: A school counselor and social pedagogue are our advantages!; Form teacher – some cannot be changed; I cannot feel the positive climate; To improve the school climate… yes, but how… that is hard!; etc.

7 Examples of the categories: Small problem – job duties; Form teachers are hard to crack; Positive climate? Yes! But we need to go to classes; The headmaster is support; etc.

the model structure according to the National School Climate Center ("Shared leadership," 2018). The presented areas are the same as in the sample model, yet the specific dimensions are based on the categories and codes that emerged from the specific interviews. For this reason, three models of positive climate according to the selected agents (respondents) are presented, as well as a model that characterizes cooperation in creating a positive school climate. The created models are supplemented by respondents' statements and conclusions of other research surveys.

The conclusions that will be presented below cannot be generalized – this is not the aim of the text. The intention is to understand a particular school in terms of creating a positive school climate through selected agents.

5 The model-expressed results and discussion

The below-detailed models were created on the basis of categories and codes. Examples of individual categories, codes and respondent testimony are given in the summary table for each model. Tables with relevant categories, codes and statements of respondents are given in the annexes to this article (Supplementary Table 1, 2, and 3).

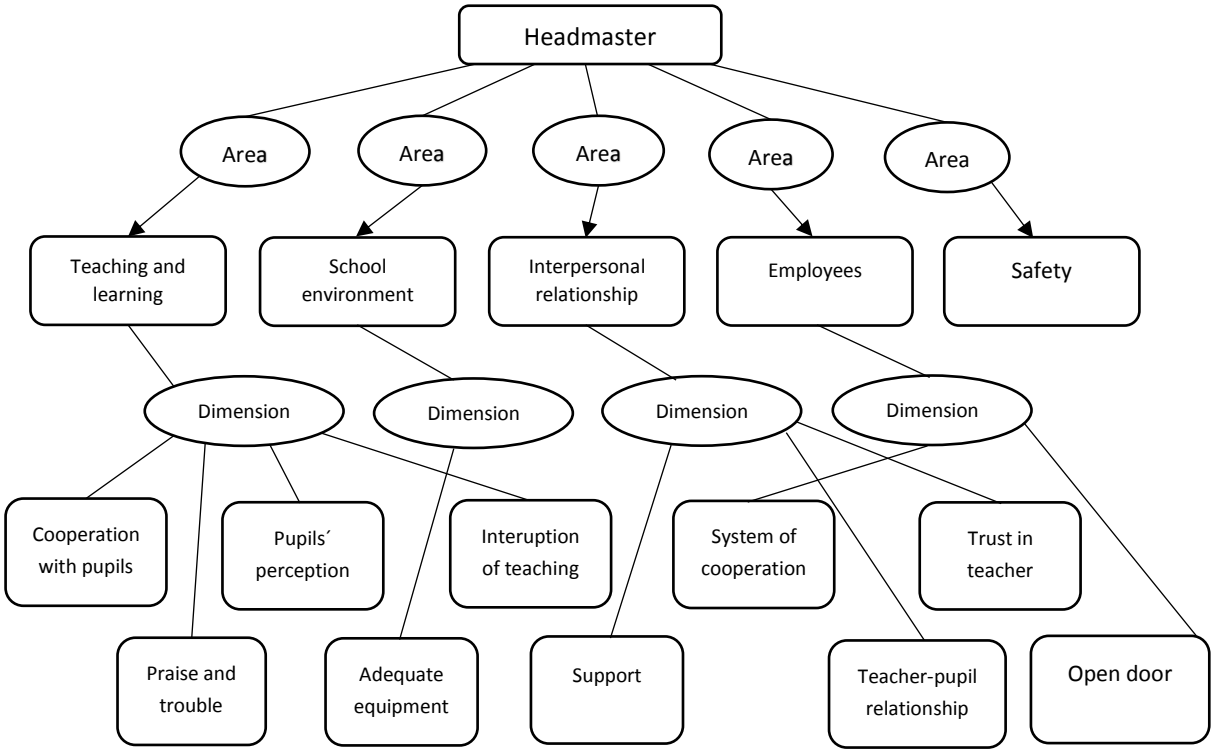

Figure 1 Model of a positive school climate according to the headmaster

Source: Author.

Specific dimensions (codes based on the open coding of the interview with the headmaster) were included in the areas from the positive climate model of the National School Climate Council ("The 13 dimensions," 2015). Some dimensions in Figure 1 appear in multiple areas. On the contrary, some areas remain content-free, i.e. without dimensions, as respondents did not comment on the area or spoke too briefly. The headmaster mostly focused on teaching and learning (most of the dimensions/codes are a part of this area), **where cooperation with pupils, support and trouble, pupils' perception and interruption of teaching** have been included. The headmaster perceives teaching as a central part of the educational process which is reflected in the classroom climate (school climate). By cooperation with pupils, it is meant that the headmaster teaches some classes at the second stage. *As a headmaster, I usually meet pupils while I am teaching.* He also mentioned visiting the classes for

different reasons. *Of course, I also meet pupils when there is some trouble or I come with praise, which is very important. You can't just punish.* The headmaster tries to read the mood in the classrooms: *At the second stage of the elementary school, pupils are wild, even though the ninth-graders are fine. But other classes have individuals who can influence the whole class.* The social aspect, in terms of the interruption dimension, can be considered very important. *I can stop teaching and address what is important at that moment.* The area of relationships between pupils, their problems and the reason for their inability to focus are considered important in this case. The school environment, another area of the model, is filled with the dimension of **adequate equipment.** *We are well equipped, and we have submitted a project for the modernization of some classrooms. However, we have an old computer room with dying computers…* Understandably, the headmaster perceives the material and didactic equipment very strongly. This may be due to worries about sufficient funds and complaints from some teachers.

Interpersonal relationships consist of three dimensions. The first dimension is devoted to **support,** which partly belongs to the **employees** area as well**.** From the position of the headmaster – in the context of interpersonal relationships – this type of support concerns parents and institutions. *There is a lack of support for parents and institutions, i.e., the social-legal child protection authority*. It was stated in the interview that some measures are not sufficiently monitored and thus, in that case, parents do not consider cooperation with the school to be adequate. Support in the context of employees concerns the opportunities for further education in the form of seminars, courses, etc., along with other activities for the consolidation of teachers. *Adaptation courses remain without response.* The last area is devoted to safety, but it remains unfulfilled with dimensions. This conclusion does not coincide with the selected models described above; moreover, the safety area in those models is at the forefront. For example, The National Center on Safe Supportive Learning Environments (2018) model involves emotional safety and physical safety, and also focuses on preventing substance use. Based on the established model, it is possible to deduce the current situation at the selected elementary school from the position of the headmaster. This is the model that is expected to change over time and with school development. The headmaster places great emphasis on teaching and learning, and also pays great attention to pupils and their problems. The headmaster expects to create a school climate (and classroom climate) during teaching; however, at the second stage, he does not yet feel a positive school climate.

The model is further described in the context of a positive school climate according to Thapa et al. (2013), who sees the importance in these particular points:

- **safety – physical safety, but also social-emotional safety for all participants in school life.** As mentioned above, the model of positive school climate does not work with safety dimensions at all. Therefore, it can be concluded that there are no risky manifestations in the school such as bullying or cyberbullying. This fact is also supported by interviews with other respondents. The poor school results of pupils and the parents' lack of interest in cooperation are considered to be the fundamental problems.
- **relationships in the school environment – respect for diversity, commitment and social support.** Interpersonal relationships play a very important role in the headmaster's model, primarily the teacher-pupil relationship. He believes that their relationship must be filled with trust. The respondent stated that in each class the influence of the form teacher was reflected. He was less concerned with the relationships between pupils.
- **learning – social, emotional, ethical and other types of learning.** The headmaster perceives this area positively and as being essential for creating a positive school climate. He believes that during the time of teaching, the school climate (and of course classroom climate) can be shaped. This involves not only cognitive goals and the realization of the learning unit's goal but also the setting of effective goals, which are particularly difficult to achieve. The analysed model by Thapa et al. (2013) shows that social and emotional learning is important for pupils.

- **the physical environment of the school**. In the context of the environment, the headmaster mentioned adequate equipment. Some classes will undergo the process of improvement and modernization. The headmaster is interested in the physical environment from the perspective of financial support. However, further in the interview, the environment was not mentioned.
- **the process of improving one's work**. The respondent tries to involve the school in various projects and activities that help the teacher to take a step with a minimal financial burden. However, there is no positive response from the teachers. He spoke rather marginally about the steps he needs to take in his position. Shen et al. (2015) presented research on the teachers' motivation to improve their work. It has been shown that a positive work attitude greatly affects the climate of the teaching staff, which is reflected in the overall school climate.

Thapa et al. (2013) further argue that the negative effects may result from the negative (unfavourable) school climate. This may affect pupils and result in psychological problems or substance abuse.

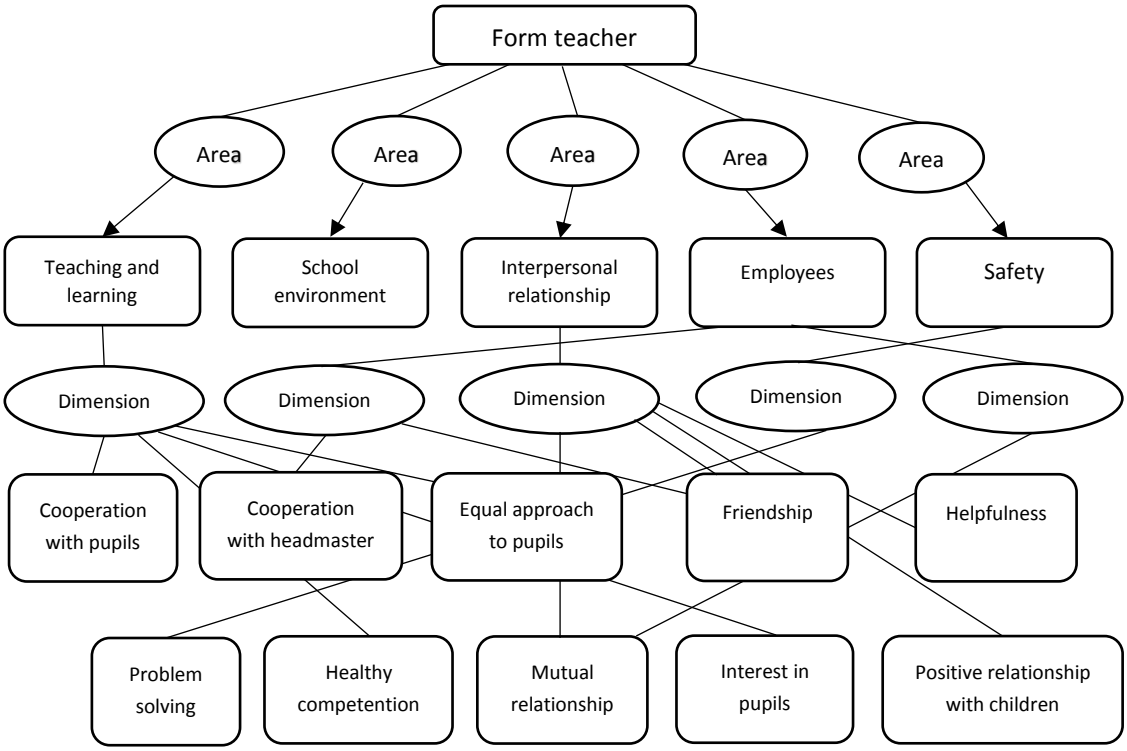

Figure 2 Model of positive school climate according to second-stage form teachers

Source: Author.

The same procedure as in the previous case was followed in developing a school climate model based on interviews with form teachers. Selected areas in Figure 2 are more saturated, as there were seven interviews conducted, and thus more codes were created. The first area, teaching and learning, contains the following dimension – **cooperation with pupils, equal approach to pupils, healthy competition and interest in the pupil**. More respondents mentioned cooperation with pupils. However, the content of this cooperation was very difficult to define, as teachers could not specify it. In the context of the respondents' statements, it is possible to define it as a certain pupil's participation in teaching (often during the preparation). Teachers evaluate the cooperation of pupils positively. School climate is shaped by …*a fair approach to all, human approach, school trips*… Respondents tend to be interested in pupils, respect their opinion and listen to them. Form teachers also strive to establish a trustworthy relationship with pupils. The area of the school environment contains no dimension, yet there are several reasons for that. Form teachers do not deal with the financial aspect of class improvement, and they also do not have to devote much time to the decoration of classrooms,

corridors or notice boards. Moreover, the teachers did not evaluate the cleanliness of the school in their interviews. Only one respondent evaluated class cleanliness as kept by the pupils. The third area is interpersonal relationships, which include the **dimensions of cohesion, friendship, friendliness, mutual relationship and positive relationship with children**. Pupils often turn to form teachers to seek relationship advice – relationships between pupils, but also, according to the statement of one respondent, the relationship between teacher and pupil. Another respondent also stated that it is necessary to promote cohesion and friendship among children to achieve a positive climate. At the same time, teachers must take a friendly and fair approach towards children.

The area of employees is filled with the following dimensions – cooperation with the headmaster and mutual relationships. Collaboration with the headmaster mainly includes problem-solving contact *…whenever I need school management to solve a problem.* Cooperation with the headmaster also affects the organization of school events or *…production of a concert, deadlines, etc.* One respondent stated that the cooperation of the headmaster only applies to his consultation hours. The last area of the model is safety, with the dimension of **problem-solving assistance**. This dimension mainly includes relationship problems, as already mentioned. In addition, pupils turn to teachers to resolve poor school results and problems with some subjects. Teachers most often use the method of conversation when resolving problems with pupils. From the respondents' statements, it can be deduced that they can evaluate the climate in their classes, and thus they perceive and evaluate the classroom climate more than the overall school climate or the second-stage climate. However, from the semi-structured interview questions and their responses, it can be stated that the school climate is assessed rather negatively, and as being insufficient *…After six months, the climate at the second stage is acceptable.* Nevertheless, they perceive the classroom climate (in their classes) to be considerably better, i.e. positive or good *…the classroom climate is quite good.*

This conclusion may be caused by the fear of an unfavourable evaluation of one's class and, at the same time, of a negative evaluation of one's work. Classroom teachers can perceive their contribution to the overall second stage of the elementary school climate as significantly smaller and not so important. Grecmanová (2008) states that a positive climate from the teachers' point of view is formed, for example, by the helpfulness of teachers, fair treatment of children, individual support for each pupil, and appropriate motivation of pupils. This was confirmed by the form teachers to be a part of the school's positive climate model. A fair and helpful approach to pupils is stated as being vital. The model shows that teachers place great emphasis on interpersonal relationships, teaching and learning. A study of the importance of interpersonal relationships was conducted by Hamre and Pianta (2009) in the kindergarten environment. They attempted to verify the importance of the pupil-teacher relationship. It was found that a conflicting and negative relationship between teacher and pupil significantly influences the pupil's relationship to further education.

The research showed insufficient results from studying and manifestations of risk on the part of pupils who had a negative relationship with their teacher (Lašek, 2001). The important role of relationships was also appreciated in Quin's research (2017). This cross-sectional study described the content of teacher-pupil relationships. He also verified the importance of these relationships, as the following are crucial for them – psychological engagement, grades (the pupil's school results), regular school attendance and classroom disturbance. The relationship between teacher and pupil is important, but it is not the only one. It is obvious that teaching and learning are a crucial area for teachers, and in foreign surveys (Shen et al., 2015; Warburton, 2017) many terms can be found that relate to this dimension, i.e. motivational and performance climate.

Warburton (2017) perceives the motivational climate positively, as it encourages pupils to continue their work. The second type of climate, defined by the author, is the performance climate, related to competitiveness and competition. Respondents also tend to create healthy competition among pupils. The research of Shen et al. (2015) discusses the motivation of pupils to learn. They focused their attention on the relationship between a pupil's motivation to learn and the burnout syndrome of teachers. The burnout syndrome is a fundamental environmental factor that affects the motivation of

pupils, the pupils' relationship with the school, and consequently the school climate. Part of the process of learning and teaching involves the pupils' school results. As an example, the respondents consider the pupils' school results as a significant aspect of the school climate, one which has a negative influence on him. However, it is always important to try to determine why his results are bad. Research by Ramsey, Spira, Parisi, and Rebok (2016) points to the inverse relationship between school climate and pupils' school results. Their research showed that the resulting school climate affects the performance of pupils as well as the teachers' work. There is a relationship between the climate and the work results of teachers and pupils.

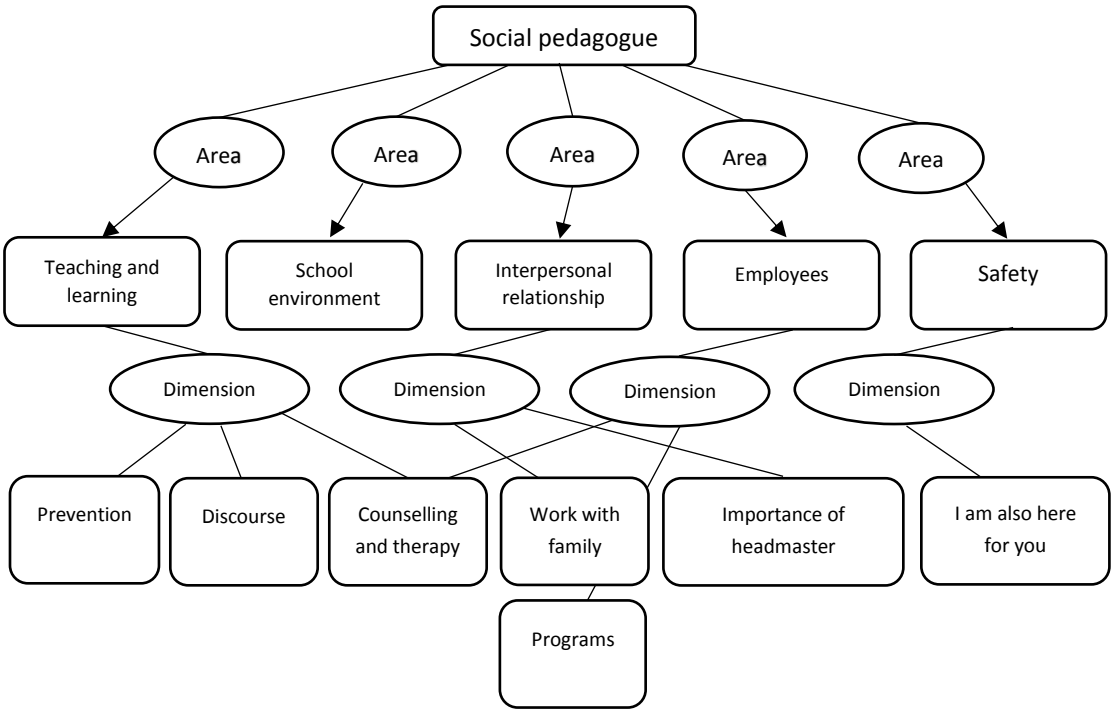

Figure 3 Model of positive school climate according to the social pedagogue

Source: Author.

The social pedagogue is a member of a school counselling centre at the selected elementary school. He works together with the prevention methodologist, educational counsellor, and career counsellor to create a positive school climate. However, based on the statement of the social pedagogue, this task is not easy for various reasons. The areas of the positive school climate model from the National School Climate Center ("Shared leadership," 2018) were used even in this case, but the situation in these areas is more complicated because the social pedagogue is not a teacher. Thus, in the first area in Figure 3 – teaching and learning – the dimension related to the social pedagogue's methods and way of working was integrated. These include **prevention, discourse, counselling and therapy**, which are the methods most often used by the social pedagogue. The respondent stated that he deals with prevention independently, but also in cooperation with the prevention methodologist. Preventive actions concern lying and the frequent absence of pupils from school. The social pedagogue would like to focus more on *…early-warning signs to uncover forms of risky behaviour…working with class groups…* The most common method used by the social pedagogue is a method of discourse which he uses to talk with pupils, as well as teachers. Yet he does not use this method with teachers so often because *…only two colleagues asked for my advice*… The social pedagogue, alongside the headmaster and form teachers, is a member of a school committee. Counselling and therapy are a part of the job description of the respondent at the selected elementary school; moreover, he focuses his work on interpersonal relationships, communication, self-knowledge and self-concept, influencing pupils' attitudes and values, and problem-solving, which includes preparing pupils for real-life situations. According to Kraus (2014), along with counselling and fieldwork, the work tasks of a social pedagogue

have an educational nature. He defines them as a mosaic – unrepeatable and creative in their way, yet not enshrined in Czech legislation. Therefore, school management usually structures the job description of a social pedagogue independently, based on their needs.

As in the case of the form teachers' climate model, the school environment area is not filled with dimensions. This may be due to similar reasons: low engagement regarding school modifications, decorations, etc. However, the respondent sees one thing as part of this area: the absence of his own space, company notebook and mobile phone.

The area of interpersonal relations is filled with these dimensions: **working with family and the importance of the headmaster.** The following duties are part of the official social pedagogue job description set by the headmaster:

- social pedagogue focuses on working with families and children,
- acts as a mediator between family and school,
- assists with different activities in and out of school, including family activities,
- offers assistance to families who cannot provide good conditions at home for the preparation of pupils.

The social pedagogue knows the family environment of the pupils to a large extent (the individual requirements for the position of social pedagogue correspond to the theoretical part of this study). In Slovakia, the position of social pedagogue is defined by "professional activities in the framework of prevention, intervention and counselling, especially for children and pupils at risk of social-pathological phenomena, socially disadvantaged children, drug-addicted or otherwise disadvantaged pupils, their legal guardians and pedagogical employees." ("Act No. 317/2009 Coll.," § 27, 2019). According to this definition, the position of social pedagogue is aimed at preventing the risky behaviour of children and adolescents.

> Hroncová (2016, p. 26) presented a similar definition: "The core competence of a social pedagogue, whether in school or school facilities, must be complex and continuous, as the boundaries between the different types of prevention are constantly moving, and the different types of prevention overlap and complement each other."

The headmaster plays an important role, whether the school management employs a social pedagogue or not. Nevertheless, the respondent expresses a positive opinion on cooperation with the headmaster …*whenever I had a problem or request, he always responded and helped me.*

The area of employees with the dimension **I am also here for you** aims to help not only pupils but also teachers and other school employees. Whether the social pedagogue will be allowed to enter the class is dependent on the will of the form teacher. In this particular case, the teachers are still concerned about their cooperation with the social pedagogue. The last area of safety is filled with the dimension of **programmes** – preventive programmes, programmes for personal and social development. The respondent is involved in this area, but less than he would like to be, or would be able to manage. The social pedagogue had difficulty expressing his opinion on the overall climate of the second stage of the selected elementary school. This was mainly due to individual work with some pupils. The respondent often does not come into contact with the whole class. Given the lack of interest of form teachers in his services, he believes that intervention on his part is unnecessary, and thus considers the school climate to be rather positive. However, he stated that there is still room for improvement. It can be assumed that teachers are opposed to maintaining professional contact with the social pedagogue, as they are concerned that he will 'inspect' their classes. This has not been proven by the research. The models above point to the most important dimension – **mutual relationships**. Relationships appear in each model with a different priority given by the respondents. The aim of the qualitative part of the

research is not to quantify the conclusions,[8] but to create the dimensions of the positive climate of the second stage of the elementary school, which are defined and described above.

The following model was created according to the open coding based on the respondents' interviews – the headmaster, form teachers and social pedagogue. It is based on clusters of created codes, which highlight the cooperation between the selected school climate agents and the presented models.

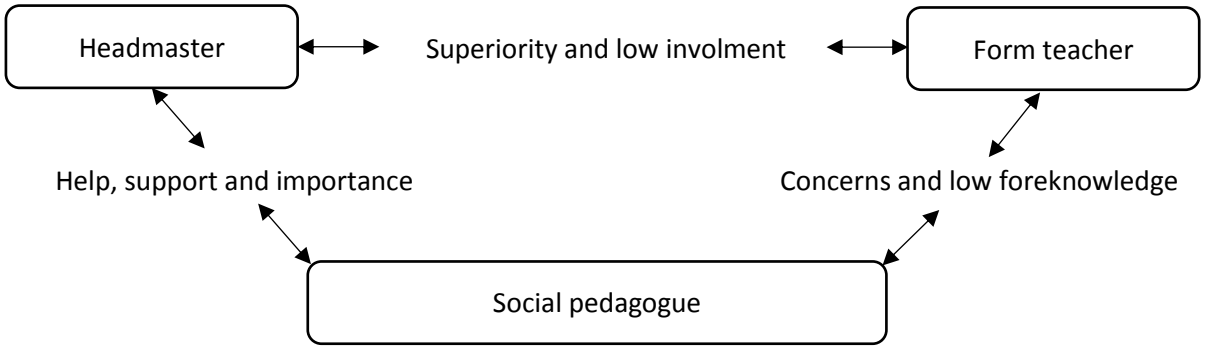

Figure 4 Model of cooperation between the headmaster, form teachers and the social pedagogue

Source: Author.

It is necessary to point out that some cooperation takes place among all respondents (a statement based on the created codes and categories). However, there are some shortcoming. The above-mentioned model (Figure 4) is applicable only in one elementary school at the second stage, and moreover, the model is applicable only at a certain time. Cooperation between the headmaster and form teacher can be defined by two terms – **superiority and low involvement.** The theoretical part of this study describes the headmaster as the highest-ranking agent in the school climate since his actions and handling of situations can influence others, especially those who are lower in the organizational structure. Form teachers perceive the headmaster as an authority. One respondent stated that he visits the headmaster only during consultation hours; the rest of the respondents cooperate with the headmaster when there is a problem. On a positive note, it can be assumed that the teachers are given enough freedom and are thus self-reliant. The form teachers have always found the headmaster helpful, which coincides with the headmaster's statement …*the doors are always open*… He is well aware of the teachers' busyness due to teaching and administration. At the same time, he would like them to be more involved, especially in the field of further education of pedagogical staff. On the other hand, the cooperation between the form teacher and the social pedagogue is defined by these terms – **concerns and low foreknowledge.** It is evident from the form teachers' statements that they do not know much about the job description and services of the social pedagogue. One respondent even said that there is no social pedagogue, nor a counselling centre in the school. Both the social pedagogue and the headmaster stated that teachers were acquainted with the social pedagogue's job description at the meeting. The social pedagogue feels idle in his position, even though he has ideas and a desire to improve work on the school climate. It can be assumed that there is indeed a lack of awareness or lack of interest from teachers since only one respondent appreciated the work of the social pedagogue – his work with a pupil, as well as his work with the whole class. The respondent is well aware of the help and support that the social pedagogue can provide to him and his class. Low foreknowledge may be the reason for their concerns. Teachers do not want to let someone else into their classroom, yet the social pedagogue would welcome greater cooperation from teachers and the ability to work with pupils.

[8] This could be considered a mistake in terms of the qualitative part.

Based on a study by Harpe (2016), where the relationships between teachers were examined, a model of cooperation was created which contains four components. The following components were gradually verified:

- cooperation during working time;
- setting and accomplishing common objectives;
- focus on the result;
- mutual support.

There were no statistically significant differences in Harpe's research (2016), except for the relationship between the evaluation of cooperation among teachers and the pupils' school results. It was stated that pupils' achievements may depend on the level and quality of teachers' cooperation. At the same time, the research confirmed that just one non-cooperating teacher can disrupt the whole school operating concept. That is why the philosophy of the headmaster *…we try to pull together…* is perfectly appropriate. Cooperation between the social pedagogue and the headmaster can be seen as **help, support and importance**; moreover, this cooperation seems to be very promising and positive. The headmaster is vital for the position of social pedagogue, as the headmaster defends the financial side of the social pedagogue's position in front of the school management. He could also create a space for the social pedagogue (which at the moment seems to be insufficient), which could help him to cooperate better with form teachers and their classes. The headmaster perceives the social pedagogue as a help and support for form teachers and pupils. The question is to what extent the headmaster reflects the real cooperation between them. The headmaster is an important and connecting element of the whole model and can significantly influence cooperation among form teachers, and between form teachers and the social pedagogue, and thus contribute to a positive second-stage climate.

6 Conclusion

The study describes the current situation of one elementary school in the context of a second-stage climate. Based on the research (the interviews with selected agents), the dimensions of a positive climate were established, and they presented in illustrative models created in Cmap Tools. Each model consists of the respondents' statements from semi-structured interviews. The inspiration for the compilation of these models was the model of positive school climate according to the National School Climate Center from 2017 ("Shared leadership," 2018).

Positive climate is based on a fair approach and trustful relationships between all actors in school life.

Based on the respondents' statements, a model of cooperation was created that characterizes the cooperation between form teachers, the headmaster and the social pedagogue. The presented process could serve not only for academic purposes but also as an inspiration for teachers and headmasters who focus on the educational process. In practice, we are encountering an increased interest in achieving cognitive goals which arise from the curriculum and strategic documents of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports of the Czech Republic. Nevertheless, the interest should be much broader, including an effective level of teaching focused on the relationships between pupils. There should also be interest in communication between teachers, between teachers and pupils, and between teachers and parents. The present procedure is applicable in any school environment where the teacher can adjust interview questions according to his/her own needs. Such an analysis should be followed by a mutual discussion between the teachers about the next intervention proposal, which should be long-term and focused on the results. When analysing the shortcomings resulting from the research, it is possible to identify the following areas:

- low awareness among teachers about the work of the school counselling centre;
- low awareness of the communication options with the headmaster;
- insufficient interest in further education of pedagogical staff (may result from a small number of offers or one-sided offers);
- the concern of teaching staff about working with other professionals within the classroom climate, and with mutual relationships.

In the context of these points, which could also be supported by quantitatively oriented research, for example concerning pupils at the second stage of the elementary school, a school should set targets for the upcoming period. These points should be brought to the attention of the entire teaching staff, who will take the appropriate position to achieve the objectives. A quantitative approach focused on the role of the social pedagogue in creating a positive climate in primary schools would certainly be fascinating. An endeavour was made at such an investigation by Blaštíková et al. (2015). However, this was mixed research undertaken at primary schools in Slovakia, where the position of social pedagogue is already incorporated into legislation. I believe that elaboration and a more specific methodological grasp would give interesting results.

Declaration of conflicting interests

No potential conflict of interest is reported by the author.

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Supplementary Table 1. Examples of categories, codes and testimony from interviews with the school principal

Categories	Codes	Respondent testimony
School counselling service and social pedagogue… we have an advantage!	Social pedagogue, school psychologist, combined roles, non-teaching staff, assistance to class teacher, etc.	*"If the class teacher were to do everything, they wouldn't have time for anything else."* *"The situation is also negative in terms of the work catalogue."*
Class teacher – some I can't move	Lack of interest, isolation of children, we all pull together, relationship between teacher and pupil, trust in teachers, etc.	*"Lack of support from parents and institutions."* *"My office is always open."*
I don't feel a positive climate	Differences between classes, resolving negative manifestations, parental influence, adaptation days, etc.	*"Parents' perception of school attendance affects climate a lot."* *"The teacher's approach to the children is markedly reflected in the classroom."*
Improved school climate… yes, but it's... so hard!	Co-operation with pupils, praise and trouble, lack of support, pupil background.	*"…aggressive behaviour, fights, vulgar swearing."* *"Teachers who do not communicate do not have good relationships with pupils."*

Source: Author.

Supplementary Table 2. Examples of categories, codes and testimony from interviews with class teachers

Categories	Codes	Respondent testimony
What all goes into the school climate?	Creating the climate, supporting the climate, relationships, teaching staff climate, etc.	*"I perceive co-operation with pupils as very good."* *"After half a year, climate at senior level is acceptable…"*
Rules, rules and more rules…	School philosophy, a fair approach, setting rules, consistent application, etc.	*"A fair approach to all pupils is essential."* *"They come to me when they feel wronged… either by fellow pupils or by teachers."*
Positive climate – same approach to pupils	Accommodating, helping resolve problems, interest from teachers, personal relationship with children, etc.	*"I highlight successes, but it's very difficult. Frequent lack of interest in anything. I wanted a weekend with parents."*
I want a positive climate in the school, so what can I do?	Co-operation with school counselling service, form class periods, meeting with parents, community circles, etc.	*"Respect for children's opinions, listening to children, humour."* *"A positive climate can be promoted through discussions with children."*
Negative climate… not in my class!	Problems at school, problems with grades, report cards, new teacher, etc.	*"There is a positive climate in my class."* *"The climate is affected by poor pupil grades."*
Role of school principal – help or threat?	Consulting hours with principal, administration, discussions with parents, similarity of opinions, etc.	*"I co-operate with the principal when a problem occurs."* *"I think there is a similarity of opinions amongst the staff."*

Source: Author.

Supplementary Table 3. Examples of categories, codes and testimony from interview with social pedagogue

Category	Codes	Respondent testimony
Smaller problem – job description	Working with the family, finding threatened children, counselling and therapy, social development and communication, etc.	*"The social pedagogue, alongside the school counsellor and prevention worker, helps to prevent social pathologies in classes and school groups."*
The class teacher is a tricky one	Introducing the job description of teachers, commission, interview, climate amongst staff – prefer not to assess, etc.	*"Little interest in the services of the social pedagogue from teachers, as a result of fear, worry and lack of interest."*
		"I want to work with teachers too, but it only sometimes works through discussions."
A positive climate yes, but I have to get into the classroom	Group of pupils, it depends on the teacher, parents not co-operating, etc.	*"I want to work with the teacher on a form-class period programme so I can get to know the group of pupils better."*
Principal as support	Backed by principal, co-operation in commission, principal well-informed, etc.	*"The principal endeavours to create a positive climate at our school."*
		"Anytime I have turned to the principal, I have always been listened to, which is very important to me."
Pitfalls of position	Job description, undervalued position, combination of roles, finance, low awareness, etc.	*"Parents not interested in fulfilling obligations determined by social pedagogue."*
		"I think the work of a social pedagogue is undervalued."

Source: Author.

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The resilience of high school students, analysis of compensatory measures, and preferred strategies for coping with adverse situations

Lucie Nečasová

Abstract: The study presents the results of measuring the resilience of high school students. The main goal is to find whether there is a link between the resilience of students and preferred coping strategies. Quantitative research was subsequently conducted with students in the 2nd and 3rd years of secondary schools. The research included a questionnaire survey in which students were presented with two questionnaires. The first questionnaire was self-designed and aimed to assess the level of resilience; the second standardized questionnaire focused on the preferred choice of coping strategies. Responses were received from a total of 516 respondents. The data were evaluated using the tools of descriptive statistics. The results showed that pupils' resilience is generally at a good level. In addition, five key factors improving and lowering resilience were identified. Furthermore, five preferred strategies and five strategies that students prefer to avoid when dealing with problem situations were identified. At the same time, a direct correlation between the effort to take an active approach to solve problems and the degree of resilience was observed; this is considered to be the main outcome of the study.

Keywords: pupil, resilience, coping strategy, problem situation, high school

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Resilience žáků středních škol, analýza vyrovnávacích opatření a preferované strategie zvládání nepříznivých situací

Abstrakt: Studie předkládá výsledky měření resilience žáků středních škol. Hlavním cílem je zjistit, zda existuje souvislost mezi mírou resilience žáků a volbou preferovaných zvládacích strategií. V rámci studie byl realizován kvantitativní výzkum s žáky druhých a třetích ročníků středních škol. Výzkum spočíval v dotazníkovém šetření, kdy byly žákům předloženy dva dotazníky. Cílem prvního dotazníku, který byl vlastní konstrukce, bylo stanovit míru resilience, druhý, standardizovaný dotazník se zaměřil na preferovanou volbu zvládacích strategií. Byly získány odpovědi od celkem 516 respondentů. K vyhodnocení dat byly použity nátroje popisné statistiky. Výsledky ukázaly, že resilience žáků je celkově na poměrně dobré úrovni. Dále bylo vytipováno

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pět zásadních faktorů zvyšujících a snižujících resilienci a vyplynulo pět preferovaných strategií a pět strategií, kterým se žáci spíše vyhýbají při řešení nepříznivých situací. Současně byla pozorována přímá závislost mezi snahou aktivně přistupovat k řešení problémů a mírou resilience. Toto zjištění je jedním z hlavních výstupů této studie.

Klíčová slova: žák, resilience, zvládací strategie, nepříznivá situace, střední škola

1 Introduction

School is a significant source of resilience in the life of an adolescent, and the daily operation of a school for several hours can significantly contribute to a student's feeling of success or failure (Šolcová, 2009). It is evident that attention is being paid to the topic of resilience in education; for example, Ungar, Russell, and Connelly (2014) point to the fact that there is evidence that schools have great potential to positively influence children's biopsychosocial growth and development, and that the school can have a significant impact on the future development and psychological resilience of students. Adolescents dealing with everyday life have various worries and problems that most often concern school, relationships with peers, and self-image. These perceived concerns associated with education can have an impact not only on their overall level of resilience but also on their satisfaction at school (Macek, 2003).

The stressful situations that students deal with in connection with school include, for example, completing a task that is beyond their capabilities, coping with being unpopular students, surviving a fight, and being able to get along with a teacher who is biased towards them (Neuman, 2007). The time in which children and adolescents are living places great demands on their mental resilience. During their life, each person encounters various stressful situations that can harm their healthy development. Under the influence of this stress, he reacts to everyday situations differently or unexpectedly, and even his personality strengths cannot always prevent negative manifestations (Barnová, 2009). Adults often do not even realize how difficult a period of life adolescence can be. Some can cope better with this pressure than others. We need to think about how a student can deal with a stressful situation, how resilient that individual is, and whether they have a defensive reaction or a coping reaction.

Resilience generally refers to the psychosocial processes of coping with life disadvantages in such a way that all the development and functioning of the individual remains normal. Specifically, resilience is defined as an individual's ability to orient themselves in their own psychological, socio-cultural, and physical resources, which maintain their well-being and ability to negotiate individually, and collectively to provide these resources in a meaningful way (Ungar et al., 2008).

To understand how some children and adolescents overcome difficulties and experience success despite apparent risk factors, researchers such as Benard (1991), Taylor and Thomas (2001), and Ungar et al. (2014) focus on understanding concepts of resilience and identifying protective factors and processes that improve or dampen an individual's response to challenging life situations. Resilience can be found both in individuals and in relationships between people, increasing students' life chances and success at school (McMahon, 2007).

This study examines the degree of resilience in high school students and the coping strategies that students choose for coping with adverse school situations in a psychosocial context. Given the stated research goals and the work's primary goal, which is focused on identifying the relationship between strategies for managing adverse situations and the degree of resilience of high school students, a quantitative research concept was implemented through a questionnaire survey.

2 Problems with the coping strategies of high school students

Challenging life situations are considered one of the most basic factors that shape a student's personality. Certain levels of stress can lead students to better performance and be their driving force. However, if stress is not addressed effectively due to insufficient capacity to manage stress, negative consequences can occur, for both the student and the institution (Reddy, Menon, & Thattil, 2018). The consequences of academic stress can also cause depression, anxiety, behavioural problems, and irritability in adolescents (Deb, Strodl, & Sun, 2015). Adolescence is characterized as a turbulent time in which very high demands are placed on adolescents in all respects (Vašutová & Panáček, 2013). With increased demands during adolescence, there is also a change in the attitude towards the pupil's role. This manifests itself primarily in changing attitudes towards the teacher and rejection of his formal superiority, which manifests itself in symbolic confrontation, the pursuit of equal discussion, and negativism (Vágnerová, 2001). In terms of stress, workload, and adaptation, the school has a unique position, as school institutions have significant power to contribute to adaptation skills (Šolcová, 2009). A stressful school situation is a current or potential situation that a pupil considers unpleasant or demanding, or describes as a situation that threatens or is dangerous for them (Čáp & Mareš, 2007). The most important sources of stressful situations for pupils at school are school performance (fear of tests, papers, and marks), bullying, and fear of classmates.

The main coping strategies are usually described as active coping, seeking social support, trying to change one's personality, and the ability to cope with stress (Poledňová, Stránská, Vízdalová, & Zobačová, 2003). Stressful situations can be assessed both by the student himself and by his parents, friends, and teachers. The key, in this case, is how the student himself sees the specific stressful situation, because his perception also reflects his reactions. It is also essential to keep in mind that the assessment from the student's point of view may differ significantly from others' assessments. In the literature, there are usually two types of assessment in managing the workload of students: a primary type and a secondary type (Čáp & Mareš, 2007).

The factors that make it easier for individuals to manage the workload at school can be divided into three categories. The first of these categories represents individual internal sources of coping – pupil optimism (Čáp & Mareš, 2007), social competence (Masten, Best, & Garmezy, 1990) and pupil self-confidence (Leary, Tambour, Terdal, & Downs, 1995). The second category includes interpersonal factors – safe background ("Building resilience in schools," 2016), family (Newman & Blackburn, 2002), caring and supportive relationships, and friendship (Benard, 1991). The third category includes factors of the school and its environment – teachers and school staff (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998), school culture and climate (Weare & Nind, 2011), and education (Ungar et al., 2014).

Risk factors include temperament characteristics such as neuroticism, peculiarities in thinking, developmental delays, disability, serious illness, learning and behavioural disorders or long-term exhaustion, adverse family influences, adverse influences from the community in which the pupil lives, and cultural and ethnic influences (Čáp & Mareš, 2007). Adverse school influences associated with education and academic success include, in particular, inappropriate ways of testing and evaluating pupils, negative attitudes of teachers towards pupils, conflicts between teacher and pupil, adverse school/classroom climate, competition with classmates, social isolation of pupils in class, poor grades, long-term school failure, and the absence of informal or formal social support for school problems (Čáp & Mareš, 2007). After defining all the above factors, we can say that the teacher should be a source of social support for his students. An analysis of the concept of social support distinguishes its different types: support that is either offered, sought after, provided, acquired, or perceived. We can also mention three essential functions that social support fulfils: damping effect, direct impact, and indirect effect.

The peculiarities of the teacher, which can strengthen or complicate the teacher's role as a social support for the student, include primarily personality peculiarities, the teacher's willingness to help, the way of responding to a student's request for help, the teacher's expectations related to the

difficulty of the curriculum for students, the teacher's competence to help students, the teacher's mutual relations with pupils, and the teacher's current mood (Mareš, 2003).

Strategies for developing resilience in the classroom (Wedlichová, 2010) are strategies for successfully overcoming obstacles and stressful situations (Bickart & Wolin, 1997), which includes participation of students in setting goals and evaluating their own work, cooperation in achieving educational goals with others, involvement of students in solving problems in the classroom together, availability of choices, enabling students to feel part of a larger group, and promoting an active role in setting the rules of classroom life. Coping strategies for increasing the level of resilience in school includes mainly perceptive listening, speaking the language of another, avoiding negative language forms, and restructuring (Wedlichová, 2010).

It follows from the above that the issue of compensatory measures and strategies for dealing with adverse situations, which ultimately implies the resilience of high school students, is very complex. At the same time, several different aspects and perspectives need to be considered. However, it is indisputable that this is one of the critical areas of social pedagogy. This is evidenced by the fact that more and more studies address the impact of the school environment and climate. So far, however, research has not addressed the choice of optimal coping strategies for increasing student resilience. This work therefore aims, based on quantitative research, to understand the correlation between the strategy of coping with adverse situations and the degree of resilience of students.

3 Methods

3.1 The aim of the study

Based on limited research carried out in the Czech Republic, this study aimed to discover the presence of a connection between adverse management strategies and the level of resilience of secondary school pupils. The following research questions, arising from this objective, were further set forth:

RQ1: What is the resilience rate of high school students based on a subjective assessment of resilience?

RQ2: What factors positively impact pupils' resilience in high schools based on a subjective assessment of resilience?

RQ3: What factors harm pupils' resilience in high schools based on a subjective assessment of resilience?

RQ4: What coping strategies do high school students employ in dealing with adverse situations at school?

RQ5: What coping strategies do high school students prefer?

RQ6: What coping strategies do high school students avoid?

RQ7: What is the connection between the choice of management strategies and degree of resilience of high school students?

3.2 Participants and procedure

The primary research group consists of 2nd- and 3rd-year high school students aged 16-18 in the Czech Republic. This age range is optimal for the selected standardized questionnaires. The Statistical Yearbooks of Education of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports („Statistické ročenky školství," 2020) state that in the Czech Republic, 1,284 institutions providing secondary education were registered in the 2019/2020 school year. In the primary research, we included students who are engaged in secondary education, secondary education with an apprenticeship certificate, and secondary education with a school-leaving examination. Specifically, these are grammar schools and secondary vocational schools.

All the levels of secondary education mentioned above meet our primary research group's criteria, as all students from the research group are in either the 2nd or 3rd year. 408,086 pupils are engaged in a full-time form of education. In the 2019/2020 school year, the 2nd year of secondary schools was attended by a total of 101,008 full-time pupils, and 91,905 pupils participated in the 3rd year of secondary schools full-time. In total, there are 192,913 pupils. These students form our primary set.

The sample consists of pupils who were selected based on a random multi-stage selection. According to Gavora (2000), random selection is the best choice in probability theory, as each student in the research has the same chance of being selected. The objectivity of the selection is therefore guaranteed. For random selection, we chose the method of drawing; in the first stage, the individual regions were drawn. Lotteries were drawn from all 14 regions of the Czech Republic.

As can be seen below in Table 1, three regions were drawn. Primary attention was paid to the number of respondents. Based on an overview of schools in the individual areas, it was assumed that selecting schools from the three drawn regions, namely the Moravian-Silesian, South Moravian and Olomouc regions, would provide a sufficient number of respondents. The next stage was the drawing of secondary schools in these regions. We obtained a list of schools in the particular areas from the („Rejstřík škol," 2020). Five schools were selected from each of the three regions by drawing lots, for a total of 15 schools. A total of about 2,500 pupils were contacted; the number of returned questionnaires was 516, with a response rate of 21%.

Table 1
Number of schools and pupils in drawn regions

Region	Secondary school (*n*)	Pupils (*n*)
South-Moravian region	123	44,890
Olomouc region	94	26,053
Moravian-Silesian region	136	45,827
Total	353	116,770

3.3 Research methods

An approach based on a questionnaire survey was chosen for the quantitative research. A Resilience Doughnut Model questionnaire (Worsley, 2006) was used to determine the overall rate of resilience of high school students, as well as the factors that affected resilience the most and the least. We define seven areas of resilience that have a positive and negative impact on adolescents. The questionnaire was self-designed, and it was easily modified to be applicable in the Czech environment – some questions that sounded very similar were merged. It focuses on determining the overall rate of resilience and contains seven areas of resilience.

Our modified questionnaire therefore contains 35 items and is divided according to seven factors: parents; interest/skills; family and personal identity; education; peers; community; and financial/financial security. Each part includes five items. Only one answer is possible using a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (definitely yes) to 4 (definitely no). Unless otherwise stated, the lower score represents a higher resilience rate. Furthermore, one of the items was reversible and therefore was recorded before the statistical analysis.

To measure and analyse strategies for coping with adverse situations at school, the CTK questionnaire (Kohoutek, Mareš, & Ježek, 2008) was used. The CTK questionnaire monitors the structure of the psychosocial workload and preferred coping strategies. The questionnaire contains 35 strategies that students use to cope with disadvantaged situations. According to the authors, it is possible to work with the following seven domains: active search solution; deviation/escape from the problem; seeking social support; confident, functional solutions; isolation; succumbing to the problem; passive reactions to the problem (Kohoutek et al., 2008). Pupils assessed individual statements on a 4-point scale ranging from 0 (not valid) to 3 (valid).

3.4 Data analysis

To find the answers to research questions, descriptive statistics (i.e. mean and standard deviation) were used. One of the research questions (RQ7) was relational and found the connection between management strategies and the degree of resilience of secondary school pupils. The hypothesis expected a link between the choice of coping strategies and the degree of resilience of secondary school pupils. Pearson's correlation coefficient was used, with assumptions checked. In the case of our hypothesis, we expected a linear relationship between the two variables. Because we could not claim that one variable directly affected the other variable's values, we used correlation analysis to evaluate the relationship. Dependent and independent variables were determined from this hypothesis. Minitab 19 software was selected for statistical data analysis.

4 Results

The summary analysis of the data shows that the total resilience of high school students is M = 2.00 (SD = 1.00). The degree of resilience could be considered neutral if the average value was based on M = 2.50. Based on the data, it can be stated that the respondents who participated in this research show an increased rate of resilience.

Based on further statistical analysis of the data and a comparison of results from research questions focused on the school resilience questionnaire, the five most important factors that positively impact the resilience of high school students were identified. Table 2 shows the mean values of five of the most positive factors regarding the resilience of high school students.

Table 2
Factors having a positive impact on the resilience of high school students

Factor	M (SD)
Parents' influence – my parents appreciate me	1.46 (0.71)
Parents' influence – my parents are responsible	1.55 (0.73)
Influence of interests/skills	1.60 (0.81)
Influence of peers	1.61 (0.82)
Influence of education	1.67 (0.75)

Note. M = mean; SD = standard deviation.

Table 3 identifies the five key factors that were shown by the school resilience questionnaire to harm the resilience of secondary school pupils.

Table 3
Factors having a negative impact on the resilience of high school students

Factor	M (SD)
Community influence – I am religious	3.32 (0.94)
Community influence – I am a member of sport club	3.01 (1.30)
Influence of interests/skills – I am a member of supporting organization	2.58 (1.22)
Influence of interests/skills – I am self confident	2.57 (0.94)
Influence of education	2.40 (0.95)

Note. M = mean; SD = standard deviation.

Focused on the CTK questionnaire, Table 4 shows the five coping strategies that high school students most often choose in response to a problem. Strategies are ranked in descending order, from the highest score achieved to the lowest.

Table 4
The most popular coping strategies

Coping strategies	M (SD)
Management strategies involving active solutions	2.24 (0.85)
Coping strategies involving a passive response to a problem	2.16 (0.98)
Management strategies involving insulation	2.12 (0.93)
Coping strategies involving seeking social support	2.02 (0.87)
Coping strategies involving an active search for solutions	2.06 (0.87)

Note. M = mean; SD = standard deviation.

Table 5 below shows data from the CTK questionnaire. Five coping strategies have been identified that secondary school students choose the least in response to a problem. Strategies are listed in ascending order, from lowest score to highest.

Table 5
Avoiding coping strategies

Coping strategies	M (SD)
Coping strategies involving a passive response to a problem	0.68 (0.91)
Management strategies involving insulation	1.14 (1.00)
Coping strategies involving seeking social support	1.29 (0.95)
Coping strategies involving confident, active solutions	1.30 (0.95)
Coping strategies involving succumbing to a problem	1.36 (0.97)

Note. M = mean; SD = standard deviation.

The degree of correlation between the two questionnaires based upon the average values was assessed to determine how and whether the choice of coping strategies and the degree of resilience of secondary school pupils are related. Based on the Pearson correlation coefficient results, it turned out that there is a direct ratio between the variables. Based on a direct correlation, we find that the higher the resilience rate of high school students, the greater the tendency and ability to solve problems. In cases where an individual, regardless of the chosen strategy, tends to resolve an unfavourable situation at school, they show a higher degree of resilience as a result. This confirmed our working hypothesis, which we set at the beginning.

From the performed statistical analysis of the questionnaire "The Resilience Donut" and the questionnaire "CTK", we can assert a connection between the choice of coping strategies of high school students (M = 1.66, SD = 0.40) and the degree of resilience (M = 2.00, SD = 0.36). The correlation coefficient reached the value of $r = .160$ ($p < .05$), and we can say that it is a direct correlation. Based on a direct correlation, we find that the higher the resilience rate of high school students, the greater the tendency and ability to solve problems. If an individual tends to deal with an unfavourable situation at school, regardless of the chosen strategy, he/she shows a higher degree of resilience as a result. Conversely, individuals who tend to prefer "rather not" are less resilient.

5 Discussion

In the first, second and third partial research questions, we found the overall degree of resilience of high school students and discovered what has a positive influence and, conversely, a negative impact on their resilience. The seven areas of resilience tested were addressed in The Resilience Donut Model (Worsley, 2006). If the resulting value is less than 2.50, the result indicates that students are resilient. On the contrary, the further the result deviates from the value of 2.50, the lower the degree of resilience the pupils show. Based on the results, we can state that of the seven tested areas of resilience examined by the questionnaire, the Parental Factor area is the best. This factor placed first

and second among respondents in the ranking of factors that positively impact pupils' resilience. Among respondents, it is therefore considered the most important in terms of their degree of resilience. In terms of resilience, the literature repeatedly mentions that children cannot build their psychological resilience without love, support, and positive relationships. All of this is based primarily on the family or primary care setting (Newman & Blackburn, 2002). Benard (1991) further states that caring and supportive relationships within a safe environment with a trusted adult are essential for the child's development and provide a basic form of resilience, reflected in school success.

The third- and fourth-best-rated areas fall into the Interest/Skills category. As for the previous factor, this area also ranked twice in the ranking of positive influences. This category includes questions that point to increased self-confidence. This corresponds to the literature, where this area is emphasized as an essential factor in resilience. Research conducted by Leary et al. (1995) puts the student's self-confidence in an exciting context within Maslow's hierarchy of needs, mentioning the maintenance of self-worth as the primary determinant of self-sufficiency, resilience, and mental health. Buckner, Mezzacappa, and Beardslee (2003), in turn, show that resilient children and adolescents with higher intrinsic value tend to be less involved in risky behaviour compared to those who are less resilient and therefore have less self-confidence.

The Education factor also performed relatively well among the respondents. Respondents perceive involvement in various activities and awareness about what happens at school as being the most important things in this area. This area also focused on the relationship between teachers and students and the school environment. The fact that it is in a higher position in the evaluation of pupils means that it is important for pupils to know that they feel good at school. We can confront this view with research from Roorda, Koomen, Split, and Oort (2011), which shows that positive teacher-pupil relationships are associated with increased cognitive, behavioural, and emotional involvement in learning, as well as improved academic performance, while negative teacher-student relationships are associated with worse involvement and failures. School culture and climate also play an important role in resilience. Weare and Nind (2011) found that schools can build and develop their positive atmosphere by creating an intimate space between teachers and students where they can naturally talk about their emotions and mental health issues. With this approach, they contribute to a pupil's sense of belonging and connection with the school, and they improve the pupil's psychological resilience.

The worst results were achieved by the Community factor, which included the issue of both faith and the use of support services, as well as interest in organizations within the close community of people in which the pupils live. The area also included the proximity of a confidential person. This area occupied the two highest positions in the evaluation of adverse effects on pupils' resilience. Pupils in this area turned out to have the lowest resilience rate in the overall assessment. Here, it is necessary to consider whether it is a risk factor if the students answered that they are not believers and that faith does not help them overcome difficulties. The question of personal faith is so intimate and subjective that it cannot be generalized enough to state whether it is a risk or a supporting factor for students. Besides, we live in a time when the number of believers is generally declining, and it is not so common to find faith in young people.

As for the second-worst area, which also falls under the community factor, the question is whether it is caused by the adverse influence of the community in which the student lives (socially or in the area of health risk), or whether there are cultural and ethnic influences – experience with discrimination, isolation or rejection (Čáp & Mareš, 2007). However, it was confirmed that a safe background provides protection for both the individual, family, and community. The third- and fourth-worst results were achieved by the Interest/Skills area. Students who do not attend any hobby group where their abilities are supported and developed have lower resilience. However, this area also includes whether students master at least one skill and whether they do not give up after initial failure. According to Ježek (2012), adolescents consider it essential when adults force them to perform better and support them in their

interests, abilities, and skills, whether in-school or out-of-school. Therefore, if adolescents have no interests and skills, their resilience cannot increase.

It is also worth mentioning the fourth-worst-rated area, which is related to the skill factor, where a surprisingly large proportion of students answered that they do not have high self-confidence. Here we find a split between positive and negative influences on resilience, because it was in the positive effects that the Interest/Skills factor was rated relatively high. As the last-worst-rated factor, we will mention the Education factor, which indicates that pupils are not sufficiently involved in school activities and are not interested in what is happening at school. Sacker and Schoon (2007) suggest that a school can promote resilience by integrating psychological resilience-building into the curriculum of non-academic subjects. This could be pupils' creative achievements, the exhibition of works of art and other forms of art by pupils, or the involvement of pupils in school sports events as players or spectators.

Despite the negative results discussed in the last paragraph, it can be said that pupils' resilience is at a reasonable level in the overall context. Pupils show an increased level of resilience, better involvement in school activities and life, and higher self-confidence, which can contribute to further improvement. Based on an analysis of the second CTK questionnaire data, we can state that of the seven tested areas, the highest average score was obtained in the case of the Active Solution strategy. Pupils said they were thinking about how to solve the problem. Therefore they show a proactive approach to problem-solving. According to Neuman (2007), a student can perceive stress or stressful situations in two ways – either as an opportunity and a challenge or as a threat. If they consider them to be a threat, they withdraw and do not show the will to handle the problem. Thus, our respondents perceive the problems more as challenges, which also indicates good mental resilience. In the same area, we could observe another preferred strategy: the students try to figure out where they made a mistake. Neuman (2007) points out that the state in which students approach a problem actively evokes positive emotional states in them, which further motivates them and teaches them to apply their procedures.

The lowest score by far, and thus the least preferred strategy, was observed in the area of Passive Response to a Problem. Talking about a problem with a teacher had the smallest average value in the given category. It is somewhat astonishing that students avoid this strategy. This may be because the student perceives the teacher as an authority but does not have sufficient trust. Simultaneously, the student should realize that the teacher has the experience and can help very quickly and effectively. At this point, it should be emphasized that it would be appropriate for this item to work better, as the fact that a pupil is looking for a teacher indicates good relationships. The teacher's personality plays an important role in this case. A good teacher-student relationship increases student performance, promotes self-confidence, and significantly reduces unwanted behaviour (Cernkovich & Giordano, 1992). However, the area of Passive Reaction also appeared among the most preferred strategies, where students stated that they imagined how good it would be if the problem did not exist. The idea is probably tempting for pupils but overlooked, and long-term unresolved issues can have several negative consequences for individuals and significantly reduce their resilience (Paulík, 2010).

Isolation was chosen as the second-worst strategy, where students fear that if they confide in someone, it would hurt them. It is interesting to relate this fact to the research of Gecková, Pudelský, and Tuinstra (2000), who pointed to the finding that isolation is almost non-existent in adolescents. However, it is necessary to consider the personal setting of each individual and the fact that even adolescents may feel closed in. It is also interesting to compare this finding with the third-least-preferred strategy of Finding Social Support, where students stated that they are not looking for someone to help them with problems. The literature says that dealing with stressful situations in this form is relatively common. Seeking social support, whether in a teacher, peer or family member, is perceived as an essential factor in a safe background that provides an essential form of resilience (Benard, 1991). However, this statement was not confirmed in our research. By the way, it is also interesting that this area was also among the most preferred ways of coping when the interviewees

stated that they were looking for some distraction or entertainment that would retune them and shift their thinking in a different direction.

The fourth-least-preferred strategy is the area of Self-Confident Active Solutions, where respondents stated that they hide their feelings and do not openly express them. We explain this finding by saying that students do not want to show that they do not know how to deal with a problem at a certain stage. They do not solve the problem, they mask it, and they pretend that the problem does not seem to exist. Directly related to this is the strategy of succumbing to the issue, where students try to control and act sensibly but often fail. Thus, students probably try to solve the problem with a calm head; however, students will succumb to it due to stress and cannot resolve the issue rationally if the problem goes into a difficult phase.

6 Conclusion

This study looked at the resilience of high school students and their preferred strategies for dealing with adverse situations. We focused on an analysis of compensatory measures. We mapped the supportive and risky areas for pupil resilience and identified the five most- and least-preferred strategies for dealing with adverse situations. In this study, we worked with the hypothesis that coping strategies and the degree of resilience of high school students are related.

This study aimed to find the overall rate of pupils' resilience in high school and what factors most and least affect pupils' resilience. We also focused on and analysed strategies for coping with adverse situations at school. Based on the main research goal, seven sub-goals were set, from which research questions subsequently arose. We chose a quantitative type of research to answer them and used a questionnaire survey method to collect data. More precisely, these were two questionnaires. The first focused on resilience and presented seven areas where psychosocial resilience skills can be developed. The second questionnaire dealt with strategies for managing adverse situations.

The main finding is that there is a connection between the choice of coping strategies and the degree of resilience of secondary school pupils, and it was possible to observe a direct correlation.

To summarize the main findings it can be stated that the respondents who participated in this research generally show an increased rate of resilience. The area that has the most positive impact on strengthening pupils' resilience is considered to be the Parental Influence factor, namely that pupils have parents who respect them and are happy to have them. On the contrary, we consider the Community Influence factor to be the most negative area concerning pupil resilience. The data analysis results further showed that, in general, we could state that students tend to resolve the problems and unfavourable situations they face. Pupils choose Active Solution as the most preferred coping strategy, namely, thinking about how a problem could be solved. Pupils choose the Passive Response to a Problem area, namely a conversation about the teacher's problem, as the least preferred coping strategy. Furthermore, we found that the higher the resilience rate of high school students, the greater the tendency and ability to solve problems.

Declaration of conflicting interests

No potential conflict of interest is reported by the authors.

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Discussion

Teaching protest and pressure as participation

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We argue that the notion of protest needs to be included in our global education system as a distinct activity. It needs to take its place alongside other social sciences and humanities courses in our school curricula. We argue that the ability to impact society, to incite societal change, to participate through more means than voting, needs to be taught. It needs to be implemented into our global education system. We know that a lot of societies already teach their students about how citizens can contribute to the democratic system through the citizens' right to vote – why not take this a step further?

Protest, the articulation and manifestation of desired change in the status quo of any society, is of paramount importance in order to keep democracy flourishing. Ulrieke Meinhof once wrote that "[p]rotest is when I say I don't like this and that. Resistance is when I see to it that things that I don't like no longer occur" (1968, p. 5). For us, protest is a necessary form of resistance, particularly when one considers the power of the state or large corporations compared to the power of the individual. It is important that all citizens should not only have the right to raise issues on the societal agenda but should also be equipped with the toolkit of competences and skills needed to do so effectively. By raising issues onto the agenda that are not often, at least in the first instance, of majority interest, we enliven and enrich democratic debate. Furthermore, it will allow an avenue for the presentation and articulation of minority interests, thus democratizing democracy itself. As Rosa Parks once said, "I believe we are here on earth to live, grow, and do what we can to make this world a better place for all people to enjoy freedom". As she showed us, it is sometimes not enough to hope someone else will rectify the situation – sometimes you have to act, to protest.

Despite the vast majority of demonstrations and protests being non-violent (Chenoweth, Stephan, & Stephan, 2011), we can see in our newscasts that protest often gets bad press. There are those who would characterize protest as a negative, potentially destructive act (Akkuş, Postmes, Stroebe, & Baray, 2020). Let us first deal with the elephant in the room. Recent events have shown us how large-scale protest can be sparked by one incident. This has led to protests that have turned violent. That violence has been seized upon as a way not only to condemn the violence but also to demean and diminish the feelings of injustice that inspired the initial protest, and to call into question the act of protesting itself as somehow being subversive. For those who would seek to stifle or limit our ability to protest, it is perhaps important to recall the words of J. F. Kennedy who argued that "those who make peaceful revolution impossible will make violent revolution inevitable". In order to facilitate peaceful change, we need to recognise protest as a positive contribution to political discourse. By providing people with the skills to protest, by giving them a voice to articulate and explain their grievances or desires and also the ability to listen to the grievances and desires of others, one might expect to produce a better informed, more tolerant and compassionate society. A society which is sensitive to not just to one's own issues but also to those of others.

Protest is a tool that can help shape societies' responses to social issues that are somehow ignored, overlooked or under-represented in democratic structures, particularly those where rigid political party discipline and the perceived need for conformity militates against existing societal norms. Also, it is fair to say that some issues are cross-party in their appeal, or indeed can become so. For example, climate change and environmental protection were seen 20 years ago as being issues only of interest

to the Greens or other predominantly environmentally-focused or left-of-centre parties, and they have now become cross-party concerns. One can see the same cross-party interest in the current Black Lives Matter protests, which stand on the shoulders of the many previous civil rights protestors whose long fight for equality of treatment, not just within the law but generally, is gaining momentum.

Protest isn't just a civic right, but a duty. A duty to oppose injustices and to challenge the authorities, whoever they may be, to re-engineer their actions, processes and procedures to better reflect the needs of the society. As Leonardo da Vinci wrote, "nothing strengthens authority so much as silence". And as Malcolm X recounted in his autobiography, "…early in life, I had learned that if you want something, you had better make some noise" (Malcolm & Haley, 1965, p. 4). This lesson was heeded in a recent Swiss protest by women against the gender pay gap and domestic violence, which included one minute of screaming to draw attention to the difference in incomes when compared to males ("Women stage," 2020). Even in a country like Switzerland, which holds many citizen referenda on policy issues, we need to recognise the value of sometimes inconvenient and noisy protest as a vital check and balance on the progress of a complex multi-faceted society. Following from such recognition is the need to foster people's ability to act upon their wish for change, and to do it as effectively and efficiently as possible. We believe that our education systems need to respond to this and provide education and training to empower citizens. We often see that protest is reflected in much of our social history teaching as only a precursor to change – the causes, outcomes or changes subsequently effected by politicians and officials themselves are noted and discussed, and not so much the means, methods and mobilization of individuals into a dynamic movement that is needed to refocus political priorities and engender societal change. But it should be an education that mixes historical evidence of past protest with the practical application of protest repertoires, including techniques, competencies and prospective potential platforms for message dissemination, for as Mahatma Gandhi said, "an ounce of practice is worth tons of preaching."

The range of protest knows almost no bounds. To give just two very recent examples: an Argentinian priest protested the differences in the type of premises allowed to be open during the COVID-19 lockdown by converting his church, which was not permitted to open, into a bar, which was ("Argentina pastor," 2020); and, demonstrating the dangers of asymmetric power in protest situations, a garment worker in Cambodia, Soy Sros, who protested on Facebook that her factory, which produced handbags for the luxury market, was laying off staff, was then imprisoned as a consequence (Jha, 2020). Another way to contribute to the democratic system, to advance democracy, is through citizen participation in social movements (della Porta, 2020). Over the last 60 years, we have witnessed the power of protest in a broad range of social movements aimed at bringing an end to inequalities in many aspects of our life, such as racial or gender inequality, nuclear disarmament, anti-Vietnam War, climate change and global capitalism, to name but a few. Often these larger social movements have become training grounds for activists, where skills and knowledge are passed on in protest educative forums, such as those that were so prevalent during the 'Occupy' anti-capitalist movements. How to participate in these social movements, how to initiate and further them, should be a mandatory class for all students in democratic societies.

As repertoires of action have been expanded and digitalized, one can identify a plethora of resources ranging from films, television documentaries, graphic novels, and even ABC board books for children such as 'A is for Activist' by Innosanto Nagara, through to online training bases that offer resources and guidance to would-be protests, such as the International Center on Nonviolent Conflict (2020). Of course, the drawback here is that you have to know that you wish to protest, or already have a cause for which you wish to protest, or something against which you wish to protest. Often individuals will feel powerless or so atomized that they feel incapable of setting off a form of protest, believing it might be best left to others who have more experience or more understanding on how to protest. It is our contention that everyone should have that capability and that this should be taught to them in our education systems. We don't tell our young children to go away and learn how to read or write on their own without assistance from those who can, or tell the older ones to simply get in the car, go out

and see if you can drive it. We arrange tutorship for them so that those vital skills are learned, as much as possible, by as many as can do so. Shouldn't we do the same for civic engagement, which we have argued protest is an important, even vital, part of? Could protest become an element of a civic internship in which the students work in areas to improve society and to engage students with people in need within society, such as those internships on offer in some, but not all, schools in The Netherlands? (Kompagnie, 2018).

If you accept the argument that democracy is only as strong as the level of peoples' participation in it, and that protest is a form of democratic participation and engagement, would you not wish people of all ages to be equipped with the skill sets to be able to fully participate? Where would those participatory skills be taught? Some might argue in the home, by the parents. Yes, there is a place for parental and, where appropriate, sibling involvement in such teaching, but is there not a requirement that if these skills are important and vital to the functioning of democratic life, then all children need to be taught by professionals? Consider the difficulties that many parents have had trying to homeschool their children during the CoVID-19 lockdowns, and their realization that the work of teachers isn't always as easy as it sometimes appears. Where else will people get this education if not through the universal provision of education at the school level? Teaching is a complex and time-consuming activity which we readily delegate to professionals, particularly in difficult or sensitive subject areas – sex education is one area that easily springs to mind. Certainly, as we point out elsewhere in this piece, there are a myriad of useful online sites where you can find information, techniques, strategies, etc., to enable you to become a more effective and efficient protester and/or activist, but are we happy to leave it to unknown others to provide that information to our children? Would we be happy with our children's sex education coming solely from online pornography, lacking in context, nuance and devoid of emotional engagement and negotiations of consent? If the answer is no, then does it not also follow that the same should be true for democratic engagement, and strengthen the case for this to take place in a school environment?

So what are these skills that we would have our children learn that some may see as anarchic or even revolutionary? Well, they are the very same 'subversive' skills that employers say those same children will need in their future work lives. They will need to be flexible and have the ability to move from one project (protest) to the next. They will need the skills of advocacy, namely verbal, written and increasingly visual communication skills, as well as the fuzzier, but equally important, 'people skills' that facilitate our interactions with others. They will need to demonstrate the ability to work in teams, building coalitions of interest to meet common goals and objectives, which is seen as essential in a modern workplace. If we cast our minds back to our own formative years, we are sure that many of us would have benefited from such training and recognize, with hindsight and personal reflection, the difficulties that the lack of it has added to our lives. They will need to be versed in the art of persuasion, of convincing people that what they are doing is of value to many. These skills may be taught in some schools via debating classes or in certain modules which may be optional, but we argue that they should be an integral part of any child's school experience regardless of their educational level or the electives they choose. They will have to persuade their peers using networking and lobbying skills, and that relationship-building will take place in hybrid form, both on- and off-line, across a diverse range of locations, media and platforms. Don't take our word for it – simply take a look at job vacancy listings and you will be convinced that these same skills, which are so crucial to protesting and fulfilling one's civic duty, are indeed being posted as career-enhancing prerequisites in the information age economy.

At what age would we have these skills taught to our children? Some would argue that young adulthood is the most appropriate time when they are deemed capable, but this attempts to negate the impressive role of younger children in protests, for example as evidenced in the 2019 worldwide school strikes in support of climate change, when they demanded policy change from their elders in order to improve their futures ("Children protest," 2019). We should not think that this is only a 21st century phenomenon. Archival photographic records show two young girls wearing sashes calling for the abolition of child slavery (in English and Yiddish) at the Labour Day march on 1 May 1909

in New York City ("Protest against," 1909). Later, perhaps somewhat less altruistically, children in Canada staged a 'candy bar' protest in 1947 concerning the raising of the price of a candy bar by three cents. Children also played a significant part in the Shagheen Bagh protests in India, where the protesters were objecting to the omission of Muslims from the extension of certain naturalization rights under the recent Citizenship (Amendment) Act passed in the Indian Parliament in December 2019. This led to unsuccessful calls for children to be excluded by law from taking part in such protests in India and sparked a debate around the world as to whether children should be protestors. One can see the same debate around recent BLM protests.

As mentioned above, the repertoires of action available for use in protest situations have expanded in the information age. There are countless examples of internet-enabled technologies being utilized to further protest around the globe, from the Zapatista uprisings in Mexico to the Arab Spring and beyond (Tufekci, 2017). Instant communications via a myriad of social media, with the ability, for many, to protest from the comfort of their own smartphone irrespective of location, exposure to mass protest through newsfeeds, re-tweets, Instagram accounts and more, facilitate protest. As protests are made visible via social media use, politicians and officials cannot so easily claim to be unaware of the concerns of the protestors. Of course, with every potential positive aspect of using new technologies there are also potential negatives. Leaving aside the not-inconsiderable amount of trolling of anyone giving their opinion on any subject on social media and other internet fora, there can be a propensity to attract adherents to the cause who only join as a form of clicktivism, and do not really fully empathise or engage with the cause or issue at hand but rather engage to obtain a feeling of belonging to something that is trending, from which they may hope to gain social capital amongst their 'friends', and which may also produce wider social capital gains (Liu, Modrek, & Sieverding, 2019). However, it must be said that this may also be true of people joining 'live' demonstrations and protests.

We have argued that protest and pressure as participation should be a key element of education. To better enable individuals to play an active part in determining their own futures and have the confidence, competences and capacities not just to join at the peak of popular mass protests but to become those who initiate, often but not always, local, micro issues to campaign on, like the siting of a pedestrian crossing or even Greta Thunberg's initial school strike. We should be teaching the skills of activism, advocacy, campaigning, coalition building, lobbying and persuasion in our schools and universities. Educating all people to become activists/digital archivists, who may choose different paths to the same goal of *glocal* (both global and local) social change. Empowering people to have the confidence to challenge the status quo, to press for change and then to effect it to make a better world to bequeath to their children, and ours.

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Discussion (notes)

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Ulrikes are here with us: A few notes on the text Teaching protest and pressure as participation

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The first quote, which I now comment on, is taken from *From protest to resistance*[1] (1986, p. 6) by the controversial West German far-left activist Ulrike Meinhof, who is associated with violent crimes Red Army Faction (RAF). Meinhof was tried together with other RAF members and, under as yet unexplained circumstances, found hanged in her cell before the final verdict was handed down. To this day, there is speculation as to whether it was really suicide. The quote is at the beginning of Meinhof's text and, in an abridged version, concludes it. In this narrative framework, there is a description of the situation of the protesters who, in the end, have recourse to nothing but violence because their critical voice is not heard. The voice is impotent precisely because it is expressed by mere protest. According to the author, resistance is therefore proving to be a necessity. In the text, resistance is explicitly linked to violence. Before Meinhof concludes her comment with the mentioned quote, the phrase "The fun is over" will be heard. Indeed, the fun is over. A few months later, an elderly librarian is killed when a commando breaks into the library where the prisoner and later RAF leader Baader has been deported. With the help of Meinhof, the commando frees Baader. The action is obviously messed up – no shooting should have taken place; however, the "resistance" may bloom. The RAF is formed, and further assassinations and attempted murders will follow.

A person who would like to write a critique on the text *Teaching Protest and Pressure as Participation* could not find a better opportunity to build his counterargument. In essay form, this text expresses the conviction that the curriculum in schools should include "a mandatory class" in which pupils and students learn how to participate in protest social movements and "how to initiate them and further them" (Nixon & Metiary, 2021, p. 68).[2] Do we really want to shake our society like this? Should we really lead our pupils and students to violence? Do we want them to resist the educational efforts of our society? The critic could ask such fiery questions and it would certainly attract the readers' attention.

However, we must return to the text more carefully. The word "participation" is in its title. Rosa Parks, who ignited a wave of nonviolent protest against racism, is quoted a few lines further: "I believe we are here on earth to live, grow and do what we can to make this world a better place for all people to enjoy freedom" (p. 66). This hope is a hope "for all people." This hope was an inspiration for M. L. King, who forged a movement that changed the views of most white Americans on the social and political situation of their Afro-American fellow citizens, and eventually they saw their own injustice. Great persons know that the social protest movement is a dragon that must take off for the world to fulfil its hopes.

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[1] This is an introductory passage that was inspired by a speech of Fred Hampton, the leader of the Black Panthers: "'Protest is when I say I don't like this and that. Resistance is when I see to it that things that I don't like no longer occur. Protest is when I say I will no longer go along with it. Resistance is when I see to it that no one else goes along with it anymore either'. That could be heard – not verbatim – from a black person in the Black Power movement at the Vietnam conference this February in Berlin" (Meinhof, 1968, p. 1).

[2] If the author's name is not given, I am referring to the mentioned text (Nixon & Metiary, 2021).

But a dragon is not an obedient calf. If the protesters' voices do not reach the rulers' ears, they must change their actions. Not strong enough to fly anymore, but now is necessary to start spewing fire. A little further in the commented text, Malcolm X is quoted: "[E]arly in life, I had learned that if you want something, you should make some noise" (p. 69). Malcolm realized that M. L. King's path could not help change the socio-economic injustice that had its origins in American racism but persisted even after many white Americans fully recognized black fellow citizens' civil rights. It was necessary to make some noise. One of the most famous freedom fighters, Nobel Peace Prize winner Nelson Mandela, operated similarly. Before becoming the winner of the Prize, he had refused Gandhi's path of nonviolent resistance and supported actions that we today call "terroristic." The problem of resistance, violence, and non-violence is much more complicated. That is why we should seriously ask how a terrorist can become a Nobel Peace Prize winner. We should take this question very seriously because the times are coming when many repulsive acts will be a sign of despair and powerlessness. Western society last experienced such a turning point at the turn of the 1960s and 1970s. At that time, Meinhof became radicalized.

In such dynamic times, it is crucial to seriously consider the social conflicts. Where does violence in society come from? The essence of social life is communication. Real communication leads to the sharing of opinions, the exchange of arguments, and the opportunity to voluntarily change my beliefs if others' views have changed my thoughts, along with the opportunity to insist on my opinion if my opponents cannot sufficiently substantiate their beliefs. Real communication is a never-ending conflict, but its rules do not allow violence. It is thousands of small wars waged by fair means that can prevent real wars, massacres, and revolutions. When Dewey analyzed the modern state, he identified one major failure that repeatedly leads to violence of all different forms. He concluded the whole passage with this sentence: "The belief in political fixity, of the sanctity of some form of state consecrated by the efforts of our fathers and hallowed by tradition, is one of the stumbling-blocks in the way of orderly and directed change; it is an invitation to revolt and revolution" (lw.2.257).[3] Where tradition is mistaken for a sacred taboo of immutability, we transform communication into its parody, and thus modern society inevitably heads toward violence. The "revolutionary spirit" did not cause the atrocities of the French or Bolshevik revolutions. It is exactly the opposite. Where the state is unable to adapt to current events in society, its actions lead to revolutions.. The "revolutionary spirit" is the product of this incompetence.

So who was Ulrike Meinhof? A woman who felt injustice and who had to fight it. A woman who felt that the ruling power was not paying enough attention to her voice and the voice of her fellows. An intelligent, young, and sensitive woman who did not have the courage, patience, and resilience of Rosa Parks. A creative and untameable woman whom no one had prepared for the long journey of resistance. A woman whom no one had prepared for the path of resistance that unites people, and as a result will eventually force the arrogant or blunt power of the rulers to dialogue, thus preventing violence and brutality.

From this point of view, the text we are discussing is significant. It proposes something unheard of, provocative, and visionary. It proposes to introduce a school subject that would teach pupils and students creative protest, teach them to initiate and lead social protest movements that would be able to correct the one-sidedness and injustices of current socio-political structures, and thus prevent otherwise necessary violence. Under this utopianism, however, lies wisdom. Such a subject would be a sign of a healthy society. By introducing or supporting it, the state would declare that it is aware of its need to be continually corrected by its citizens. On the other hand, the youngest citizens would be taught to be responsible for their own state, because thanks to this subject, creative protests and resistance would be presented as responsible care for the state, not as a sword to kill the enemy. In this way, the state and its citizens would become one body. If Ulrike Marie Meinhof felt like being part

[3] This is an internationally standardized reference to Dewey's *Collected papers* (Dewey, 1992).

of this body, it would be far more difficult for her to identify herself with Baader and his desperate group.

The school subject that could be called *active civic resistance* would be different from traditional ones. It would not be like physics, chemistry, civics, history, or the native language. However, it would contain in varying degrees knowledge of all these subjects and enable what we have been calling for a whole century – to teach our pupils and students to think comprehensively and in material and social contexts. This subject, unlike the classic ones, has one significant advantage. It goes beyond the academic logic of selection and combination of educational content, which originated in the 19th century and only reflected the needs of the emerging scientific disciplines. On the contrary, it combines teaching areas based on life situations and the needs of the person who is going through their challenges. Moreover, the situations that pupils and students would learn to manage in this subject are central to the maintenance and development of democracy. The logic that selects and organizes the subject's educational content is based on the three most essential conditions of human life in a democratic society: the social character of individual life, communication, and creative, nonviolent dispute resolution.

If we could develop teaching on subjects conceived in this way without losing teaching contents that are vital for human beings, we would restore the original mission of education. We would start with life situations and their management, and only from there would our pupils and students venture into the inhospitable abstract worlds of artificial professional disciplines. As an institution, the school abandoned this natural logic in the 19th century. In that time, educators were carried away by the false ethos of "science" and its disciplinary thinking and forgot that their mission was to teach their pupils and students about life and to cope with life. Today, it is difficult for us to return to this logic because, for several generations, we have been brought up in this inhospitable world of "scientifically" distilled teaching.

This failure of pedagogy is also partly responsible for the existence of such a big gap between the state and public. That is why state officials, along with many teachers and parents, will ridicule the proposed subject and argue against it by referring to "the good old tradition" of teaching. However, there is no "good old tradition." Owing to this fact, other Ulrikes will not receive proper support, will radicalize themselves at this turnaround time, and will resort to violence.

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Discussion

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Social pedagogues and social workers in primary school

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Introduction

Seeking connections and boundaries between social pedagogy and social work has a long scientific history. Within the Czech context, this model is indicated in the first third of the 20th century by Hořejší (1928, pp. 72–73), and in the present day, for example, by Skarupská (2016), who identifies a connection between the two professions in social work methods, which social pedagogues also use in practising their profession. Internationally, this is documented by Schilling (1999), and in a review article written by Hämäläinena (2003), who works from three hypotheses. Firstly, that social pedagogy and social work are completely different from each other. Secondly, that social pedagogy and social work are identical. And thirdly, that social pedagogy and social work complement each other (Hämäläinen, 2003, p. 75). Ondrejkovič (2004) considers social pedagogy to be a social work theory. In this case, we need to find a suitable tool just for the area of social pedagogy, which is difficult because, as Kraus (2014) states, research within social pedagogy is varied, and often affected by sampling error. The submitted paper contributes to the discussion through analysis specific work activities of social pedagogues and social workers. Although we realise that these fields and professions, and the working activities they involve, are similar, we also believe that in some areas of their work one can define particular characteristics. The objective of this article is to analyse the specific working activities which apply to both social pedagogues and social workers within the primary school environment. In order to create categories for analysis, we used a breakdown and description of working activities taken from the websites of primary schools where social pedagogues work. The defined activities are characterised on the basis of descriptions published on the websites of the particular primary schools, alongside an analysis of the profession of social workers in the same categories, using the wording of the act describing the occupation of social worker ("Act No. 108/2006," 2019).[1]

Social pedagogues and social workers at primary schools in the Czech Republic

There are not many social pedagogues in Czech primary schools. One encounters them more frequently within institutions providing social services. Social pedagogues work with social groups, such as homeless people, people with disabilities, children and young people, senior citizens, drug addicts, etc. Within this sense, we can also encounter social workers, who are often confused with

[1] Research was undertaken in Slovakia in 2012 and 2013 in collaboration with the Czech Republic focused on the work of social workers within the school environment from the perspective of teachers. Within this research, consideration was given to establishing a new position in schools to resolve the problems of pupils in terms of risky behaviour, developmental disorders and mental disorders, as well as the climate of schools and individual classes. Reference was made to the need for such workers, while taking into account the individual needs of individual schools (Skyba, 2013).

social pedagogues. While there are differences in the working activities of the two professions, they may complement each other within different environments, including in primary schools.

There are today only a few social pedagogues in the Czech Republic who work in primary schools and are part of the teaching staff. Yet many Czech universities and colleges offer social pedagogy as an accredited course of study, preparing social pedagogues for practising their occupation, as demonstrated by available degrees. Graduates find work in the South Moravian Region in particular. It is clear from the practice of Czech primary schools that social pedagogues are meaningful and justified for these primary schools; this is also indicated in the job descriptions available on the internet, which are further analysed.[2]

Why are there still so few social pedagogues in schools? There are a number of reasons. The most common is the budgetary structure of primary schools, set by the school organisation authority, which inevitably fails to include social pedagogues. Primary school principals are forced to justify the need for a social pedagogue position, which is a long and complex process. If the school organisation authority approves the position, the social pedagogue is classified in the tables as a social worker. There is no Czech legislation in regard to the position of social pedagogue, and they are not even included as a member of the teaching staff, as is the case in Slovakia, for example.[3] This is not an advantageous situation for the social pedagogue, because if they are classified as a social worker, their work is subject to different financial remuneration, and furthermore they are not entitled to holidays to the extent granted to teaching staff.[4] Another possible reason might be that principals and teachers are unaware of what the work of a social pedagogue might bring them, and how they could enrich the school. Many teachers may worry that a social pedagogue could use up bonuses for working activities such as preventing risky behaviour, educational guidance, etc. One can also encounter assertions that the school does not exhibit any features of risky behaviour by pupils or parents, and so there is no need to employ such a staff member. But is it not rather the case of insufficient identification of possible prevention or problems, or their suppression?

The fact is that not every school needs a social pedagogue, but they could help for some larger schools, as is the case in the South Moravian Region. Outside the Czech Republic, especially in Poland, Germany and Slovakia, the profession of social pedagogue in "primary" schools is a well-known one (Böhnisch, 1992; Cichosz, 2004; Schilling, 1999). These are countries with a tradition of social pedagogy as a field. Poland is considered the cradle of social pedagogy (Cichosz, 2004), with social pedagogues a common part of the teaching staff. We are also familiar with the situation in Slovakia, where social pedagogues are defined in the Act No. 317/2009 coll., on teaching staff and professional employees ("Act No. 317/2009," 2019) as professional employees of the school.[5]

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[2] These involved the following schools: Primary school Brno, Sirotkova 36 (Strmisková, 2016), Primary and nursery school Křenová ("Základní škola," 2015), Primary school Přerov, Boženy Němcové 16 (Daněk, 2013), Primary and nursery school Brno, nám. 28. října 22 ("Sociální pedagog," 2015), Primary and nursery school Brno, Husova 17 ("Školní poradenské," 2015). Within Slovak primary schools, the situation is different, at least in terms of legislation (see below), but here too there is a problem in terms of sufficient numbers of specialist school personnel, including social pedagogues (Zemančíková, 2014).

[3] Act No. 317/2009 coll., on teaching staff and professional employees ("Act No. 317/2009," 2019).

[4] One option for funding a social pedagogue position involves the school principal securing funds for the position of social pedagogue. Although there are a number of ways to obtain such funds, securing them can be difficult and uncertain. The first option is to include the school in a grant project. Although it is an attractive option, the administration involved in applying for a project and running it is usually complicated. Nor can the applicant be sure that the effort put in to acquire the project will lead to a successfully granted application. Even if the grant project and funding is received, it must be remembered that it will end after a few years, and money will again need to be found for the social pedagogue position.

[5] The job description for social pedagogues in Slovak primary schools is very similar to the job description we give below. In particular, it involves ascertaining, preventing and eliminating risky behaviour in the school. A

If a primary school in the Czech Republic employs a social pedagogue today, it is generally a school whose student body is structured in a specific way, even though it has the status of a standard primary school, not a special or practical primary school. In many cases, these are primary schools with a higher percentage of Romani pupils. Social pedagogues often operate within deprived neighbourhoods, places of temporary accommodation and shelters. In this sense, their work is unique.

The working activities of social pedagogues in primary schools are not enshrined in Czech legislation. Thus primary schools which incorporate the position of social pedagogue within their organisational structure mostly define their working activities themselves on the basis of their needs. We can encounter definitions of the work of a social pedagogue on the websites of primary schools.[6]

From an analysis of these websites, we can divide the common working activities of social pedagogues into six categories:

- Co-operates with child protection services, police, educational and psychological counsellors, educational care centres, special education centres, doctors, diagnostic institutes, village and town councils, public prosecutors and other interested bodies and organisations. This involves establishing co-operation with external bodies and specialists following on from school activities and recommendations – **co-operation with external specialists**.
- Co-operates with classroom teachers, teachers, assistants, pupils and parents. A lot of activity involves co-operation with the classroom teacher, influencing the classroom climate and school climate. One component of the work of a social pedagogue is co-operating with parents and pupils in prevention at all age levels. Is involved in organising career advice. If there is no other career advisor in the primary school, then the social pedagogue can focus on helping pupils who are leaving primary school, securing the agenda in this regard and organising consultation for parents in terms of the future directions available to their pupils – **school counselling centre worker.**
- Focuses on finding children at risk in time (isolation, abuse, neglect, social pathologies, criminality, etc.). Regarding the education of a social pedagogue, diagnostic competencies are utilised. Is able to recognise risky behaviour and also the syndrome of an abused, exploited and neglected child. The next step is followed up by child protection – **preventive activities**.
- Provides help to families without the conditions for children to prepare at home for school (mediating lesson preparation). Help can focus on creating the right home conditions and supporting parents, but also preparing at school through free-of-charge after-school clubs. Creates the conditions for establishing contact and a helping relationship with families in terms of education and co-operation with the family (co-ordinating outreach work and outreach workers) – **outreach (field) work**.
- Helps with organising adaptation and experience events. Seeks to integrate all children into the collective, establishing friendly relationships and adapting to the school environment, e.g. for newcomer pupils – **interviewing pupils and parents**.
- Helps with pupil development in personal and social education. All school teaching staff and specialists are active in this regard. The difference is that compared to classroom and other teachers, the social pedagogue specialises in this area – **organising education commissions**.

major area of exercising the profession also involves establishing co-operation between the family and the school, and helping all teachers in the school to create a positive school climate ("Act No. 317/2009," 2019).

[6] For comparison, we provide links to the descriptions of the work of a social pedagogue at primary schools where such a position is established (Daněk, 2013; "Sociální pedagog," 2015; Strmisková, 2016; "Školní poradenské," 2015; "Základní škola," 2015).

Analysis of the working activities of social pedagogues and social workers

We are utilising a number of criteria in analysing the working activities of social pedagogues and social workers. First of all, we focus on the performance of work by social pedagogues and social workers that relates to the primary school environment. The working activities of a social pedagogue listed in the table are based on an analysis of selected primary school websites, and they are divided into the six categories listed above. Table 1 further defines the working activities of a social worker based on an analysis of Government Regulation No. 222/2010 coll., on a work catalogue of employees in public service and administration ("Government Regulation No. 222/2010," 2019) and Act No. 108/2006 coll., on social services, as amended ("Act No. 108/2006," 2019). Also used in the analysis is a study of specialist resources in social pedagogy and social work (Dočkal, 2008; Gulová, 2015; Kodymová, 2013; Matoušek, Koláčková, & Kodymová, 2005; Urban, 2015, and others).

Table 1
Comparison of the activities of a social pedagogue and social worker

Social pedagogue	Social worker
Co-operation with external specialists involves establishing contact and co-operation with child protection services, education and psychological counselling services or the police, and is very important for the school. It is often essential to send the child to these facilities (with their parents' consent), to know the local external staff and the procedure for how these applications are dealt with. In some cases, the parents do not know the options available to them for resolving their children's problems, and so the social pedagogue can suggest these and know how to explain their benefits.	**Co-operation with external specialists**, most commonly with child protection services, is very important. The school should have contact details for workers who most commonly work and visit the school's catchment area. This doesn't only apply to child protection services: there is frequent co-operation with education and psychological counselling services and special education centres where learning difficulties can be diagnosed.
The **school counselling centre** comprises specialists who monitor the situation at the school and endeavour to respond accordingly and flexibly. These specialists include the school prevention methodologist, school psychologist, guidance counsellor, special education teacher, career advisor and social pedagogue. It is a centre which provides specialist counselling and recommends solutions to certain situations to the school principal, who due to the difficulty of his/her profession and management duties cannot have a personal insight into the situation in every class in the school. The task of the social pedagogue is in particular to provide information from the field, and to note problems and any improvements for individual pupils and whole classes. Documented problems are then submitted to school management in co-operation with classroom teachers.	The **school counselling centre** operates in collaboration with child protection services. Curators and social workers should be familiar with the persons who may ask for reports on pupils to be written, or for other information which the school can provide.
Preventive activities are the focus of the school prevention methodologist, who organises and implements preventative activities. The social	**Preventive activities** involve curators and social workers arranging to hold various talks and discussions when they visit schools. These talks

pedagogue may be the one who points out risky behaviour spreading amongst pupils at a particular time. Co-operation between both these workers is subsequently very important. The social pedagogue may encounter risky behaviour in the field, where he or she may observe it. In regard to deprived areas, a frequent phenomenon is that risky behaviour is shown mainly by the parents, and their children copy this behaviour from them.

should be implemented in co-operation with the social pedagogue in order to respond to the current situation. It may, unfortunately, happen that talks do not have a positive effect, and can even be used by some pupils as a guide for establishing or worsening risky behaviour. It is therefore important to discuss the talk with the school management or specialist staff.

Outreach (field) work is one part of the work of a social pedagogue. It involves visiting a school pupil at their place of residence, in most cases within the catchment area, or in a shelter or other facility. There may be various reasons for such visits – poor pupil performance, unexcused or long-term absence, establishing co-operation with parents, or recruiting parents for co-operation with the school. The social pedagogue is able to ascertain how the child is living, how many siblings they have, and whether they have the space for learning and privacy. In terms of their education, the pedagogue should be able to appropriately assess all aspects. This information acquired from the field is important for further work with the pupil, and helps give a complete picture of the child. The classroom teacher usually provides further supplementary information.

Outreach (field) work for the social worker and curator for children and young people involves visiting their clients in their natural environment according to the town district or neighbourhood assigned to them. The problems they deal with are usually more serious in nature than for the social pedagogue. There is a clear connection – the social pedagogue may discover cases which he or she is able to assess, but which must be transferred to the relevant body in order to be resolved. The danger inherent in this part of the work is clear for both positions.

Interviews with parents and pupils are often conducted by the social pedagogue during outreach work, when they invite the parents to the school for an interview, with a number of teaching staff participating. An urgent situation may occur when an interview has to be conducted in the field. Here, the social pedagogue must demonstrate their communication skills. Interviews with pupils usually take place at the school. They may be official or unofficial in nature. For an official interview, a parent must be present, but unofficial interviews usually involve only the pupil and the social pedagogue or other school specialist (school psychologist, school prevention methodologist) and are usually conducted as an initial warning, which may not involve any more serious punishments.

Interviews with parents and pupils often involve the social worker inviting parents and their children for personal interviews. These are mostly cases involving the family or child's first offence. The family is further monitored and if the situation de-escalates, no additional measures are recommended. The style for conducting the interview is the same or very similar for social pedagogues and social workers. Some families, however, may have issues concerning the authority of the social pedagogue, who does not have many options for resolving the situation (in terms of punishment).

Education commissions are the job of the social pedagogue in terms of organising them and inviting all commission members. If the pedagogue knows the particular pupil and works with him or her, then the pedagogue is also a

Education commissions may be organised by the curator for children and young people, or else the social worker is part of the education commission, which precedes the interviews the school organises internally. This may lead to

member of the commission. The pedagogue works closely with the invited child protection service representative. The social pedagogue often comments on co-operation with the family. If the family is not co-operating, then intervention from the child protection service is likely. Often the decision can remain within the school's competencies, and the social worker does not intervene further.	more serious measures being taken by child protection services. In most cases, there are two to three interviews within the school.

Source: Author.

Although there is an opportunity to compare the working activities of social pedagogues and social workers, we shall continue the analysis using internet sources of identifiable working activities, considering the number of social pedagogues in primary schools and the precision of indicators of their working activities. The previous analysis of the working activities of social pedagogues and social workers in the listed primary schools suggests that both professions have a lot in common, but also show some differences. Social pedagogues in primary schools can help to perform a socialisation function as well as an instructional function, including education. A social pedagogue with a teaching qualification can also be a teacher who works individually with pupils. In this case, they learn with them, adding to the teaching material. In some cases, the social pedagogue may substitute for a teaching assistant, with the teacher making use of his or her help in a teaching unit as a second teacher. Due to its difficulty, a social pedagogue's job description should not be combined with other roles such as guidance counsellor, school psychologist or school prevention methodologist. It is also a good idea to realise that the social pedagogue is not a teacher at the primary or lower secondary level, undertaking direct teaching of a particular subject. Although social pedagogues do not have the necessary education for teaching, they can supplement teaching. They may undertake teaching activities within after-school clubs, or perform individual extra coaching. If we want to consider social workers in the same way as we did pedagogues, then we can focus on preventive programmes and public education activities. This does not involve teaching activities in the true sense of the word, as referred to when talking about teachers.

The work of social workers and social pedagogues incorporates individual work, group work and community work (Matoušek, 2003). In regard to deprived areas and working with ethnic groups, community work is very important. One important aspect of their work may be street work. This essentially refers to outreach work as described in Table 1. Street work is characterised by being focused on finding problems within a specific neighbourhood. For social workers, this is often not possible to do, because social workers are too busy dealing with their own cases. They do not have the time for preventive outreach work. Social pedagogues have more options in terms of street work, but their scope is narrower because they are focused on school pupils and their parents. They do not look for drug addicts or homeless people in order to give them prevention options at all levels.

There are identifiable differences between both working roles in terms of educational attainment. Social pedagogues and social workers leave higher education with a bachelor's or master's degree. Social pedagogues graduate from specialisation in Pedagogy, Pedagogy or Education study programmes. Graduates of Social Pedagogy work as social workers and are classified in their positions according to the relevant law ("Act No. 108/2006," 2019). Graduates of Social Work can work as social pedagogues in primary schools. Due to the content of pre-graduate curricula in Social Pedagogy and Social Work, graduates should find work according to the programme they have studied, as corresponding to their competencies within the particular study programme curriculum. Differences in subjects studied may consist in the number of subjects focused on pedagogy and its sub-disciplines. Social workers need pedagogy subjects, but to a different extent than social pedagogues. The Act on Social Services ("Act No. 108/2006," 2019) defines the educational attainment necessary for the role

of social worker. In order to qualify as a social pedagogue in primary schools, a master's education is important.

The working activities of social pedagogues and social workers are often very difficult: these are callings where an important aspect is the feeling of satisfaction from one's work and helping others. Both positions are helping professions where there is regular and very frequent contact with clients, mainly children and young people, and also with parents. For social pedagogues, communication with teachers can also be hard work, as they sometimes ask for a lot of information to be provided. For social workers, it is important to note the large number of cases they are responsible for. Workers must have a lot of training and information in social and family law, and they must always act in accordance with legal standards. Both professions experience pronounced pressure from management, further education and society. Social pedagogues and social workers also have a large amount of administration to undertake, preventing them from spending more time with clients and pupils. On the other hand, it should be noted that individual records of investigations and interviews may in some cases serve to protect the social pedagogue or worker.

Conclusion

The objective of this paper was to analyse the working activities of social pedagogues and social workers within the Czech primary school environment. It is clear from the paper where the borders between the work of a social pedagogue and the work of a social worker are. The rights and obligations of the profession of social worker in child protection are found in legislation. The situation is more complex when defining the rights and obligations of the profession of social pedagogue. In this situation, the job description of the social pedagogue is the only authority. From an analysis of working activities, it is clear that there is a blurred border between social pedagogue and social worker, assuming their mutual co-operation, which is to the benefit of the primary school and its families. There is an evident difference in education content, with not so much emphasis on certain areas of law and social policy required for social pedagogues. For social workers, the situation is the opposite, because knowledge of legal areas and social policy is fundamental for performing the occupation, both towards clients and in relation to expertise. On the other hand, social workers do not need to complete pedagogy-focused subjects during their studies. However, we can also find areas where we are unable to determine where the border is, such as social deviation, social psychology, and working with clients, something we consider predictable due to the historical development of social pedagogy and social work.

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Guests of the Journal

Interview with Lotte Junker Harbo[a] and Svend Bak[b]

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How do you describe social pedagogy (from a theoretical and practical point of view) in Denmark? In which institutions can we find social pedagogues?

Harbo, L. K., Bak, S.: In our opinion, social pedagogy is best described as a situated practice that draws on what can be seen as a spectrum of different theories, practices, experiences, values and approaches. In that sense it is difficult to describe exactly WHAT social pedagogy is – it depends on the situation, the problem and the context and on the ability of the practitioner to conduct complex analysis in-the-moment. That said, there is a strong tendency in Denmark towards inclusion in both theory and practice, and recognition as both an underlying value in practice and an approach.

The Danish social pedagogical tradition explicitly relates to humanistic values as well as solidarity, and has a strong orientation towards supporting people in participation in different communities. In that sense social pedagogy is a political discipline.

You can find social pedagogues in all sorts of institutions/organizations:

- in homes for children and young people who have suffered any kind of abuse or neglect or are disabled in any way
- in homes for adults with disabilities
- in social psychiatry
- in prisons
- in homes for elderly people who suffer from dementia
- in outreach programmes for families
- in street work
- in youth clubs
- etc.

In fact, nurseries and after-school arrangements for young people started as social pedagogical initiatives back in the late 19th century as a support for working-class families, to ensure both the everyday conditions for the children as well as the parents' opportunities to engage in labour.

What are the main thoughts of social pedagogy in Denmark? Where can we find the roots of these ideas?

Harbo, L. K., Bak, S.: As suggested above, Danish social pedagogy has a strong political nerve and an orientation towards solidarity, democracy and participation. The roots are to be found in Grundtvig, Peter Sabroe, Bang Mikkelsen, Pestalozzi and Natorp, to mention only a few. These days we have a group of Danish thinkers who are developing the discipline: Bent Madsen, Jan Jaap Rothuizen, Niels Rosendal, Lotte Junker Harbo and Karsten Tuft, all engaged in the Danish Association for Social Pedagogy.

How do you describe the relationship between social pedagogy and social work in Denmark (highlighting both the diversity and connections)?

Harbo, L. K., Bak, S.: The main difference between the two disciplines is the focus that social pedagogy has on education as a key to support inclusion in society. Second, the pedagogical paradox is an important element in social pedagogy (How do you support children/human beings in developing their own identity, skills and the ability to exceed what they have learnt from being with you. How do you develop authority in a person by taking part of the authority away from the person?). Another difference is the philosophical element in social pedagogy and the obligation to ensure that what 'you work for' is in line with the wishes of the person; that is what it is all about.

I think the connections are best seen if you talk about street-level social work (as opposed to civil-servant-based social work) – then the two approaches/disciplines share values and approaches and a common orientation towards the freedom of the individual in a given society.

Important topics of social pedagogy include social inequalities and social inclusion. How does social pedagogy work with these phenomena in Denmark?

Harbo, L. K., Bak, S.:

- On an individual/group level through participation in ordinary political activity. Through supporting political action taken by specific groups (right now related to Covid – the homeless)
- Through the trade union (SL), which every now and then expresses its opinion in public and through its close relations with political parties.

What is the linking element between the past, present and future in social pedagogy?

Harbo, L. K., Bak, S.: An interesting question! Thanks! We wish to say education, but we have been in a period of time where social pedagogy has not been a top priority when it comes to the education of pedagogues. However, we believe that this is now about to change. There is a strong need and pressure from different stakeholders (local authorities, politicians, organisations that hire social pedagogues, associations that represent the users) for the knowledge and practical skills that social pedagogues offer.

What are the current main challenges for social pedagogy?

Harbo, L. K., Bak, S.: To ensure and describe itself as a discipline and to maintain and sustain the values of democracy and solidarity. The welfare state seems to absorb the more critical elements of social pedagogy, and there is a need to ensure that both the political and the philosophical elements are as strong as ever.

Can you specifically describe your own social pedagogy practice? What does social pedagogy mean to you?

Bak, S.: Social pedagogy must, in a never-ending process, open up new possibilities of participation for the people we work (together) with. This of course means that you have to adapt to and understand the desires and competencies of the citizens you work with (together with), and adapt to and understand the possibilities available in the society in which you work. On one hand this calls for a strong and insisting solidarity with the citizen, and on the other hand a critical approach to the societal conditions (politics!). It also calls for creativity to make the conditions in which you work capable of performing this task. By conditions I mean:

- Your knowledge and competence
- The knowledge and competence of your colleagues
- The organisational setting (management and cooperation) and the room for competent and creative effort it creates
- The systemic (political) conditions for performing social pedagogy.

Participation is a complex concept. It of course means taking part in societal activities (education and work), but it also refers to being integrated in human group activities.

In this context the quality of the communities is of great importance. So it is also an important focus for social pedagogy to develop a high level of quality in the groups/communities that you are responsible for.

The values of social pedagogy can be summed up in the concept of solidarity.

How has social pedagogical practice changed during your time in this field?

Bak, S.: From a primary focus on care to a stronger and predominant focus on developing the societal integration of the citizens you work with. This of course means that the ideas and the methods have changed a lot. This does not mean that care has disappeared from social pedagogy as an important element, but that the context in which it is used has changed.

Could you describe the activities of the Danish Association of Social Pedagogy? What are the priorities of the Danish Association of Social Pedagogy?

Bak, S.: The organisation must follow closely the development of social pedagogy. This must take place on as high a scientific level as possible, and at the same time in close contact with the practice/reality of social pedagogy. This also means that the organisation must have a critical focus on the societal conditions for performing social pedagogy, which means a strong focus on the societal conditions of the citizens we work (together) with.

We publish a journal twice a year with the best researchers and practitioners we can find as contributors. We have seminars connected to these publications, and we work closely together with educational institutions and with the trade union of the Danish social pedagogues. Our next journal will focus on low arousal as a method in social pedagogy. This autumn the topic will focus on social pedagogical work with school children and youngsters in their spare time (after-school institutions, youth clubs, street work). The spring edition 2022 will focus on social pedagogical work with handicapped children and adults.

Does the current Covid situation affect social pedagogy practice? If so, how?

Bak, S.: Yes, it does. For instance, a lot of youngsters are deeply hurt by the demands of isolation. A lot of social pedagogues are involved in looking up these youngsters, and they try in different and creative ways to alleviate the effects. Isolation may be the key effect of the Covid situation that social pedagogues can do something about in a lot of different contexts. And a lot of social pedagogical activity is going on as a result of that. Quite a few social pedagogues have been publicly critical as to the isolational effect of the lockdowns. In that sense they live up to my criteria for good social pedagogical work.

Lotte Junker Harbo is associate professor at VIA University College, continuing education. Here she focuses her research and lecturing on different aspects of social pedagogy and social work, including how the children, young people and adults that social pedagogy and social work is supposed to help, encounter and perceive that help. In that sense, and in a perspective inspired by the German sociologist Niklas Luhmann, she explores help and the borders of help.

Svend Bak is a trained social pedagogue. He finished his education in 1978, and in the following years he worked as a social pedagogue in various institutions. In the late 80s, he started doing courses for pedagogues and worked as a pedagogical consultant in a larger town administration. After that he started teaching in a college that educated pedagogues. He earned a master's degree in social pedagogy and took an advanced course in organizational development. For the last 15-20 years of his working life, he worked as a teacher and consultant at a large institution that does on-the-job training for educated pedagogues, and carried out many development projects in the social pedagogical field. He retired from this job in 2014, and now he nurtures his interest in social pedagogy as chairman of the Danish Association of Social Pedagogy, and is active in other ways connected to his lifelong interest in social pedagogy.

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Social pedagogy as a study programme

Czech version/Česká verze

Social pedagogy at the Institute of Social Studies at the Faculty of Education, University of Hradec Králové, Czech Republic

Blahoslav Kraus

History

Social Pedagogy as a field in the Czech Republic has its longest tradition at the University of Hradec Králové. Its origin can be dated back to the beginning of the 1990s. The links to this field were obvious, as the Faculty of Education in Hradec Králové was also famous for concentrating on non-teaching pedagogy during the 1970s and 1980s. The fields we could have noticed here were Education, Leisure Time Pedagogy, Pedagogy of Children and Youth Organizations. The Department of Social Pedagogy itself was established in 1991 and provided studies in the following fields: Education, Social Pedagogy Focused on Physical Education, Sport, Ethopedy and Social Work (we followed the idea of ethopedist P. Klíma in saying that Ethopedy is part of Social Pedagogy, not of Special Education). The studies were in the present form as well as in the form of consultations. The master's degree programme in Social Pedagogy was first set up in 1997. The Institute of Social Studies was established in the same year, on February 2, 1997 and, above all, it also guaranteed the fields of Social Pathology and Prevention, Charity and Social Work, Social Communication in State Administration and Social Educational Care for the Sensory Impaired. The Institute was then being developed in terms of not only number of fields, but also number of students, with the prospect of becoming the Faculty of Social Sciences. We estimated to guarantee a wide range of fields connected with the social sphere, so that the students could exercise various assisting professions. The number of students was almost 1500 in 2003, but unfortunately the new faculty was not authorized by the accreditation council, even on the second try in March 2003 (we had tried in January 2002 for the first time). Later on, the "faculty" was split into the Department of Social Pedagogy, Social Work, Special Education, Sociology and Social Pathology within the Faculty of Education. Since then, the heads of the Department of Social Pedagogy have been PaedDr. Monika Žumárová, Ph.D., Mgr. Leona Stašová, Ph.D., and Mgr. Iva Junová, Ph.D.

Thousands of students studying the assisting professions have graduated from the Faculty of Education. The organisational and ideological leader, Prof. PhDr. Blahoslav Kraus, CSc., has been active in building a team of colleagues from pedagogical universities and vocational colleges and promoting socio-pedagogical education in the Czech Republic as well as legal acknowledgement of the profession of social pedagogue. He has significantly influenced the whole concept of this field through a transdisciplinary understanding. He was also the first head of the Department of Social Pedagogy and the head of the Institute of Social Studies.

Present characteristics of the field

The Department of Social Pedagogy currently provides a three-year bachelor's degree in social pedagogy studies focusing on educational work in ethopedic institutions, and a two-year master's degree in social pedagogy. Both programmes can be studied in full-time or combined form. Since 2016 it has even been possible to study Social Pedagogy in English.

The aim of the studies is to prepare professionals for practical experience in a wide range of pedagogical and assisting professions. The study programmes and their specifications conform to valid legislation. With respect to Act No. 563/2004 coll. (2016) regarding pedagogical professions, graduates have been successful in the resort of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports as qualified tutors, leisure time teachers and assistants to teachers. Act No. 108/2006 coll. (2019) regarding social services

enables them to become social workers. Besides these two main resorts, a number of graduates have also become active in resorts of the Ministry of Justice (for example, as Probation and Mediation Service Officers) and the Ministry of the Interior, mainly as tutors or policemen. The aim of the study programmes is to prepare students for a wide range of assisting professions.

This is reflected in the concept of professional experience. Our department focuses on cooperation with workplaces that usually become the employers of the graduates. These include educational and re-educational institutions, leisure time institutions for children and youth, and non-profit organisations. In recent years, we have been successful in cooperating with organisations specialising in primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention. The students in our department participate in seminars, courses and trips focusing on maintaining a healthy lifestyle and the problems associated with social disadvantages.

Our department fully cooperates with social policy subjects (institutions of state administration, civil associations, and other non-profit organisations) within the above-mentioned study programmes to help students with their practice, bachelor's thesis, diploma thesis and research activities.

Scientific activity, international cooperation

The Institute of Social Studies received two grants in 1997 – "Social Pedagogy Study Programme" from the Open Society Fund and "Use of Social-Psychological Training Methods to Create Healthy Lifestyles for University Students" from the University Development Fund of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports. Prof. Kraus helped to submit the international grant – "Research on Youth in the Polish Border Region" (coordinated by the University of Opole). The Institute of Social Studies carried out the research plan "Social Analysis of Secondary School Students in Eastern Bohemia" in 1998–2003, with Prof. Kraus as the head of the research. He also participated in the Bullying Prevention Programme and its evaluation being experimentally put into practice. It was a "Skills for Adolescents" programme, and the research was guaranteed by Academia Medica Pragensis.

The tradition of holding the "Sociália" conferences started in 1997, with Matej Bel University in Banska Bystrica and WSB University in Dąbrowa Górnicza as partners of late.

The workers in our department are members of various professional societies and associations (for example, the Association of Educators in Social Pedagogy, Czech Pedagogical Society, Czech Educational Research Association, Czech Sociological Association).

Our department has been working intensively on cooperation with foreign workplaces, not only in the fields of science and research, but also in the development of student and teacher international activities. The employees and students of the Department of Social Pedagogy were able to visit, for example, Eastern Michigan University (Ypsilanti, Michigan); the University of Loughborough (UK); Saxion University of Applied Sciences, School of Social Work in Enschede (the Netherlands); Thomas More University in Mechelen (Belgium); the University of Iceland, the University of Reykjavík, the University of Akureyri (Iceland); Mykolas Romeris University in Vilnius (Lithuania); Riga Stradins University (Latvia), Larch Hill Centre – international scout & guide centre, Scoil Naomh Brid (Ireland); ESEC Coimbra (Portugal). In the fields of science and research we mainly cooperate with workplaces in Slovakia (Matej Bel University in Banska Bystrica, Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, the University of Presov, University of Sts Cyril and Methodius in Trnava) and Poland (the University of Opole, WSB University in Dąbrowa Górnicza).

The most significant projects in recent years have included "Family and Lifestyle in the Visegrad Countries" (coordinated by the University of Szeged) and "The Risks of the Virtual Environment in the V4," in which we cooperated with Slovak, Polish and Hungarian institutions. The workers in the department are nowadays working on specific projects or internal grant competitions.

The workers in our department are published in professional journals and academic catalogues, and have written a number of monographs and study books for university students. The most significant

ones are: Social aspects of education (Kraus, 1998), Human, environment, education, (Kraus & Poláčková, 2001), How secondary school students live at the beginning of the 21st century (Kraus, 2004), Secondary school students and their lives at the turn of the century (Kraus, 2006), Basics of social pedagogy (Kraus, 2008, 2014b), History of social pedagogy in Europe (Hroncová, Emmerová, & Kraus, 2008), Intergenerational bridges (Žumárová & Balogová, 2009), Subjective quality of the lifestyles of older people (Žumárová, 2012), Society, family and social deviation (Kraus, 2014a), Current lifestyle of the Czech family (Kraus, 2015), New generation: selected aspects of socialization and education of contemporary children and youth in the context of a mediated society (Stašová, Slaninová, & Junová, 2015), Contemporary family lifestyles in Central and Western Europe (Kraus, Stašová, & Junová, 2020), Children with social disadvantages and their educational perspectives (Caltová Hepnarová, 2020).

Conclusion

An overview of the given publications proves that the workers in the Department of Social Pedagogy at the Faculty of Education in Hradec Králové fully understand social pedagogy to be a transdisciplinary field, as it is described in the publication "Human, environment, education", which not only solves problems of people who suffer from social disadvantages and whose social development is threatened, but also focuses on society as a whole and understands the necessity to create a balance between individual needs and the needs of society, so that an optimal lifestyle is achieved (Kraus & Poláčková, 2001).

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Social pedagogy as a study programme

Czech version/Česká verze

Social pedagogy at the Department of Christian Education at the Sts Cyril and Methodius Faculty of Theology, Palacký University Olomouc, Czech Republic

Milena Öbrink Hobzová

Introduction

For more than ten years, the Sts Cyril and Methodius Faculty of Theology (CTMF UP) has taught social pedagogy. The programmes offered build on a dual base. They draw on Christian tradition and the very concrete need to offer help to people who find themselves trapped in difficult life situations. At the same time, they also expand the offerings of non-theology programmes at the faculty. Over the years we have built an environment which is highly appreciated by our students, one in which they can focus both on developing themselves and finding a way to success in the job market.

At present, in the academic year 2020/2021, the accreditation of the social pedagogy study programme is being offered in cooperation with the Faculty of Education, although for many years it was sponsored and carefully developed only by CMTF UP. Students are officially enrolled at the Faculty of Education, while many classes and seminars are still, as they have been since the start thirteen years ago, taught by the Department of Christian Education at our faculty, which still guarantees this study programme.

The history of our programmes and their contents

Courses in social pedagogy are taught mainly by the Department of Christian Education, which was opened in 1993 and organised and run by Assoc. prof. Rudolf Smahel. Since then we have provided the faculty with courses in fields such as pedagogy, psychology and catechism, complementing the theological offerings in other departments. The idea of establishing social pedagogy as a study field at our faculty, introduced by Dr. Jiří Pospíšil and Dr. Jaroslava Martinů, dates back to 2004. Careful preparation and work to pass the accreditation process followed, and since 2007, when the first bachelor's programme was started at the Department of Christian Education, social pedagogy has been an important part of our faculty. In 2009, the offer was complemented with the possibility of earning a degree through part-time studies.

The idea of offering a complementary master's programme began shortly after the field had been established. This work was mainly carried out by Assoc. prof. Petra Potměšilová, who replaced Assoc. prof. Rudolf Smahel in 2016 and is the guarantor of the current social pedagogy study programme. Students first gained the possibility of earning a master's degree in 2015; this was followed by a part-time studies programme in 2017.

The aim of the programme is to deepen and develop the necessary knowledge and skills so that graduates are able to carry out their work independently and effectively. We focus on the managerial, creative and socio-pedagogical activities needed in practice. Design, implementation, and evaluation of preventive and intervention projects are important traits of the programme. Like the bachelor's, the master's programme is taught in cooperation with the Faculty of Education. The graduate profile of the bachelor's and master's programmes corresponds to the standards of the Association of Educators in Social Pedagogy, in whose creation Dr. Jiří Pospíšil and Dr. Milena Öbrink Hobzová participated.

From the beginning, our programmes have been strongly connected to the faculty's Christian role, and to the wider concept of social pedagogy. We put an emphasis on values and principles important in Christian tradition, and on their application in the educational process. This is reflected in the course offerings of our programmes. We teach a range of subjects, for example sociology, philosophy, law, social work and European cultural history, in which a wider ethical aspect is always present. The courses also involve pedagogy and psychology. Primary prevention in both institutionalised and non-institutionalised education is an ever-present theme, visible in subjects such as social pedagogy, social pathological phenomena, leisure pedagogy and management of leisure activities.

As a part of our wider profile, students are required to learn the methodology of leisure activities (drama, music, arts, science, humanities, computer science, physical education and physical recreation). They are prepared for working with a range of different groups, in both prevention and intervention, through a wide choice of facultative courses, such as alternative school systems, seminars in art therapy, experiential education, adult education, and introduction to the study of mass communication.

Our students also take part in an adaptation course, which takes place in the first year immediately after enrolment. The course is organized by the staff of the House of Ignác Stuchlý in Fryšták, specializing in work with children and youth. This course not only works as an ice-breaker and team-building opportunity, but also gives them experience with the methods of social pedagogy directly from the start of their studies. This course is also a part of the new accreditation in cooperation with the Faculty of Education.

One important feature of our study programmes is the connection of theory and practice, which is reflected in the concept of the final theses. Whereas our master's students deal with research into socio-pedagogical topics in their theses, bachelor's students may choose to either write a thesis or complete a bachelor's project. The idea of the projects is to find a partner in the practical field of social pedagogy (such as educational institutions, social services, non-profit organizations, etc.) and create specific ideas about how to develop activities for the organisation's target groups. This ultimately helps them to improve and also helps our students to find employment after their studies. Eventually, it also contributes to establishing the social pedagogue as a wider profession in society. This idea of theses has been kept in the current accreditation with the Faculty of Education.

Another feature is that we have always motivated our students to do internships to gather experience from social pedagogy in the real world. In this way, not only do they learn how to implement what they have learned, but they also meet the various groups that social pedagogues work with on an everyday basis, be they adults, youth or children.

The current form of the study of social pedagogy at CMTF UP

The field has gone through some organisational changes lately. Since applying for the institutional accreditation in 2019, CMTF UP and the Faculty of Education have cooperated regarding the programmes (meaning that for the Faculty of Education it is a new study programme). This means that bachelor's programme students must choose to specialise in Education in Leisure Time (CMTF UP) or Prevention of Social Pathological Phenomena (Faculty of Education). However, both faculties participate equally in teaching the core courses.

The same situation prevails in the follow-up master's study (again in the case of both forms). The specialization chosen by CMTF UP is called Design and Management, and it corresponds to the traditions of the study accredited earlier at the faculty. The Faculty of Education instead offers Educational Counselling.

Graduate profile

When studying social pedagogy at CTMF UP, the focus is always on the development of work competence with future target groups, whether children, youth or adults. It is important that our students are able to work with all future clients and help them to create values, attitudes and healthy lifestyles, and to find the meaning of life. In this, our firm foundation in Christian tradition is a beacon. It helps our students to develop the necessary skills and find the right motivation for their work in a way that will improve society („Změna akreditace," 2018).

A number of our graduates have found employment over the full range of social pedagogy, for example in schools and educational facilities, as teaching assistants, leisure time teachers, or workers in social services (in low-threshold facilities for children and young people, low-threshold facilities for drug users, shelters, etc.). Many have ended up in management positions in these organizations, and often return to their alma mater to talk to students about their experience. Our graduates have also spread the good name of the faculty in other fields, such as child social and legal protection, human resources and media.

There are several reasons why our graduates value the faculty and the education they received. The first is that our courses are always connected to practice, and they develop the necessary skills not in a lecture hall, but in the place where they will work in the future. Another reason is the individual approach and friendly environment at the faculty. As a result, they tend to stay in contact with the faculty after having graduated, for example in 2015, when the conference Social Pedagogy in Theory and Practice took place, or the graduates' meeting at the 10th anniversary of social pedagogy in 2018.

Science and research

The scientific scope of social pedagogy at CMTF UP is a result of the individual staff at the Department of Christian Education, united in the research of values and their reflection on education and leisure time. We also organise a bi-annual international conference called *Youth and Values, Values Education in the Context of a Pluralistic and Multicultural Society* in cooperation with Paidagogos – Society for Philosophy, Theory, and Praxis of Education. Over the years this has become a popular discussion platform for experts in the field of social pedagogy.

The department is also active in publishing within the field. One recent example is the monograph *Social pedagogy in theory and practice* (Potměšilová, 2013). It emphasizes the goals and methods in the work of a social pedagogue as well as the ethical and spiritual dimensions of pedagogical practice. This publication was followed by *Social pedagogy and its methods* (Sobková, Öbrink Hobzová, & Pospíšilová, 2015) two years later. In addition to methods, it also dealt with the concept of social pedagogy abroad (such as in Great Britain, Scandinavia, Germany and Poland). The central theme of values and value education appeared in another joint publication, *Reflections of emotions in the attitudes towards immigrants* (Sobková, Öbrink Hobzová, & Trochtová, 2016).

Our research focuses (often together with students within specific university research projects) on a range of topics: integration of people with disabilities, temperament of children with special needs (Assoc. prof. P. Potměšilová), social and personal development, including emotional and spiritual aspects (Dr. G. Šarníková), language education of adult immigrants, their integration and multicultural education (Dr. M. Öbrink Hobzová), the spiritual dimension of social pedagogy and development of natural human spirituality (Dr. M. Fojtíková Roubalová, Assoc. prof. L. Dřímal, A. Košárková), and values and value education (Dr. L. Trochtová).

It should also be noted that two members of our staff, Dr. Jiří Pospíšil and Dr. Milena Öbrink Hobzová, participated in the foundation of the Association of Educators in Social Pedagogy in 2013, and they are members of the executive board. Being an editor of reviews and information, Dr. M. Öbrink Hobzová is also an active member of the editorial board of the journal Social Education.

Conclusion

Social pedagogy at CMTF UP has come a long way since the time of its foundation as the "youngest" social pedagogy in the Czech Republic. It has turned into an attractive field of study, now an integral part of the Palacký University Olomouc, whose graduates can find a variety of employment opportunities. Our department is also involved in a wide range of cooperation with partners from other universities, and through the Association of Educators in Social Pedagogy we participate in discussions on the direction of Czech social pedagogy and the profession of social pedagogue.

The department has developed both its study programmes and research output since the beginning. Looking at the results, it is easy to see that we are going in the right direction. Based on the diligence that the members of the Department of Christian Education have demonstrated many times during the existence of social pedagogy, we can say that the further development of this study programme, if the conditions in society allow for it, is in good hands.

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Trends and changes of social pedagogy

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Wasted opportunity: Trends and changes of social pedagogy in the environment of the Department of Social Education, Faculty of Education, Masaryk University

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Those interested in the field of study of social pedagogy at the Faculty of Education of Masaryk University in Brno have been able to apply since 1998, and since then, these fields, called study programmes today, have undergone a relatively significant transformation. There have been challenges from different eras, and the Department of Social Pedagogy (hereinafter the Department) has tried to tackle these challenges and respond to them responsibly. There have been challenges related to the development of society, to democratic processes, to complex social problems and the associated requirements for new professions, to a new concept of content, and even to forms or methods of teaching. It needs to be said that a very creative team has met at the Department, who has felt the need to remove various basic and introductory courses of so-called traditional subjects (pedagogy, methodology, psychology, leisure pedagogy, social work) from the education of social pedagogues, and to boldly step forward to what the profession of a social pedagogue represents.

A myth has been developing about social pedagogy, a myth unfortunately supported in the academic environment, that states social pedagogy cannot be conceived as an independent field and scientific discipline, but it must be based on various attributes, as there are concerns about the employment of graduates**. This uncertainty in the conception of social pedagogy can be very easily demonstrated by the example of a "wasted opportunity", when part of the Department tried to go against this stream and attempted to create a consecutive compact bachelor's, master's and doctoral studies of social pedagogy, as the Department was not afraid to teach this unique scientific discipline and, at the same time, offer it in a creative format so close to the very essence of social pedagogy.** It is a discipline that can respond to the transformation of society, as expressed in 2004 by the founder of the field at the Faculty of Education at Masaryk University, Milan Přadka, "*In social pedagogy, it is true, more than in any other pedagogical discipline, that its goals change with changes in society at a specific time and in a specific territory*." This definition, therefore, refers to social pedagogy as a living organism, where we look at the social pedagogue as one who partakes in the transformation of the individual and the whole society. His/her preparation requires more attention, receptivity and thoughtfulness about his/her role in today's society, and, thus, greater responsibility for his/her education.

The way it came about…

The first significant changes in the field of study of social pedagogy, which was created rather intuitively in the early years, began in 2016. Study programmes underwent major revisions, such as a reduction of the number of subjects and specializations with a low credit burden, and at the same time, social pedagogy was accredited as a two-subject study. It was offered to those interested in tandem with fields at the Faculty of Social Studies, specifically with environmental studies or social work. The last, and fundamental, change in bachelor's studies took place in 2018, during the transformation of the field of study into a programme. It should be noted that this was a demanding process with endless discussions and negotiations among the staff of the Department, and from the beginning, there were obvious disagreements about the form of the study programme of social

pedagogy. Part of the team was more inclined towards cosmetic changes, while the other part tried to promote more significant innovations of the study programme of social pedagogy as a living organism, capable of absorbing the latest knowledge not only in content, but also in the form and methods of teaching. In the end, an innovated version was created, but there were still certain concessions that were apparent in the final form of the bachelor's study programme.

What is the core of the innovated bachelor's degree?

A large part of the subjects has a trans-disciplinary character, where there is a connection of knowledge and significant cooperation between teachers and between teachers and students. The former head of the Department, Lenka Gulová, based on her experience in solving numerous projects with the Department, suggested that the "connecting thread" of the entire study programme would be teamwork; students would create and implement unique projects over three years. This idea was eventually implemented. Throughout the innovated bachelor's degree, students go through the process of creating and implementing their own project plan and systematically work in teams. It is definitely worth noting that this way of working has successfully translated into an online form without any significant problems. During the third semester, students cooperate intensively with each other, also in virtual space, and fulfil the implementation of the project plan as a team. From the first semester, of course, students are engaged in practice, and even in this time of the hardest lockdown, a virtual practice that is creative and followable has managed to be implemented. At present, a virtual practice of a social pedagogue for schools in distance education is being prepared, since the social pedagogue's competencies are in great demand due to the social isolation of children and youth. This experience draws attention to social pedagogy as a discipline with great potential towards various social topics.

When redesigning the study programme, the team decided to offer the programme as major + minor studies, a study plan with both a major and a minor. We welcome combinations with other disciplines which at first sight may not be associated with social pedagogy, but in a deeper consideration of current social connections, prove to be extremely important (law, informatics, economics), etc. In the main study plan, graduates achieve the full qualifications of a social pedagogue, just like any other university major. However, they have a chance to add a minor, and study social pedagogy together with other study programmes.

Why such excitement about studying a major + a minor?

Some students of social pedagogy have always looked for further qualifications over the years, and studying parallel studies has proven to be very exhausting. Students may not want to spend years studying one field, but they will want their education to be more flexible not only towards the labour market, but towards the ever-increasing challenges of the growth associated with new professions in areas such as education, leisure time pedagogy, and also social work.

After the demanding process associated with the transformation of the bachelor's studies, the Department faced another great challenge, and that was the formation of the follow-up master's studies in Social Pedagogy. Radim Šíp was appointed the overseer of the study programme, and the Department began preparing for another challenging task. Before the discussion about the form of this study programme could even sufficiently develop, the Dean of the Faculty, Jiří Němec, who is also a member of the Department, stepped in and decided that two study programmes would be created. One of them would be the redesigned Social Pedagogy and the other one would be Leisure Time Pedagogy, first in the form of a proposal and then, after approval, in the form of a follow-up master's degree. Working on these two concepts offered both teams the opportunity to implement their own ideas about the form and content of the study programme. Unfortunately, the proposal for the follow-up master's degree, the Leisure Time Pedagogy, was formed over a relatively long time period, from February to October 2019, and in the end, this plan was not submitted to the Board of Internal Evaluation, because plans for new study programmes at MU were stopped in June 2019.

The follow-up master's degree, the Social Pedagogy programme, on the other hand, was formed in a relatively short time and follows a framework similar to that offered by the bachelor's studies, which is trans-disciplinary and incorporates internationalization, creativity and new trends in education. Innovations also appeared in managing projects, purely in the field of social enterprises. Thus, the follow-up master's degree had great ambitions to significantly follow up on the bachelor's studies, both in the form of major + minor studies, and also by offering subjects that assisted the development of highly creative students.

The study programme represented an innovated concept of studies which were naturally based on the lifetime experience of the department staff that they acquired during the development of theory and practice in connection with their projects. The programme was based on a carefully crafted profile of the graduate, and sought the overall compactness of the entire studies. New projects were created that responded to current trends in social pedagogy and other related fields such as the following: managing projects in social enterprises, social enterprises, mentoring in professional development, communication in difficult life situations, techniques of a social pedagogy worker, professional reflected social pedagogical practice, entrepreneurship in education, environmental education in relation to social pedagogy, social pedagogy in the digital age, etc. Core and specialisation subjects strongly emphasized various areas of social pedagogy in relation to pedagogy, sociology, philosophy, psychology, human rights, environmental studies, digital technologies and other areas and disciplines. The studies provided far more space for social pedagogy itself, which cut across all subjects.

The interconnectedness of subjects was also guaranteed by new teaching methods and approaches, including tandem teaching and short-term (three- to five-day) study internships for students and teachers of the Department with partner organizations. A significant piece of innovation was the concept of written seminar papers, which were to be composed across subjects and were to follow the research and project activities of students. Large space was also given to internationalization (establishing cooperation with foreign partners in the solution of projects and presenting results in English) and teamwork. Adding something novel to the study, students had to create a study and professional portfolio, which was one of the products of their studies. Final state exams were newly conceived; they were to determine not only the knowledge of students, but also their ability to apply theoretical knowledge in practice. So, students would have the opportunity to prove the competence of a social pedagogue. The prepared accreditation of the follow-up master's studies resembled the experience of other current follow-up master's studies, but it appeared far more coherent and more inclined toward social pedagogy itself.

During the evaluation meeting, which took place in June 2019, the programme was highly praised by the evaluator, an expert in the field of social pedagogy from Charles University, but it also encountered a negative opinion from part of the management of the Faculty of Education. Accreditation materials, therefore, underwent a demanding evaluation meeting; the overseer of the study programme had to deal with numerous comments from the Dean of the Faculty, and the study programme was ultimately approved by a majority in the Senate of the Faculty of Education at Masaryk University. Four days before the approval process at the Scientific Council, the Faculty management issued a declaration stating that the study programme was not prepared in accordance with the strategy of the Faculty.

The declaration of the Faculty management classified the follow-up master's degree as a programme that did not seek to fulfil the profiling and qualification framework for the purpose of a social worker. It was, therefore, not responsible for applicants who chose this study programme in order to become professionals in social work. Furthermore, the declaration of the Faculty management stated that the presented programme deviated significantly from the contemporary concept of the field of Social Pedagogy, which has a primarily pedagogical focus that prepares students to work with disadvantaged groups in schools and social institutions, or in the non-profit sector. The newly proposed concept emphasized social entrepreneurship and environmental issues, and significantly shifted the prospective employment of graduates towards managerial and project positions. The Faculty management considered the composition of the subjects and their content as inadequate in relation

to the work for which the Faculty of Education prepares graduates. They used the subject "Pedagogy in the digital era" as their proof, criticizing it for being too broad, containing issues such as: Is chemotaxis a manifestation of intelligence? or What is the essence of techno-humanity?

As is apparent from the description of events, at the end of 2019, the transformation of the master's degree into the Social Pedagogy programme was interrupted during the defence at the Scientific Council. According to the opinion of the implementation team that created the accreditation programme, **there was a cessation of the development of the study programme Social Pedagogy which, in this sense, would follow up on all the positive things that had happened within social pedagogy in all departments. From our point of view the opportunity to conceive the study programme of Social Pedagogy without any compromises and in accordance with current trends was wasted.** The completely prepared study programme was not used and can be offered with all the know-how to those potentially interested in it. The transformation of the master's degree was subsequently taken over by the Dean of the Faculty, Jiří Němec. At present, the master's study programme is undergoing an accreditation process, where the field of study is being transferred into a single-subject study plan, and the first applicants for the studies could start in 2022.

Another wasted opportunity associated with trends in social pedagogy is the fact that part of the Department's team from 2019 to 2020, under the leadership of Radim Šíp and Denisa Denglerová, participated in an innovating and progressive concept of the Social Pedagogy doctoral study programme. This prepared concept of the doctoral studies of Social Pedagogy was created in cooperation with various Czech and foreign experts, and despite its interesting concept that responded to trends in the design of doctoral studies, it was also not used. The programme was not created as a set of subjects aimed at verifying the "knowledge" of doctoral students, but as a sovereign concept involving doctoral students as future researchers who would be able to perform excellent scientific work in Czech and foreign teams over time. As well as the follow-up master's degree accreditation, this concept of doctoral studies is also available to those potentially interested in it.

The follow-up master's degree was rejected by the Faculty management, and the doctoral study programme could not be implemented as it related to a departure of the programme overseer to another workplace. Both programmes could be discussed more widely and could be an inspiration for other workplaces where study programmes of social pedagogy are being developed. The team of implementers believe that both programmes correspond with current trends, and at the same, they have a timeless character which is also appreciated by students of social pedagogy, the same students whose opinions served as one of the inspirations for the creators of the accreditation.

Regarding the current situation in the doctoral studies of Social Pedagogy at the Faculty of Education at Masaryk University, Dušan Klapko was entrusted with the transformation of the Czech and English variants. It needs to be said that this is a great responsibility regarding the content and form of this doctoral study programme, which is the only one in the Czech Republic.

We perceive the potential of social pedagogy as multi-layered and constantly evolving. It is visible how big a role universities play in its development, where social pedagogues are educated, and social pedagogy is shaped as a scientific discipline and profession. Hence, the question arises; can these workplaces use this potential and turn it into a benefit for society as a whole and humanity in general? Will these workplaces associated with non-traditional fields such as social pedagogy receive support from the management of faculties and universities? Will we continue to be forced to squander opportunities in the development of study programmes?

"Reflecting this story of wasted opportunities, we have a surprising parallel between the fates of people in difficult life situations and progressive teachers who want to prepare future social educators to succeed in their professions both today and in the future. Both groups get into trouble because they do not fit into the current institutional system, and instead of the leaders asking how we should change the system to meet the challenges of this time, they try to "tame" the others. However, such behaviour is socially irresponsible and short-sighted."

Mgr. Lenka Gulová, Ph.D. is social pedagogue, guarantor of the bachelor's study program Social Pedagogy and Leisure time at the Faculty of Education, Masaryk University, assistant professor and researcher of Czech and international projects. She deals with subjects related to social pedagogy, social work, gerontagogy, andragogy and multicultural education. Her research focuses on the areas of inclusion in the school and society.

Mgr. et Mgr. Martina Kurowski, Ph.D. is social pedagogue, assistant professor and organizer of community projects. Within the field of research, she is interested in the topics of inclusion of children from socially disadvantaged environments, implementation of social pedagogues in schools and the problematics of diversity in society. At the Department of Social Pedagogy (Faculty of Education, Masaryk University) she teaches intercultural education, project processes and non-hierarchical communication.

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Information

Imagining a Global Alliance for Social Pedagogy and Social Education

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Over the last few years, there has been an increase in global collaborations around social pedagogy, with the formation of transnational research networks, collaborations between international journals, joint international conferences and online events, as well as the cross-national creation of a Massive Open Online Course in Social Pedagogy across Europe. Having been involved in some of these endeavours, it has been exciting for us to see that both practitioners and academics in many countries are very eager to learn about social pedagogy traditions elsewhere in the world. We have noticed first-hand that the emerging developments of social pedagogy in countries without an explicit tradition, such as the United Kingdom and the United States, have greatly benefited from a better understanding of how social pedagogy has evolved as a profession and/or academic discipline in countries where it is well established. At the same time, professionals in these countries have gained new inspiration from the passion, curiosity and initiative that has characterized these new developments.

As the world faces a variety of challenges, such as the Covid-19 pandemic, the resurgence of populism, the climate catastrophe, and the rise of artificial intelligence, it is even more important to counter the ensuing social inequalities in educational ways. To do so effectively and meaningfully, all of us in social pedagogical and social educational professions are called upon to learn from and with each other. This is why we decided to explore the idea of forming a global alliance that can help facilitate greater dialogue and networking at a transnational level, thus adding further to the strengths of the many national associations already in existence.

Our organisations – the Social Pedagogy Association based at Arizona State University and ThemPra Social Pedagogy, a social enterprise leading developments of social pedagogy in the UK – recently partnered up to organise two international conferences and a joint webinar series. As part of these discussions, we pondered the question how we could maximise the opportunities for global collaborations at a time when Zoom meetings are the 'new normal'. Although both our organisations were set up with a clear geographical focus (on the US and UK respectively), we are working well beyond these national boundaries, prompting us to consider whether other organisations were interested in collaborating around a common cause of promoting social pedagogical responses to social issues. We therefore decided to contact social pedagogy associations and other leading organisations in the field with an invitation to discuss whether they were interested in the idea of developing a global alliance and to imagine what this might look like.

To be inclusive and make it possible for people to join the conversation irrespective of the time zone in which they live, we ran 90-minute sessions in the morning, afternoon, and evening of February 19th, 2021. We were delighted to have over 20 participants in each session who represented national associations, journals, networks, and umbrella organisations invested in social pedagogy and social education. Participants came from 24 countries across the globe, including nations where social pedagogy is not well known yet as well as those with a longstanding tradition. We were also delighted that several of the *Sociální pedagogika* editorial team joined us.

The conversations across the 3 virtual sessions were vibrant and imaginative and demonstrated clearly the appetite for the idea. The key themes that emerged from the conversations centred on the following possibilities:

- **Developing understandings of social pedagogy and social education:** This touches on questions about how we can collectively develop the field of social pedagogy, including research, theory and practice, so as to make it globally recognisable. Whilst there are country-specific differences, there are a lot of commonalities too, particularly with regards to our ethical orientation. These can help shape a transnational social pedagogical perspective. A global alliance could provide a creative space to share understandings and learn from traditions in other countries.
- **Social pedagogy and social education journals:** There are now several international open access journals focussed on social pedagogy and social education. These all play an important role in the international discourse and in promoting social pedagogy more widely, and a global alliance would connect well to the journals' respective aims. In addition, open access provides unprecedented opportunities to collaborate across different journals, and we have already taken some steps towards this.
- **Joint projects:** To find meaningful responses to social issues, a global alliance could help both researchers and practitioners share ideas and collaborate on projects. This area sparked various ideas ranging from a database to share research findings, to networking opportunities around shared thematic interests, joint conferences, and collaborations between academic institutions. Many of these initiatives are, of course, already happening, and the question is how a global alliance could further strengthen them, facilitate more inclusive access to the opportunities available as well as enable the creation of new initiatives.
- **Outreach to promote a social pedagogical perspective:** Many contributors mentioned the importance of promoting social pedagogy as a perspective amongst related professions and wider society. Interestingly, this point not only seemed relevant to participants from nations where social pedagogy developments are still in their infancy, but was also echoed by representatives from countries where social pedagogy is established but has been disappearing or merged with other professions.
- **Shared goals and connections:** There was a strong sense of community amongst participants and an appreciation that it is important to feel connected to people who 'get you'. Many therefore felt that it is crucial to nurture a global community of social pedagogues and social educators (and related professions). At a time where our societies are faced with complex challenges, the fight to address social inequalities can feel exhausting, lonely and never-ending. This makes it all the more important to have a global community where people can offer each other courage, inspiration and support.
- **Building and regulating social pedagogy and social education as professions:** Whilst social pedagogy and social education aren't recognised professions in all countries, several participants highlighted the need to develop a clear professional identity, which requires a certain level of standardisation of qualifications and academic programmes. This linked closely with endeavours to raise the status of social pedagogy and social education and lending it legitimacy in the eyes of other professions.

This is not an exhaustive list, of course, and only an initial attempt at summarising all the brilliant ideas discussed in these sessions. It is also worth highlighting that participants brought up a range of questions that need further exploration, including how a global alliance would be funded. While the realisation of some of the above ideas would certainly require financial resources, we believe that many can be realised by streamlining existing initiatives and working together to raise awareness of events and existing networks, many of which are currently online. For instance, we are hosting the

International Social Education and Social Pedagogy Online Conference 'Creating Hope in Dystopia', which will take place from 22-24 June, 2021 (details at www.socialpedagogy.org). We are hoping to bring together participants from across the globe to engage with the conference theme and develop closer ties – in ways that reflect many of the ideas mentioned above. In addition, if all of us contribute in whichever way we can, then we can collectively progress many more of these ideas. We feel that this is an excellent starting point, because it means that the global alliance is brought to life collectively and can grow further in the future to encompass new ideas and directions.

We will continue to be as inclusive as possible in developing the idea of a global alliance in this spirit. All too often, great initiatives are stifled from the outset when those who have come up with an idea shape it by determining the outcome and deciding how best to achieve this outcome before involving others. This approach reduces others' opportunities for meaningful involvement, to bring in their creative ideas and take responsibility. We recognise the limitations of our own imagination and the centrality of engaging with others at the point where the idea is open-ended, so that a clearer vision can emerge from the breadth of contributions and a greater number of people feel a sense of ownership in bringing the idea to life. We are still at the very beginning of this initiative and keen to move forward in shaping a global alliance together with all who feel it could be a valuable endeavour. The next opportunity for this will be at the International Online Conference in June, and we hope you will join us then. You are warmly invited to get involved in developing a global alliance and sharing your ideas on how we can collectively bring the idea to life.

Gabriel Eichsteller is a co-director of ThemPra Social Pedagogy. He has studied social pedagogy, social work and sociology of childhood in Germany, Denmark, and the UK and has gained international practice experience in play work, youth work, children's participation and advocacy. Together with his colleague Sylvia Holthoff, he developed and facilitated the first UK social pedagogy course as part of a pilot project in 2007, which ultimately led them to set up ThemPra. Gabriel has been leading on projects with a range of children's homes and ThemPra's Erasmus+ project developing a Massive Open Online Course in Social Pedagogy across Europe. Since its inception in 2009, he has been co-ordinating the Social Pedagogy Development Network, and he is also a co-editor of the International Journal of Social Pedagogy published by UCL Press.

Kara O'Neil, M.A. is currently serving as Co-President of the Board to the Social Pedagogy Association. She holds an MA in Social Cultural Pedagogy from Arizona State University, and is currently pursuing a doctorate in Social Pedagogy from Leuphana University in Lüneburg, Germany. Kara previously served as the English Language editor for the Papers of Social Pedagogy – Poland, and formerly served as a co-founder and Executive Officer of the Social and Cultural Pedagogy Graduate Organization (SCP-GO) at Arizona State University. She has worked in a variety of care-settings, to include residential homes for children with special needs, residential retirement homes, and more recently as a co-founder and Board President of the Foster Children's Rights Coalition. She works closely with international partners toward the shared goal of expanding the reach and understanding of Social Pedagogy worldwide. Her academic interests include the global history and understanding of social pedagogy, children's rights, political literacy, cultural and transnational relationships, and social media in relation to social change and social movements. She is passionate about progressive social transformation and cultural literacy.

Call for papers

Guidelines for authors

The journal publishes research articles (ca 45,000 characters), book reviews (ca 9,000 characters), news (ca 9,000 characters), expert essays (ca 27,000 characters) or possibly texts in other sections concerning current scientific knowledge in the field of social education. The texts must be original manuscripts not published previously and not granted by the author to be published elsewhere. The editor's office accepts manuscripts in Czech, Slovak, English and other languages – with English translation.

Manuscripts are submitted as attachments to an email addressed to editorsoced@fhs.utb.cz or upon logging into the journal website interface. To simplify authors' work, a template containing a published research article is available and information that author declares that this is the original study and text in this form has never been published or submitted for publication. Along with the template authors use title page. This document contains the authors' affiliation, ORCID ID and contact information for potential reviewers.

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Call for Papers

Single-topic issue 9(2), November 2021

Topic: Reflections of current social educational aspects within domestic or foreign education policy

Editor-in-chief: Dušan Klapko & Renáta Tichá

Authors are warmly invited to submit papers for the November issue

Year 9 / Number 2 / **November 2021**

Dear authors

We would like to reach out to you in regard to the autumn issue of the Social Education journal (SocEd) with an offer for you to publish a paper in this issue, whose topic is:

Reflections of current social educational aspects within domestic or foreign education policy.

We perceive social educational aspects from an axiological perspective, meaning that we want to anchor this call in the issue of social justice, equal access to education or socially-oriented transfer of socialisation models in education. The topic of the call also includes the option of creating a critical analysis of the current conceptualization of education policy. Individual papers can be conceived as theoretical or as research studies. For a clearer idea, we would like to suggest the following range of topics related to the call:

- implementing social inclusion at the level of education policy, or at the level of specific schools,
- co-operation between schools and non-school entities,
- (critical) debate on inclusive and selective education systems,
- socialisation role of current schools, examples from educational practice,
- assessing the implementation of various measures to achieve equal access to education,
- response of schools to current global humanitarian problems,
- education system visions in today's world.

Important deadlines

Abstracts submission at editorsoced@utb.cz	May 15, 2021
Full-texts submission	June 30, 2021
Published online	November 15, 2021

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Call for Papers

Single-topic issue 10(1), April 2022

Topic: Social Education target groups

Editor-in-chief: Lenka Gulová, František Trapl & Lenka Ďulíková

Authors are warmly invited to submit papers for the April issue

Year 10 / Number 1 / **April 2022**

Through its action, social education has the potential to reach a broad spectrum of diverse target groups. These groups include not just children, adolescents and adults, but particular attention is also focused on elderly groups, in particular in regard to their activation. Another important issue in social education involve groups which are socially disadvantaged, such as the Romani and members of other national and ethnic minorities, as well as, for example, single mothers, parents affected by various pathologies, people in difficult social situations, etc. We focus mainly on prevention, motivation and activation amongst social education target groups, rather than intervention. We therefore cannot interchange social education with the action of social work. This does not, however, reject the possible overlap and co-operation between these disciplines, but we do endeavour to value and underscore different levels of social education work. In regard to social education target groups, we must also bear social education methods in mind. What can we consider the methods of social education, and what is their potential today and in future, what theories are they based on and what role does social education research play here? These are questions which authors may also posit for this call.

Important Days:

Abstracts submission at editorsoced@utb.cz	September 15, 2021
Full-texts submission	November 15, 2021
Published online	April 15, 2022

The journal is placed on the List of non-impact peer-reviewed journals published in the Czech Republic and indexed in ERIH PLUS database, ERA (Taylor & Francis), EBSCO, CEJSH, ProQuest, SSRN, DOAJ, ROAD, CEEOL, OAJI, SHERPA/RoMEO, Ulrich's Periodicals Directory, Google Scholar, The Keepers Registry, ResearchGate, Academia.edu, Academic Resource Index, and SIS database.

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Call for Papers

Single-topic issue 10(2), November 2022

Topic: The historical roots of social education

Editor-in-chief: Miroslav Procházka

Authors are warmly invited to submit papers for the November issue

Year 10 / Number 2 / **November 2022**

One of the characteristics of evolving science is its ability to reflect its historical development, and map and analyse the thought sources it is based on and in which ideological support is found in discussions on contemporary problems. Social education has a rich historical tradition in this regard, unique in its broad interdisciplinary scope and theoretical and practical focus. We can find here figures representing philosophical, philosophical-anthropological, sociological and educational thought, who have laid the foundations for social education as a theoretical science. Their opinions on the social role of education as a stabilising element for society can bring answers in seeking the substance of a wide range of current problems. Also inspiring, however, are the personal examples of individuals or movements engaged in practical social education activities. Examples of positive social education work, in particular with marginalised individuals or groups, can be an important signal for the field's potential in actively resolving current social and educational problems.

The single-topic edition of the journal being prepared anticipates papers focused on mapping the historical roots of social education, and the field's history can be related both to the ideological roots of social education in the period prior to fields actual constitution, and also to its ideological foundations in the 19th and 20th centuries. Thus authors' manuscripts can be focused on the following:

- schools of thought looking at integrating social educational thought into a separate academic field;
- figures of social education and an assessment of their lives and works for the field's development;
- examples of social educational work in the 19th and 20th centuries;
- formulating opinions on the concept of the subject of social education in an historical context.

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Papers may be synthetic or analytical, with support in historical sources or the original intellectual works of selected figures of social education contributing to knowledge of the history of the field.

Important deadlines:

Abstracts submission at editorsoced@utb.cz	May 15, 2022
Full-text submission	June 30, 2022
Published online	November 15, 2022

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The journal provides DOI, Similarity Check and CrossMark (CrossRef) for peer-reviewed papers.

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Časopis pro sociální pedagogiku
The journal for socio-educational theory and research

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