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Introduction

On the last decades the progress of mankind has changed the human behaviour and attitudes towards its own life and surroundings. The current social reality because of wave of migrants is marked multicultural. We can observe many people who are not able to get used to present affairs. Every change makes us the new view to reality and it causes fear of something unknown, appears threats. Cultural differences are very often the cause misunderstandings and conflicts. Language differences, wrong interpretation of non-verbal signals can make communication different and even make it impossible. That is why communication not to say social communication is so important in our life.

The monograph contains the articles concerning the widely understood social communication in multiculturalism. The scope of analyses made by authors is different therefore texts were divided in two chapters.

Chapter 1 demonstrates the theoretical framework for the communicative behaviour of teachers. Communication competence is the ability to use language suitably to the situation and the recipient; interested in language pragmatics, i.e. the conditions of effectiveness of language communication. The specific communication and disposal of special skills are needed in multicultural environment. The other perspective presented in the monograph rests on education in particular putting emphasis on service-learning strategy. Service-learning creates the space for activities within the community. The service-learning method is focused not only on the teaching but also on the learning process, therefore it is defined as an active teaching-learning strategy based on service to others with the aim to develop personality and form civic responsibility.

Chapter 2 concentrates on social workers' activities. This section of the monograph presents preparation of social workers to operate and communicate in a multicultural environment. The role of social work is a professional activity in different environments. The social worker can be concentrated on dysfunctional families, the unemployed, people who are not able to focus on current affairs or laws, have health problems, affected by the problems of their age, they have a different lifestyle than most living. Furthermore, the chapter explains the process of mediation and demonstrate the connection between mediation and social work. Mediation is a new form of alternative dispute resolution, which aims to resolve conflicts quickly, objectively and constructively. It also shows motivational interviewing in practice of social worker. Motivational interviewing is a counselling approach aimed at encouraging the pursuit of motivation to change behaviour. Furthermore, this part of the monograph delves into how important is the acceptance of historical, cultural, social and spiritual specifics or, in other words, a clever application of

universal directives in a criterion the prevention of radicalism and extremism among today's youth. Notably, the chapter provides the description of this type of researches.

All in all, the present monograph constitutes a contribution to the description and analysis of social communication in multiculturalism. Nevertheless, due attention must be drawn to the fact that these approaches coalesce at some point. The aspect that the frameworks have in common is the significant position of man in cross-cultured world.

We hope that the reading of the monograph will contribute to better understanding and deepening the knowledge concerning of social communication not only in the social work and inspire for further research in dynamically developing world.

Editors

Chapter I Educational contexts of social communication in a multicultural world

Krystyna Ostapiuk

Competences in cross-culture communication of teachers

ABSTRACT

The article indicates some markers of communication competences of teachers, taking into consideration theoretical assumptions, globalization processes, and the current expectations of the education department. The process of interpersonal communication is essential in the process of communication. There are strict correlations between education and cultural identity. Education systems must take into consideration cultural identity to draw attention of social interest towards the development of values for which the central interest is human being. Language differences, wrong interpretation of non-verbal signals, stereotypes and bias can not only make communication difficult, but even make it impossible. The paper stresses the importance of non-verbal communication, so-called body language, as an important component of communication competences of teachers. It discusses the results of the empirical research concerning the aspects of teacher-student communication in the process of education and the ways of implementing interpersonal space and distance during the classes. It was assumed that the proxemic aspect is easy to observe, and it evidently indicates the attitudes and emotions of teachers. The results showing the factual state of the ways of implementing space and distance between academic teachers and students have been compared to the state desired by students. The conclusions obtained may constitute a premise for modifying the curricula and professional teacher training.

KEY WORDS: communication, cross-culture communication, competences, education, language, teaching competences, written and spoken communiques, attitude, verbal communication, non-verbal communication, proxemics, language culture

Introduction

Competences are skills which one gains in the process of socialization and education, indispensable at fulfilling many social roles. Thanks to them people show various attitude towards their surroundings, as possessing or not certain competences limits the number of offers which the surroundings offers to an individual. In analytical sense they may be treated in several ways. Robert Kwaśnica, considering the specifics of teaching profession, differing in respect to types of schools and education level, proposed the concept of two rationalities. According to this concept human experience is created in two meaning spheres: technical knowledge sphere and practical-

moral one. Accordingly, we can differentiate two groups of competences: practical-moral and technical. Communication competences belong to practical-moral group (Kwaśnica 1994:16-17).

The report made for UNESCO in 1998 by J. Delors explicitly mentioned, in the fourth pillar of education, the necessity to develop communication skills, and in the third pillar, defined as Learning – to live together, to aim at more full understanding of others.

The quoted document relates to the earlier report by Edgar Faure, which stressed that education aims at full development of human beings in all the aspects of their personality and various forms of expression and engagement: as an individual, family member, society member, citizen and producer, technical inventor and creator of dreams (Faure 1975: 95).

Also the so-called White Book stresses the necessity to develop, in the process of education, competences useful in terms of good personal relationship, the ways of behaving at work and the whole gamut of accompanying competences, like the ability to cooperate, teamwork, creativity, and achieving proper level of carrying out professional tasks (European Commission 1995: 31).

Sztejnberg writing about the competences of contemporary teachers, beside communication competences, mentions media-information competences and stresses that they should be expressed by verbal and non-verbal behaviours in didactic situations, and also the ability to use information technology (Sztejnberg 2001: 90).

In the premises of teachers' training standards in MENiS' regulation (Rozporządzenie MENiS z 7 września 2004), there are contained basic competences which should be mastered by students – future teachers. Among these competences are communication and media-information competences expressed by the efficiency of verbal and non-verbal behaviours in educational situations, and also the ability to use information technology.

The ongoing process of globalization is another reason for which the interest in the competences of “citizens of the world” becomes an essential element of professional training. Nussbaum states that: “Modern world has become irreversibly multicultural and multinational. Reasonable cooperative solution of many most important problems calls for dialogue connecting people belonging to different nations, cultures or religions.” (Nussbaum 2008: 16).

On the basis of analysis of cultural differences occurring in different ethnic groups, T. Hall and Ruth and John Useem came to conclusion that it is necessary to define a new kind of communication, occurring as a process between nations. Thus a new discipline emerged, called cross-cultural communication, examining the influence of every cultural phenomena on social communication (Hall 1987: 8). In the shortest and the most accurate definition of cross-cultural communication the author included the very core of the problem. It says: culture is communication,

and communication is culture. In further discussion the author states that the culture in which we live defines the way in which we communicate, and the way in which we communicate defines our culture (Szopski 2005: 19-20).

He expression of communication competences of academic teachers, beside listening, is the ability to understand both the contents of students' statements and their intentions. He basis for communication competences is the skill of language usage. According to constructivists, it is a tool of cognition, but also of co-constructing the reality (Sady 2000: 65). Language is something more than merely a tool for expressing thoughts or a tool to communicate. In the education area it is considered the basic means of the work of academic teachers, the means of immense importance (Koć- Seniuch 2000: 47). It is the means which, according to Stanisław Dylak, creates the opportunity to create, process and share their interpretations of reality and entering social interactions for students (Dylak 1997: 74).

Communication competence is the ability to use language suitably to the situation and the recipient. This competence is studied by psycholinguists interested in language pragmatics, i.e. the conditions of effectiveness of language communication. It is also within the interest of sociolinguistics, i.e. the sociology of language (Dylak 1997: 26).

There are two forms of verbal communication: oral and written. He oral one appeared with the development of speech, while the written one is the consequence of inventing writing. Speech and writing use different systems of communiques. In the act of speech sound communiques are characteristic whereas graphic communiques appear in written communication (Dylak 1997: 25).

According to Bogusława Dobek-Ostrowska, written form of verbal communication is more often of formal than informal character. It is used at all levels of human communication process. The advantages of written communicate are its permanence, and the possibility of careful preparation, its disadvantages are its formal and closed the lack of possibility to create direct feedback (Dobek-Ostrowska 1999).

Communication competences are essential in the academic teachers' work with students. The ability to use various verbal and non-verbal behaviours during classes favours creating learning-friendly atmosphere. Positive non-verbal behaviours of teachers, occurring in education situations may stress their accessibility, closeness, emotional warmth and the readiness to communicate with students. The way in which academic teachers use space during classes and the eye contact can affect students deeply or otherwise, decrease the willingness to communicate with the teacher.

We formulate a thesis that many education problems results from the lack of knowledge concerning communication in education situations, especially the inability to use this knowledge

in didactic situations. According to Maria Szybisz, the manner and quality of communication between teachers and students is of key importance in this approach. There are many assumptions confirming the rightness of this thesis (Szybisz 1996) . According to many authors, including Grażyna Kowalska, communicating of education process participants is one of indispensable conditions of the existence of this institution the communication between teachers and students should respect the principle of personal and fair mutual treatment (Kowalska 2000: 32).

The process of education is the process of constant communication. In everyday education, academic teachers should communicate logically and properly with the students clearly express their thoughts. As communication also comprises non-verbal elements, they should have some knowledge about them, to use them in establishing better relations with students. On-verbal elements may show teachers' availability, closeness and emotional warmth, and also their readiness to communicate with students. Such behaviours have been recommended for years in Polish pedagogic and pedeutologic literature.

In this article we concentrate on some selected aspects of communication between academic teachers and students in education process, visible especially in mastering the rules of non-verbal communication. We chose two aspects of communication occurring between academic teachers and students during classes – resulting from the preferred by teachers forms of education, marking specific ways of communicating between the participant of education process and the ways of using interpersonal space and the distance between teachers and students.

The presented kinds of student-teacher interactions in the opinion of students (207) of three universities (University of Management “Edukacja” in Wrocław, Wrocław Technical University and Zielona Góra University) examine the use of interpersonal space and distance between teachers and students during the classes. The material has been processed to describe and evaluate communication competences. In the conclusion we present the main observations emerging from the study, important for the practice related to educating future teachers and those teachers who want to excel in these competences.

Kinds of interactions teacher-student in didactic situations

Kinds of interactions between the participants of the education process, creating specific atmosphere in favour of or against the intellectual work of students influences the results of education. The examined students were asked to assess the percentage of the presented models of teacher-student interaction occurring during their course of studies, that is 'as it is' (column 1) and how they want the use of space and distance, that is 'as it should be' (column 2). The percentage is more a rating of the frequency of the occurrence of these models in educational practice. In both

sections of this task the respondents were asked to rate (in per cent) the proportion of each model, with the assumption that their sum in every case should equal 100 per cent. We aimed at identifying the differences between the reality and ideal interactions presented by models.

As categories defining kinds of interactions we assumed models proposed by A. Sztejnberg, as per definition they give the possibility to carry out full repertoire of both didactic forms and educational goals. These models are the following:

1. Model 'centred on a teacher'
2. 'Lecture – discussion' model
3. Active learning' model
4. 'Active learning – independent planning' model
5. 'Group centred on task' model

'Independent work', model assuming lack of interaction (Sztejnberg 2001: 104-105) .

In the light of comments of the respondents we may observe that it is not the form of classes itself, but the attitude of the teacher which is essential. What counts is, first of all, the engagement of academic teachers in what they do and their attitude towards their students. It is important whether teachers recognise their students or treat them anonymously and if they are important partners in the course of the studies.

Table 1. Fulfilled social role and the opinion of the respondents about teacher-student interactions (data in per cent)

Kinds of interaction teacher-students	Teachers N=131		Candidates N=76	
	1	2	1	2
Model 'centred on a teacher'	30,8	8,5	24,6	6,2
'Lecture – discussion' model	28,3	30,1	26,7	32,2
'Active learning' model	24,1	29,3	18,9	28,5
'Active learning – independent planning' model	15,7	17,7	13,1	19,7
'Group centred on task' model – lack of hierarchic structure, activity based on cooperation	8,9	13,5	7,5	11,2
'Independent work', model assuming lack of interaction	3,9	4,7	4	3,3

Source: Sztejnberg: 2001, 104-105; own research and calculations

1 = as it is; 2 = as it should be

From the data in Table 1 we can see that students and teachers studying at university most commonly deal with lecture-discussion model (almost 28% of teachers and 27% of candidates) and all those forms of classes focused on the teacher (31% teachers and 25% candidates). The third model, in respect of frequency (24% teachers and 19% candidates) is active learning which probably consists in completing assigned tasks or exercises. Active learning-independent planning' model, where everyone works independently, is present much less in the examined universities. It was selected by 16% of teachers and 13% of candidates. Even less often 'group centred on task' or 'independent work' models occur, respectably 8-9% and about 4%.

As for the model of interaction most desired by students and teachers, lecture-discussion was pointed most often (30-32%). Thus we can see that the most desired model occurs I practice most often. The model of active learning, on the other hand, is less frequent in reality than students wish (29% chose this model). The model centred on the teacher is quite often in reality, but less often pointed to as a desired one. The difference between as it is and as it is should be in this respect amount to 18-24%. only 6-8% of teachers and candidates opt for it. The third model, according to the preferences, is 'active learning-independent planning' model (18-20%).

Table 2. Faculty of studies and kinds of teacher-student interaction (data in %)

Kinds of interaction teacher-students	Humanistic, social and art N=145		Science N=62	
	1	2	1	2
Model 'centred on a teacher'	26,8	7,5	30,3	5,8
'Lecture – discussion' model	29,1	31,5	27,2	32,4
'Active learning' model	20,3	28,7	22,5	25,6
'Active learning – independent planning' model	14,2	19,5	13,5	17,7
'Group centred on task' model – lack of hierarchic structure, activity based on cooperation	8,5	12,4	8,1	11,4
'Independent work', model assuming lack of interaction	4,3	3,8	3,9	3

Source: Sztejnberg 2001, pp. 104-105; own research and calculations

1 = as it is; 2 = as it should be

From the data presented in Table 2 we can see that students and teachers in training deal mostly with the lecture-discussion model (almost 29% at humanistic, social and art studies and 27% at science faculties) and also models centred on teacher (27% at humanistic, social and art studies and 30% at science faculties). The third indicated model was active learning model, consisting in completing assigned tasks and exercises (20% at humanistic, social and art studies and 22% at science faculties). At the examined universities, where active learning-independent planning model, consisting in learning independently from others, occurs and was appointed by 14% of respondents from both groups. The most rare are models group centred on task and independent work (about 4%).

The use of interpersonal space and distance between teacher and students in class

In the research we assumed that the key importance for the kind and quality of communication during didactic classes lies in, characteristic for specific teachers, way of using the space and distance between teachers and students. To define this variable, we utilized categories presented by A. Sztejnberg:

1. Public sphere – the teacher sits behind the desk;
2. Social sphere – the teacher approaches first row of students’ desks;
3. Personal sphere – the teacher walks around the classroom;
4. Intimacy sphere – the teacher approaches every student;

Subsphere – the teacher involves in haptic contact with students (Sztejnberg 2001: 101).

The aim of the research was to recognize what kind of behaviour of academic teachers defined in the categories of shaping interpersonal space and distance between them and their students can be observed by the respondents at universities they study at. Students were asked to define physical distances most often applied by the teachers in class and to point out the most desired distances and ways of using space.

Table 3 Fulfilled social role and ways of using interpersonal space and distance in class (data in %)

Kind of sphere	Science N=62		Science N=69	
	1	2	1	2
Public sphere	43,1	27,2	39,5	30,5
Social sphere	21	23,1	19,2	19,6
Personal sphere	27,1	31,2	24,5	30,5
Intimacy sphere	8,8	18,4	10	18,6
Subsphere	5,3	1,8	6,1	1,6

Source: Sztejnberg 2001, p. 101; own research and calculations

1 = as it is; 2 = as it should be

From the data in Table 3 we can see that the most often observed behaviour at universities from which the data come is sitting behind the desk by academic teachers (40% of both, teachers and candidates). The second by frequency of occurrence is moving around the classroom by teachers (27% teachers and 25% candidates). The third observed behaviour is stopping at the first rows of desks (22% teachers and 19% candidates). Quite rare – in the light of respondents' answers – is approaching individual students (about 10% in both groups of respondents), and even less frequent – making physical contact with students (5% teachers and 6% candidates).

Behaviours most wanted by students are those which are realized most often: lecturing from behind the desk (about 40% responses from both groups) and moving around the classroom (about 30% of responses from both groups). Approaching first rows was preferred by 21-22% of examined teachers and candidates. The differences between the reality and the desired state are the most significant in the case of lecturing from behind the desk and they amount to -12% for teachers and -9% for candidates. This means that this desired behaviour is realized more often than the respondents wish. Approaching individual students seems interesting as this kind of behaviour is observed by about 6% of respondents, but only 2% points it as desired in both groups.

Table 4 Faculty and using interpersonal space and distance in class (data in %)

Kind of sphere	Students of Politechnika Wrocławska		Students of Politechnika Zielonogórska	
	1	2	1	2
Public sphere	36,6	28,9	42,9	29,6
Social sphere	20,1	21	20	22,2
Personal sphere	24,8	30,2	21,8	30
Intimacy sphere	9,4	19,9	9,7	15,1
Subsphere	5,1	1,8	6,6	1,7

Source: Sztejnberg 2002, pp. 101 own research and calculations

1 = as it is; 2 = as it should be

From the data in Table 4 we can see that the most frequently observed behaviour at examined universities is lecturing from behind the desk (37% of humanistic, social and art and 43% of science graduates). The second in respect of frequency is moving around the classroom by the teacher (25% of humanistic, social and art and 22% of science graduates). The third frequent behaviour at universities is stopping by first rows (about 20% of both faculties). Rare – in the light

of responses – is approaching individual students (about 6% of both faculties), and even less frequent – making physical contact with students (5% of humanistic, social and art and 7% of science graduates).

Conclusion

Nowadays in many countries there evolves a theory of so-called teacher's competences. The term “teacher's competences” means a collection of professional skills, knowledge, values, attitudes which every teacher should possess to work effectively. The most often we mention two groups of competences: personal competences (relating to attitudes, skills and other psychological features) and professional competences (relating to didactic and communication skills).

According to Genowefa Koć-Seniuch what we call communication competence emerges from personal experience of every human being. As the result of socialisation it brings about acquired patterns of social situation behaviours, culture of expressing own emotional states, and even the ways of showing erudition, learning, attitude towards the world. Communication competence includes self-awareness, the awareness of the public and individual ego, the awareness of readiness to complete tasks on the expected level, natural openness to enter interactive relations expressing the need to cooperate and mutual influence (Koć-Seniuch 1998: 43).

For teachers, a value of utmost importance is the bond with the students and related to it awareness of the ability to empathise with the 'otherness' of the student and its understanding, and also the ability to start and sustain contacts with students and school group. Possessing these abilities on high level allows effective interacting and thus the effects of didactic work. The level of competences perceived in present time is a complex, multidimensional structure, impossible to frame in narrow standards and it constitutes communication character of education processes.

Alžbeta Brozmanová Gregorová, Zuzana Heinzová

The development of social and personal responsibility using a service-learning strategy

ABSTRACT

Social and personal development is a part of the moral characteristics of a personality (Swaner 2005). The research in the field of social and personal responsibility development shows that educational programmes based on experience-learning strategy are effective (Hellison, 2003; Conrad – Hedinová, 1981; Brozmanová – Gregorová, 2007 and others). Service-learning is one of these strategies connecting education and service in a community. During the academic year 2015/16, we observed a group of 22 students attending a subject based on service-learning strategy in order to find out whether their social and personal responsibility is developing. Their results were compared with a state of social and personal responsibility in a test group (N=9). Data were obtained using a Social and Personal Responsibility Scale according to Conrad and (Hadinová 1981). The scale was specially created for the research needs to find the influence of experience learning on personality development. The research results show that the statistically significant increase of social and personal development appeared in an experimental group of students attending the subject based on service-learning strategy in four from five subscales of the Social and Personal Responsibility Scale compared to the test group.

KEY WORDS: social and personal responsibility, service-learning.

Introduction

The current global and not only economic crisis has been caused by basic mistakes in the area of transparency, reliability, responsibility, and short-term thinking (European Communities 2001). In the last decades the progress of mankind and especially its negatives appearing in a social life has raised the need to change people's behaviour and attitudes towards their own life and surroundings.

It is necessary to make an appeal to the responsible attitude not only of individuals, but wide communities as well. The change of attitude supposes education aimed at responsibility and active citizenship, which is a part of holistic attitudes towards education in the twenty-first century. In 1996 UNESCO introduced four education pillars for the twenty-first century (Delors et al., 1996). These pillars underline the very breadth and depth of UNESCO's vision of education within and beyond schooling. Education, the report holds, must be organized around four fundamental

types of learning throughout a person's life: learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together, and learning to be. Although they can be defined separately, they form an integrated whole and should ideally be present in all pedagogical encounters and the curriculum as a whole. Schools are considered to be the appropriate social institution to accomplish these goals both because they are the only institutions that have the capacity and mandate to reach virtually every young person and because they are a key contributor to the development of social norms.

Personal responsibility is defined as a person's "response-ability," that is, the ability of a person to maturely respond to the various challenges and circumstances of life. Personal capital is also closely connected with character, when character is defined as a person's moral or ethical quality, and the character of a person gives them advantages to respond to the challenges of life. As proven by Swaner (2005), responsibility belongs among psychological characteristics classified as self-regulative qualities, such as virtue and moral qualities. Swaner further defines personal responsibility as a multidimensional construct which includes behavioural, cognitive, emotional and moral components. Besides, responsibility as a characteristic is related to personal maturing, thus, also a case of an individual's ontogenetic characteristic.

The first theoretical concept of an individual's personal responsibility was introduced by Heider in 1958, which proceeded from an individual's behaviour. Heider indicated that the personal responsibility of an individual is determined by external factors in the meaning of causality (what happened) and expectations (what should happen). Schlenkler, Britt, Pennington, Murphy and Doherty (1994) introduced a so-called triangular model that includes three elements: the rules (behaviour and functioning norms), events (behaviour units), and an individual's identity (their social roles, qualities and commitments). Mergler, Spencer and Patton (2008) defines personal responsibility as a person's ability to regulate their own thoughts, feelings and behaviour, as well as willingness to be responsible for accepted decisions in both the social and personal level. Conrad and Hedin (1981) define responsibility as a multi-faceted concept, which includes three major dimensions - attitudes, competence, and efficacy and a person acting in a responsible manner when the following conditions are present. "First, one must feel a sense of responsibility of having a responsible attitude toward others in society. Second, one must have competence to act upon this feeling of concern for others. Finally, one must have a sense of efficacy, which allows one to believe that taking action and feeling concern can make a difference." (Conrad, Hedin 1981: 9)

The practical model of education for personal and social responsibility was created and applied in American secondary schools by Hellison who defined personal responsibility as a combination of self-control abilities, participation and efforts of individual. He uses these abilities

in well-known and new situations as well. According to Hellison, the individual always uses these abilities and their responsibility increases in the meaning of responsibility for their own physical activity and balance. Hellison shows in his model that responsibility cannot be taught theoretically. If we want to develop an individual's responsibility, we have to give them space to be responsible. In this case, experience learning is the best space for education and the development of the personal responsibility of individual. Conrad and Hedin carried out similar research on social and personal responsibility development, responsibility developed among students through their voluntary experience. The above mentioned authors understand the programmes based on experience as "educational programmes", offered to students as an integral part of their education and carried out beyond schooling. Within these programmes students participate in new roles and they are charged with the tasks of real consequences. The emphasis is put on learning through real experience and reflection. Service-learning is one of the strategies that can be applied in personal and social responsibility development. The strategy is based on experience learning and this experience takes place by means of active service realisation for the benefit of the community. It includes not only an educational but also a significant social aspect as active involvement in social changes in society.

Service-learning is an educational strategy which has been developed as a part of formal and informal education all over the world for several decades. All levels of education include service-learning in formal education. Several specifics following from different cultural and social contexts of its development can be identified in practice. These specifics are reflected in the name service-learning itself and in definitions as well. Nowadays, international consensus defines service-learning through three key characteristics:

- thoughtfully organized service experiences that meet authentic community needs;
- carried out by students in collaboration with community members;
- included within curricular academic and research content.

Thoughtfully organized service experiences that meet authentic community needs: the development of community service activities aimed at effectively collaborating to solve actual community problems does not deplete with the diagnosis and the analysis of reality, but rather incorporates learning into the development of a transforming action, in which the "recipients" must have an active role.

Students' participation in the planning, development and evaluation of the project: service-learning is an active pedagogical proposal and thus students, more than teachers, are the ones who should lead activities. If students do not get involved and embrace the project, the learning impact shall not be the same.

It is included within curricular academic and research content: there is an intentional liaison between service actions and learning contents included in the curricula. In this regard, the role of teachers is vital because pedagogical planning is what makes the difference between service-learning and volunteering. (Ministry of Education, 2008)

The most important extracts from overseas research (e.g. Astin, Sax, 1998; Eyler, Giles, Braxton, 1997; Eyler, Giles, 1999; Eyler, Giles, Stenson, Gray, 2001; Fiske, 2001; Melchior 1999; Morgan, Streb, 2001; Reed, Jernstedt, Hawley, Reber, DuBois, 2005; Williams, King, Koob, 2002), all aimed at the analysis of the impact of service learning on students, suggest that service-learning has a positive effect on students in several areas:

- *Academic or cognitive domains*, that is, what students were learning in terms of content or higher order thinking skills as a result of their participation;
- *Civic domains*, that is, connection to society and community;
- *Personal/social domains*, that is, personal and interpersonal development in areas such as youth empowerment, respect for diversity, self-confidence, and avoidance of risk behaviours; and
- *Career exploration skills*, such as knowledge of career pathways and workplace literacy.

These areas include also development of social and personal responsibility. As states Billig (2000, 2004), according to the summary of research, service-learning has been found to increase students' feelings of civic and social responsibility. Eyler, Giles, Stenson and Gray (2000) state more than 20 researches which document the positive influence of service-learning on a sense of social responsibility and civic competencies.

Service-learning, which is a new pedagogical strategy in Slovakia, is almost unknown in the academic environment or in practice. In Slovakia, there are two universities developing the strategy and several secondary schools conducting pilot projects (also in cooperation with Matej Bel University). Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica is one of the universities specifically focused on the implementation and development of this strategy. Matej Bel University has been devoted to the development of voluntary student activities since 1998, particularly in cooperation with regional volunteer centres, and has been providing service-learning since 2005. Since 2013, however, there has been a quantitative and qualitative development in the implementation of this strategy in education with the continuous monitoring of service-learning benefits in relation to the development of students' key competences as well as their civic engagement and responsibility.

Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica applied the following models of service-learning (according to Jacoby, 1996):

- Providing courses in which service-learning is an option,
- Service-learning as an alternative to classic courses,
- Research carried out in the community,
- Service-learning courses

The research findings presented in the next part of this article are related to the students who completed a course based on service-learning at Matej Bel University. It was a two-semester optional course open to students of all levels and study programmes. The course was led by an interdisciplinary team of teachers from different departments of the university. The aim of the course was to develop the students' competences (knowledge, skills and attitudes) in delivering activities for the benefit of others and the development of competencies in project management. The first part of the course is implemented through several teaching blocks. Students obtain theoretical knowledge using creative and active teaching methods. Practical analysis helps them to obtain practical experience in group dynamics and team roles, they learn the need for careful planning and time planning, they explore the necessity for aligning objectives and a target group through the choice of promotion tool, they practise communication in model situations, they acquire skills for drawing up budgets, etc. Reflection then proceeds to (self-) evaluation and the evaluation of each activity. In the second part of the course the focus is transferred activities to students, whose aim is to identify their own needs, the needs of the school and community within their group and to create activities to meet the identified needs no later than the end of the summer semester of the academic year. They continue to cooperate with their teachers through mentoring. At least twice a month the activity expediency is consulted as well as the planning, implementation and evaluation. At the end of the summer semester all students meet and present their implemented activities and their outputs, reflect on their own learning process and provide an evaluation of the whole course to the other members and to the public.

Since the beginning of this course (in 2013), our intention has been to document the various stages of implementation, but also the outputs of the applications empirically. Our research was focused especially on assessing a student's key competence development by way of attending this subject. We have proven a statistically significant shift in students' own competence perception (Brozmanová Gregorová, Heinzová, 2015). The study was further focused on research on personality characteristics, which can be developed via service-learning, concretely, via the development of social and personal responsibility.

Methods

The goal of research was to find out whether attending the subject using a service-learning strategy increases social and personal responsibility amongst students and to compare the research findings in the test group carried out at the same time.

The research was carried out in the experimental group of students attending the subject using a service-learning strategy and the test group of students who did not attend this subject at all. We tried to make both groups equal in some demographic data such as class, syllabus and gender. All students who completed the Social and Personal Responsibility Scale (Conrad, Hedin, 1981) before and after the academic year 2015/16 completion were classified into our research. The experimental group consisted of 22 respondents and the test group of 9 respondents. All respondents were informed that the survey results would be analysed and presented anonymously but with the identification of the institution.

The research data concerning social and personal assessment of our respondents were obtained by completing Social and Personal Responsibility Scale, before and after the academic year 2015/16 completion. The survey was created by Conrad and Hedin to measure the influence of educational programmes based on experience learning. The survey translated into Slovak was used in previous research in our context (Brozmanová Gregorová, 2007).

The survey is divided into five subscales:

1) **The Social Welfare Subscale** focuses on the extent to which one feels concerned about problems and issues in wider society.

2) **The Duty Subscale** focuses on the extent to which one feels bound to personally meet social obligations

3) **Competency to Take Responsibility Subscale** - while a person may have a positive attitude toward others, s/he may still not be able to act in a responsible manner if s/he does not the competence or skill to do so. For example, if one sees a drowning person and feels a sense of responsibility toward helping him, s/he still may not be able to do anything about the problem (and thus not truly be “responsible”) if s/he does not know how to swim. Thus, competence is also a determining factor in acting responsibly.

4) **Efficacy Regarding Responsibility Subscale** - a person must be willing or be able to believe that taking responsible action will have an impact on the social or physical environment.

5) **Performance of Responsible Acts Subscale** - the SPRS assesses the extent to which students perceive that they do act in responsible ways. (Conrad, Hedin, 1981)

The authors of the survey try to prevent the social desirability of students' responses. Thus, they made a special type of scale, where in each item of the survey the respondents could choose from two statements concerning social and personal responsibility.

The respondents do not assess themselves however their peers. Each SPRS item consists of two statements. The respondent should choose only one statement and assess whether "It is still true" or "It is sometimes true". In total, there is a four-level scale for each item of the questionnaire. The questionnaire consists of 21 items (42 statements) divided into 5 subscales and involves 11 reversible items. Two items of the questionnaire are not evaluated at all.

The statistical data analysis was produced using SPSS 19.0. The collected data did not show normal distinction (Shapiro–Wilkov normality test), therefore the Wilcoxon test and Mann-Whitney U test were used for the statistical testing (of differences). The reliability of questionnaires was evaluated using Cronbach's alpha.

Table 1 Cronbach's alfa for pre- and post-testing in the Social and Personal Responsibility Scale

	Pre-testing	Post-testing
Attitudes Toward Being Responsible: Social welfare	0.948	0.967
Attitudes Toward Being Responsible: Duty	0.934	0.973
Competency to Take Responsibility	0.941	0.94
Efficacy Regarding Responsibility	0.923	0.952
Performance of Responsible Acts	0.901	0.962

The results of the research

Table 2 and Table 3 show the variables of subscales *Social and Personal Responsibility Scale* acquired while testing the experimental as well as the test group's respondents before and at the end of the 2015/2016 academic year. The experimental group achieved a higher score in post-test average values than the test group.

Table 2 Descriptive data indicators of the experimental group obtained from the Social and Personal Responsibility Scale before and after passing the service-learning course in the academic year 2015/16 (N=22)

		Mean	Med	SD	Skew	Kurt	Min	Max
Attitudes on Social welfare	Before	2.84	2.9	0.39	-0.18	1.74	2.00	3.75
	After	3.15	3.3	0.67	-0.54	-0.57	1.75	4.00
Attitudes on Duty	Before	2.60	2.5	0.29	0.14	0.43	2.00	3.25
	After	3.52	3.5	0.41	-0.31	-1.20	2.75	4.00

Competency to Take Responsibility	Before	2.17	2.2	0.52	0.21	0.02	1.33	3.33
	After	2.83	3.0	0.46	-1.04	0.65	1.67	3.33
Efficacy Regarding Responsibility	Before	2.64	2.6	0.29	0.61	0.26	2.25	3.25
	After	2.80	2.8	0.38	0.36	0.92	2.00	3.75
Performance of Responsible Acts	Before	2.06	2.0	0.43	0.42	-0.89	1.50	2.75
	After	3.07	3.0	0.72	-0.69	-0.26	1.50	4.00

Note: Med – Median; Skew – Skewness; Kurt – Kurtosis; Min – minimum; Max - maximum

Table 3 Descriptive data indicators of the control group obtained from the Social and Personal Responsibility Scale before and after passing the academic year 2015/16 (N=9)

		Mean	Med	SD	Skew	Kurt	Min	Max
Attitudes on Social welfare	Before	2.84	2.9	0.39	-0.18	1.74	2.00	3.75
	After	3.15	3.3	0.67	-0.54	-0.57	1.75	4.00
Attitudes on Duty	Before	2.60	2.5	0.29	0.14	0.43	2.00	3.25
	After	3.52	3.5	0.41	-0.31	-1.20	2.75	4.00
Competency to Take Responsibility	Before	2.17	2.2	0.52	0.21	0.02	1.33	3.33
	After	2.83	3.0	0.46	-1.04	0.65	1.67	3.33
Efficacy Regarding Responsibility	Before	2.64	2.6	0.29	0.61	0.26	2.25	3.25
	After	2.80	2.8	0.38	0.36	0.92	2.00	3.75
Performance of Responsible Acts	Before	2.06	2.0	0.43	0.42	-0.89	1.50	2.75
	After	3.07	3.0	0.72	-0.69	-0.26	1.50	4.00

Note: Med – Median; Skew – Skewness; Kurt – Kurtosis; Min – minimum; Max - maximum

Analysing the descriptive data we can see that the students from the experimental and test groups have achieved the highest average score within both subscales *Attitudes* at the beginning of the 2015/2016 academic year. Experimental group has achieved again the highest average score in subscales *Attitudes* as well as the third highest average score in *Performance of Responsible Acts* scale in the end of the 2015/2016 academic year. The test group achieved the highest average score in the *Efficacy Regarding Responsibility* subscale as well as the third highest average score in the *Performance of Responsible Acts* scale followed by the *Competence to Take Responsibility* subscale and the *Attitudes on Duty* subscale. We have analysed statistical differences in input and

output measurement within both groups as well as statistically significant differences between the average scores of the experimental group and test group in another part of the research.

The objective of this research was to find the influence of the subject applying service-learning strategy on the positive increase of social and personal responsibility of students after they had passed the exam as well as comparing these findings with the measurements in testing group.

We tried to find the differences between the experimental and test group using the Mann-Whitney test. We were interested in differences between the experimental and test group while output testing as well as at the “starting line”, i.e. while input testing. The results are given in Table 4.

Table 4 Differences in the Students’ Social and Personal Responsibility between experimental and control group (Academic Year 2015-2016) (N=31)

			Mean	SD	Mann-Whitney U – test	p-value	Eff. Size	
Before	Attitudes on Social welfare	Exp. group	2.84	0.39	47.00	0.020	0.525	
		Control group	2.47	0.40				
	Attitudes on Duty	Exp. group	2.60	0.29	33.00	0.003	0.667	
		Control group	2.94	0.21				
	Competency to Take Responsibility	Exp. group	2.17	0.52	68.00	0.169	0.313	
		Control group	2.52	0.60				
	Efficacy Regarding Responsibility	Exp. group	2.64	0.29	98.00	0.964	0.010	
		Control group	2.53	0.55				
	Performance of Responsible Acts	Exp. group	2.06	0.43	58.50	0.074	0.409	
		Control group	2.47	0.59				
	After	Attitudes on Social welfare	Exp. group	3.15	0.67	15.00	0.000	0.849
			Control group	1.89	0.49			
Attitudes on Duty		Exp. group	3.52	0.41	3.50	0.000	0.965	
		Control group	1.92	0.74				
Competency to Take Responsibility		Exp. group	2.83	0.46	38.50	0.007	0.611	
		Control group	2.11	0.71				
Efficacy Regarding Responsibility		Exp. group	2.80	0.38	57.00	0.061	0.424	
		Control group	2.50	0.41				

Performance of Responsible Acts	Exp. group	3.07	0.72	20.50	0.001	0.793
	Control group	1.89	0.66			

In reference to input testing, we have found the statistically significant differences in *Attitudes to Social Welfare* between the experimental and test groups specifically in favour of the experimental group ($p < 0.5$ with a factual significance approximately 0.5) and the differences in *Attitudes on Duty* specifically in favour of test group ($p < 0.01$ with a factual significance closely under 0.7).

In reference to the output testing, we have seen statistically significant differences in almost all subscales of social and personal responsibility except for *Efficacy Regarding Responsibility* between the experimental and test group all in favour of the experimental group ($p < 0.001$ a 0.01 with a factual significance from 0.6 to 0.96).

Comparing data, we looked closely at the differences in subscales of Questionnaire on the social and personal responsibility between input and output testing within observed groups. Table 5 shows the findings on differences between input and output measurements within the test and experimental groups.

Table 5 Pre-Post Differences in Students' Social and Personal Responsibility in the experimental and control group (N=31)

			Mean	SD	Wilcoxon test	p-value	Eff. Size	
Experimental group (N=22)	Attitudes on Social welfare	Before	2.84	0.39	-1.924	0.054	-0.41	
		After	3.15	0.67				
	Attitudes on Duty	Before	2.60	0.29	-4.077	0.000	-0.87	
		After	3.52	0.41				
	Competency to Take Responsibility	Before	2.17	0.52	-3.039	0.002	-0.65	
		After	2.83	0.46				
	Efficacy Regarding Responsibility	Before	2.64	0.29	-1.097	0.273	-0.23	
		After	2.80	0.38				
	Performance of Responsible Acts	Before	2.06	0.43	-3.350	0.001	-0.71	
		After	3.07	0.72				
	Control group	Attitudes on Social welfare	Before	2.47	0.40	-1.970	0.049	-0.66

	After	1.89	0.49			
Attitudes on Duty	Before	2.94	0.21	-2.386	0.017	-0.80
	After	1.92	0.74			
Competency to Take Responsibility	Before	2.52	0.60	-1.483	0.138	-0.49
	After	2.11	0.71			
Efficacy Regarding Responsibility	Before	2.53	0.55	-0.172	0.863	-0.06
	After	2.50	0.41			
Performance of Responsible Acts	Before	2.47	0.59	-1.611	0.107	-0.54
	After	1.89	0.66			

We have found statistically significant differences in the experimental group within several subscales of the questionnaire in favour of output testing except for *Efficacy Regarding Responsibility* and *Attitudes to Social Welfare* (the difference is at the level of statistic significance $p < 0.054$ in this subscale). Statistic significance of differences is at the level of significance 0.001 and 0.01 with factual significance from -0.65 to -0.87. However, comparing input and output data in the subscales of the Questionnaire on social and personal responsibility within the test group we observed a decrease of the average score in the output data while there was a statistically significant decrease at the level of significance 0.05 with factual significance -0.66 and -0.80 in two subscales (*Attitudes on Social Welfare* and *Attitudes on Duty*).

Discussion

This research confirmed that the strategy of service-learning develops students' social and personal responsibility. There were statistically significant differences in the *Attitudes on Social Welfare*, *Attitudes on Duty*, *Competency to Take Responsibility* and *Performance of Responsible Acts* subscales between our experimental group and the test group. This means that students who passed the service-learning subject together with all its parts are more concerned for society as a whole and its problems as well as feel obligations to the community. Students who pass service-learning have not only a positive attitude towards others but they are also more sensitive to their problems. They feel more qualified to help other people and participate in the solution of their problems and in the satisfaction of their needs, i.e. assuming full responsibility for it. Equally important, students who pass service-learning realized their responsibility more intensively than the students who did not choose this subject.

The experts analysing service-learning came to similar conclusions. Hamilton and Fenzel (1988) confirmed that there is a moderate increase in the taking of social and personal

responsibility by adolescents participating in voluntary activities in favour of community. Our findings are also similar to Astin's, Vogelgesang's, Iked's and Yeeho's conclusions (2000). Their longitudinal research showed that students who pass the subject applying service-learning feel more responsibility for society. Scales, Blyth, Berkas, Kielsmeier (2000) shared a similar opinion. They did research on the sample of secondary school students who passed a service-learning course and found out that these students undertook social and personal responsibility and had better school results. Results from the study of the impact of the Colorado Learn and Serve program (Kim & Billig, 2003; Klute, Sandel, & Billig, 2002) showed a statistically significant difference in connection to community, connection to school, and civic responsibility for those participating in service-learning relative to their non-participating peers. Furco's (2002) study of California's high school programs also found a statistically significant difference in favour of service and service-learning on students' awareness of societal issues and willingness to take active roles in the community. Kahne, Chi, and Middaugh (2002) found statistically significant greater commitments to become a participatory citizen, to justice-oriented values, and an interest in service generally among participants on service-learning programs compared to non-participants. They also found that participants had greater personal responsibility and civic efficacy.

We can compare the results of this research with the research done in Slovakia in 2007. Slovak research used the same research tool (Social and Personal Responsibility Scale) and indicated differences in the personal and social responsibility of students at the university who were active and passive in volunteering. Active students – volunteers showed that they were of a higher personal and social responsibility level than those who were passive. At the same time, there was demonstrated the connection between personal and social responsibility and the length of participation in volunteering. Those students who were long-time active feel more personal and social responsibility within the subscales (Brozmanová Gregorová, 2007).

On the other hand, we did not find statistically significant differences in output testing between the experimental and test groups in our research. There were also no differences in the *Efficacy Regarding Responsibility* subscale within the experimental group before and after passing the service-learning in the 2015/2016 academic year. The same results were confirmed in the research done in 2007 (Brozmanová Gregorová, 2007), in which this subscale showed the lowest values regardless of students' participation in volunteering and the length of their activity. We can conclude that passing the subject aimed at service-learning strategy does not change the fact that the capability of responsibility assumption influences the capability of problem solution and the surroundings. From our point of view, this finding is connected with the still prevailing opinion that the solution of other's problems is in the competence of the state and not of individuals or

groups active in volunteering. It is still stated that “the caring state should hold our hand regardless of whether we are in poverty or we are doing well.” (Bútorová, 2004)

As states Bilig (2000), the research as a whole indicates that the results of service-learning activities directed toward the development of civic responsibility can be maximized in two ways. First, if teachers help students to connect their service with instruction to analyse deeper social issues or political trends, students tend to understand the context for the community need and the factors that lead to the need arising. If their reflection activities are also directed toward the analysis of social issues and/or toward social action based on their service-learning activities, students are much more likely to be able to identify and understand issues related to citizenship.

In conclusion, it is legitimate to say that our research also has weak points. These have been identified within observed groups which did not have many members. The size of the experimental group depends on the number of students who choose service-learning and pass this subject. The smaller size of the test group is created by the fact that we are in closer contact with those students who take service-learning courses than with the students from the test group. Consequently, we receive fewer post-tests from the test group.

Despite the above-mentioned weak points and in relation to the findings of other researchers doing similar research on social, personal civic responsibility, we can conclude that service-learning belongs to the educational strategies that significantly help develop the social and personal responsibility of students. Service-learning creates the space for student activities within the community as well as the chance for responsibility assumption in the sense of how their help influences others, how service-learning satisfies the needs of the community and how they help the community.

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Adult education trends in the 21st century: social-political education of adults

ABSTRACT

The current challenge, even critical socio-political situation, is characterized by a lot of controversial issues and dynamic changes. It emphasizes the need to design and implement effective solution strategies, including strategies in the field of adult education. In this paper we would like to therefore point at strategic recommendations, especially UNESCO recommendations, concerned with the socio-political as well as peaceful educational aspects. Having this in mind, we would like to open a discourse about the still growing importance of adult education focusing on the societal-political objectives and point at existing types of adult education abroad as well as in countries of Central Eastern Europe (especially in Slovakia and the Czech Republic) which primarily are focusing on such objectives. This paper also briefly examines possibilities of anchoring such “socio-political” education within the current existing adult education classification, especially in the Czech and Slovak systems of adult education.

KEYWORDS: difficult socio-political situation, socio-political adult education

Introduction

In this paper, we would like to open up a discourse about the still growing importance of adult education which focuses on the societal – political objectives.

However, despite a complicated socio-political situation, it appears that the economic agenda is still given a higher priority than the social agendas in a lot of European countries nowadays. One of the reasons could be, e.g., the fact, that “the economic returns are easier to measure than social benefits”.¹ Or, for example, as Finger et al. (2000) points out, the leading role of UNESCO (the crucial advocate of the universal humanistic development through the education) in the international setting, seems to be taken over by organisations which emphasize economic, rather than cultural and social objectives, such as the European Commission, World Bank, and the OECD. It is noticeable, that dominance of those organisations predominantly frames the meaning of the adult and continuing education in terms of its contribution to the economic productivity.

¹<http://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/documents/00003622.htm>

Nevertheless, as we are in a period of serious social-political crisis, we believe, it is now an opportunity to emphasize adult educational purpose as one of the key vehicle to address such crisis. With regard to this, in this paper we consider some of the adult educational aspects as well as existing concepts confirming adult educational potential to contribute to the addressment of such socio-political crisis. In addition, we will also briefly discuss the absence of established adult education approach that specifically tries to address social-political issues worldwide as well as in Central Eastern Europe, specifically in the Czech Republic and Slovakia.

We believe that by defining and distinguishing adult education which is primarily concerned with the current socio-political crisis as well as uncertainty and complexity of today's world, we can make this type of educational efforts more visible, stronger and desirable.

We begin with outlining the background of our interest in this discussion rooted in the notion of the current social-political situation. We will then consider the core UNESCO concepts from the current as well as early days that specifically are positioning adult education in the role of the key vehicle to contribute to the sustainability, just and peace of our societies, hence dealing with the crisis of the social-political nature. Finally, we will open up a discourse about the possible educational components and types of adult education that have a potential to deal with the socio-political crisis as well as the suitable definition and classification of this type of adult education.

Current social-political crisis

Considering the current social political crisis is a very complex issue and has been a subject of voluminous debate. For the study purpose, let us offer examples of those issues, which from our perspectives, significantly affect the sustainability and peaceful existence of our societies and could be potentially addressed by the adult education emphasizing the social-political objectives as per the early adult education core values and notion.

In other words, issues such as those that are related to dynamics in diverse human relations and *aspects of societal health* (e.g. *extend of democracy, dialogue, peace, tolerance, etc.*), at times, when pressure is being placed on social cohesion and when today's world problems are characterised as extremely complex, multi-dimensional and global, significantly influencing local levels of our societies in the unexpected ways. This is fuelling the moods of fear, mistrust, anger, frustration and irrational behaviour of members of our societies.

Nowadays, a typical phenomenon of our societies is fragmentation and polarization affecting the ability to communicate effectively among community members which contributes to occurrence of issues such as xenophobia, nationalism and conflicts' escalation in general. From the European perspective - "BREXIT", increased hate crime, xenophobia, nationalism, populism

democracy issues in the Central Europe and division of opinions on the EU project – these are all current and serious examples of advanced levels of polarized society. It is however the same society which cannot loose, contrarily, it needs to improve the ability to communicate constructively and peacefully and support the coexistence involving all members of the society to sustain and find creative solutions to such complex and complicated issues.

One of the possible solutions to address issues of this kind has been formulated recently by Mofid Carum (2016), founder of the “Globalization for common good” who suggests focusing on creating the culture of dialogue, collaboration and cooperation for the “common good” emphasizing the interdisciplinary collaboration when solving the problems of the current world. This view converges significantly with solution we would propose by ourselves, postulating adult education as one of the key vehicles to achieve so, as outlined in the next sections.

Recent & early unesco strategical educational concepts focusing on the advancement of the society

In terms of our interest to promote the adult education as an important vehicle to address the current social-political crisis and highlight its importance in a social-political context, we find it necessary to ground these directions of adult education in already existing and established concepts. There is no doubt, that for a long time, a significant conceptual base has been developed through the leading international organizations and entities such as UN, UNESCO and EU fostering the idea of education importance focused on building the culture of peace, dialogue, tolerance, peaceful conflict resolution, collaboration etc., by which the resilience of our societies against problems and societal development in the spirit of peace, democracy and justice will be increased.

In this light we present some of the following recent examples proposed by UNESCO:

- a) **Concept - “Learning to live together”** (UNESCO / United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 1996)

This concept was formulated by the **International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century** presented as a part of the UNESCO report: “Learning the Treasure within” (UNESCO / United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization 1996). The goal of this concept is to encourage people to implement joint projects and jointly manage inevitable projects in an intelligent and peaceful way. The result of such a process should be sustainable human development, mutual understanding between people and the restoration of practical

democracy. At the same time, these are elements, which according to the commission, are the most absent in today's world.

b) Concept - SDG 4.7. "Learning to live together sustainably" (The United Nations General Assembly 2015)

Currently, the UNESCO's "**Education for the 21st Century**"- is the key United Nations Agency covering all the aspects of education. It leads the Global Education 2030 Agenda anchored in UN 2030 Global Agenda for Sustainable Development, specifically in Agenda's Sustainable Development Goal 4 (SDG 4) which encompasses different aspects of education, including sub-goal - "Education for sustainable development and global education", marked as SDG 4.7. In UNESCO's terms - this goal is established as "Learning to live together sustainably" and its target is described as follows: "By 2030, ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture's contribution to sustainable development" (The United Nations General Assembly 2015) .

c) Concept - UNESCO's recommendations on Adult Learning and Education, (UNESCO, 2015)

The Recommendation on Adult Learning and Education adopted at the UNESCO General Conference in November 2015 is considered to be the most up to date tool for all Adult Learning and Education stakeholders (decision makers, researchers, practitioners around the globe). Recommendations reflect global trends and are developed to also support the *Education 2030 Framework for Action*. According to recommendations, one of the key domains of Adult Learning and Education considers the learning opportunities for active citizenship „variously known as **community, popular** or **liberal education** while amongst the key objectives of Adult Learning and Education recommends the following objective: "To contribute to the creation of a learning society where every individual has an opportunity to learn and fully participate in sustainable development processes and to enhance solidarity among people and communities and to promote peaceful coexistence and human rights" (UNESCO's recommendations on Adult Learning and Education 2015).

It must also be remembered that those concepts have their "forerunners" in early concepts and discussions dated as early as for example the **1st International Conference of UNESCO Institute Education - "Adult Education towards social and political responsibility"** in 1952,

where adult education experts and representatives from UNESCO members' countries were called upon to discuss how adult education could contribute to address and understand the complexity of the world as explained in the opening remark of Prof. Johannes Novrup (Chairman of the governing board of the UNESCO Institute for Education) as follows: "In the modern world man is required to take this responsible attitude towards his/her future, that is to accept social and political responsibility in many different contexts, s/he must do so at the level of the local community, the small group of neighbours or work-mates, the larger group such as the trade union, the national community which is the State and the supra-national community which must be conceived in terms large enough to cover mankind" (Novrup 1952: 143). Prof. Novrup also hoped, that: "Adult Education will develop far beyond its present scope, and that it will be imbued with the spirit most needed today – a spirit of mutual understanding between nations and of willingness to co-operate" (Novrup 1952: 143).

Related comprehensive educational strategy for adult education was captured in a document – *Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education (UNESCO)* adopted in 1976 by the General Conference of UNESCO. This document is particularly important, as these Recommendations represent "the only international normative framework that provides guiding principles for adult education policy and practice in UNESCO Member States" (UNESCO, 1976). Furthermore, recommendations strongly point out the humanistic core values and notion of adult education, essential for the addressment of current social-political crisis. According to these recommendations, adult education should aim to contribute (while generally developing the aptitude for learning to learn) towards (condensed listing with the selected points):

promoting work for peace, international understanding and co-operation;

developing a critical understanding of major contemporary problems and social changes;

the ability to play an active part in the progress of society with a view to achieving social justice;

promoting increase awareness of the relationship between people and their physical and cultural environment

creating an understanding of and respect for the diversity of customs and cultures, on both the national and the international planes;

promoting increase awareness of, and giving effect to various forms of communication and solidarity at the family, local, national, regional and international levels; (UNESCO, 1976).

(The rest of recommendations included the development of the aptitude for acquiring new knowledge /qualifications/ forms of behaviour; providing men and women with an advanced technical and vocational education and developing the ability to create values; education concerning the upbringing of children; meaningful and creative use of free time and developing the necessary discernment in using mass communication media, in particular radio, television, cinema and the press).

The basic feature of these concepts is they include the same target group - adults, considering adults as a means of sustainable development through learning to social responsibility, promoting solidarity among people and peaceful coexistence. In each of these concepts, we consider adult education as a science that is not universal and has not universal terminology. Its explanation varies according to the geopolitical and cultural conditions of individual countries as well as according to individual authors and theoretical concepts influenced by pedagogical and sociological theories. However, regardless such differences, we can talk about the basic characteristics of adult education:

- the emergence and development of adult learning are conditioned by social (and economic) change;
- emphasis on professional roles and the need to prepare a responsible and skilled worker;
- the need to respond to new possibilities and ways of spending leisure times of adults (in the context of meaningful spending of this free time);
- positive ideological characteristics (development of a civil, democratic society);
- the need to respond to globalization and the development of information and communication technologies (Veteška 2016: 17).

On the basis of these characteristics and above recommendations, we can conclude that adult education has the potential and scope to address current social problems that are not primarily associated with the economic situation of society. One of the first concepts of such adult education could be an example of the concept developed by F. Pöggeler (In Matulčík 1995: 8-9), in which he characterized the basic features of adult education in a democratic state as follows:

- democracy as a learning society – where the responsibility of the state is to provide adult education, based on the free and voluntary participation of adults;
- education as acquiring qualifications for life, such as parenting, social communication, lifestyle, etc;

- education as utilization of information – to teach people to select the information and how to use them correctly;
- education as awakening of the new humanity – helping to create a sense of humanity and fellowship, regardless of religious, national, racial or political affiliation, leading citizens to tolerance;
- education to support the ability to balance between the work and leisure time – helping people to understand the importance of skills developed in free time such as ability to think critically, to create contact with nature, ability to build quality human relationships, and so on;
- increasing the level of education, which is a significant consequence of civic education.

As can be seen, adult education should primarily have the social dimension, outside of the professional one. At the same time, such adult education incorporates also secondary benefits leading to economic security, career growth, and so on.

Specific themes of adult education complementing the UNESCO concepts abroad and in cee countries

There are a number of specific themes of adult education abroad which complement the UNESCO concepts. However, before identifying those, it might be useful to summarize the core values, notions and objectives of aforementioned concepts. It is safe to say that one of the key role of UNESCO concepts is to conceptualize the educational strategy of sustainable development through the human and social capital such as fostering the peaceful coexistence of diverse communities and collaborative approach when dealing with the complex issues of today's world while adhering to the values such as humanity, peace, justice, democracy, collaboration and participation (UNESCO 1952, 1976, 1996, 2015). Based on these values and objectives, we have now identified the existing themes in adult education, which enhance some aspects of such an educational focus. We propose the following themes:

- *Peace adult education* (K. Keester, P. Freire, M. Buber, UNESCO, UNICEF, UNHCR, etc.);
- *Adult Education for Social Capital* (Kessels, Townsend, Zacharakis);
- *Discourse Adult Education* (Habermmas, Joldersma, Crick, etc.) & Citizenship education of adults (Kopecký, Drobná, Hloušková, Pol, Dokutilová, Protivinský).

a) *Peace Adult Education*

The definition of peace education which aims at all age categories including adults, seems to be closely aligned with the aforementioned UNESCO educational strategy and our idea how to address the current socio – political crisis in a most comprehensive way. According to Harber and Sakade (2009), peace education is generally understood; “to aim to offer opportunities to develop the skills, knowledge and values required for the practice of conflict resolution, communication and co-operation in relation to issues of peace, war, violence, conflict and injustice“(Harber, Sakade 2009: 58).

It is however certainly not only the peace education alone, that should be included in our list. For instance, it is suggested, that peace education involves learning skills such as emotional literacy, skills for good communication, co-operation, problem solving and positive attitudes towards themselves (Harber, Sakade 2009). If we were to educate those skills, we would need to do it also hand in hand with education for social capital and discourse, among other educational themes.

b) *Adult education for social capital*

As Zembylas & Ferreira (2009) state, conflicts in societies (typical for the situation of the current socio-political crisis) have a clear social and political centrality which affects all of the society members. These provide a natural space for the effective social capital process to occur that is essential when dealing with complex social-political crisis. This notion of social capital is expressed in Kessels & Poels (2004) thoughts, who suggest that human capital needs to be supported by the social capital built towards the culture of communication, dialogue and creative participatory and constructive problem solving, while social capital which is essentially related to mutual trust among individuals, should be able to link, bridge or bond themselves. In terms of adult education, Townsend (2006) states, there is evidence that the accumulation of “social capital” in communities occurs through the community members participation at programs organized by Adult Community Organizations aimed at the enrichment of individuals, families and communities.

c) *Discourse In Adult Education*

Discourse and community members ability to discuss are further important pieces of puzzle towards peaceful resolving of current social-political crisis and sustainability of our societies. As Benhabib (1986) accurately points out – discourse could be viewed as a sort of moral framework,

in which citizens discuss how we all might peacefully live next to each other and create a better society. In Habermas' words – “Discourse ethics defends a morality of equal respect and solidary responsibility for everybody”. However, one must learn a certain set of competencies to be able to participate in a discourse (Joldersma, Crick 2010). Citizenship adult education as an established type of education is understood to be one of the key vehicles to enable such an educational process to occur.

Citizenship Education of Adults

In the Central European countries (i.e., Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia), the citizenship education of adults is probably the closest to the socio-political type of adult education we have in mind. Citizenship education of adults, both in Slovakia and the Czech Republic, represents "education and activities supporting the development of civic competences, active participation within the community and society, political literacy as well as activities that help young people and adults to adopt attitudes towards current political and social issues" (Sládkayová – Krystoň 2016: 70). The main objective of this education is the development of an active citizen. On the other hand, citizenship education of adults also incorporates partial goals primarily determined by the current social situation and continues to shape the content. Such sub-objectives include:

- developing political literacy – knowledge of basic facts and understanding of key concepts;
- acquiring critical thinking and analytical skills;
- developing certain values, attitudes and behaviours;
- encouraging active participation and engagement at community levels (EACEA, 2012).

This classification includes the basic requirements for maintaining a democratic society and a knowledge-based society. The last group of sub-objectives of citizenship education of adults includes objectives such as education for tolerance, democracy, and anti-discrimination, similarly as in peace adult education. Based on this classification, we can conclude, that also citizenship education for adults confirms its potential to address the current social situation and the problems in which society is located.

“Social-political” adult education as a solution?

We have now discussed the conceptual framework of the UNESCO educational strategies and various components of types of adult education concerned with socio-political objectives to address socio-political crisis and so contribute to the sustainability of our societies. For the time being, we will be referring to this type of educational efforts as to “socio-political” education by which we mean adult education that addresses socio-political crisis and contributes to the

sustainability of the societies while promoting the culture of peace, dialogue, collaboration and participation.

In the following paragraphs, we will be looking at the possibilities anchoring the “socio-political” adult education within the existing adult education classification frameworks abroad, especially in the UK and in the Czech and Slovak Republics.

“Social-political” education in the UK (*concept of social purpose adult education or adult education for a social responsibility*)

It appears that, for example, the concept of “social purpose” adult education, commonly known in the UK comprises some elements which converge with our idea of “social political” education. The social purpose adult education goes hand in hand with other complementary commonly used concepts abroad, such as, education for a social responsibility, community education, and liberal or popular education. None of them, however, quite right or comprehensively reflect our idea of “social-political” education, although they comprise some of the core values and objectives that are compatible with the proposed “social-political” education.

For example, according to Johnston (2008, p. 56) social purpose adult education in the UK “embodies a commitment to social justice, the promotion of a critical democracy and a vision of better, fairer world where education has a key role to play”. For some time now, the UK government has been promoting the social purpose education, especially the Active Citizenship, particularly in the context of civil society. As further Crowther and Martin (2010) state, development of a social purpose praxis in a modern civil society could be done through the means of developing the existence of ‘intellectual space’ where people can freely debate and discuss how to build the kind of world that they want to live in, as expressed already in Habermas ideas. Similarly, “socially responsible adult education”, term used by Welton (2000), places the elements such as solidarity, social learning processes, active citizenship, fostering of discussion, debate and dialogue among divergent views to the core value structure of adult education (Welton 2000).

“Social-political” education as “global-local” education

Last but not least, probably the most convergent view with ours, when we refer to the absence of the educational framework for a “social political” type of adult education, is the view of Toepfer (2004), who believes that “adult educators are obliged to develop and administer adequate education framework that convey principles such as democracy, peace, human rights, the preservation of natural resources, economic and social justice through programs such as development education, peace education, human rights education, education for a democratic society, intercultural education, ecumenical or multi-faith education and ecological education” (Toepfer 2004: 89). Toepfer calls it a “global-local” education.

„Social-political“ education in the Slovak Republic and Czech Republic

In our paper we are also attempting to open up a discourse about "socio-political" adult education in the context of the Central Eastern European countries and to anchor this type of education in the current adult education system in Slovakia and Czech Republic. In this light we find it necessary to look into the current system of adult education in these countries in more details.

There are two main concepts of adult education. In the Czech Republic it is the concept of “Integral Andragogy”¹ of V. Jochmann. The concept itself of the “Integral Andragogy” deals with the theoretical aspects of mobilizing human resources in social, cultural, political and economic conditions. It also integrates knowledge of human and social *sciences (sociology, pedagogy, psychology) and applies those to specific problems of mobilization of human resources (Veteška 2016).*

In Slovakia there is the concept of “Systematic Andragogy” and the main representative of this concept is V. Prusakova. This concept includes the most general principles, conditions and methods of investigation and in its subject core there are the methodological bases and formulated general goals of adult education science (Prusáková 2005). Both the Czech and Slovak concepts have their own internal structure, being further developed in individual adult learning.

In the Czech Republic, Veteška (2016) distinguishes between constituted and un-constituted andragogical disciplines.

Fig. 1 Classification of constituted types of adult education in the Czech Republic

Basic disciplines	Applied disciplines	Border disciplines
general adult education	personal (professional) adult education	philosophy of adult education
history of adult education	social adult education	psychology of adult learning
comparative adult education	education of adults with special needs	sociology of adult education
didactics of adult education	cultural adult education (sociocultural education of adults)	personal management

² The term andragogy is equal to adult education

methodology of adult education (andragogical research)	elderly education	
theory of adult education	adult counselling	
diagnostics of adult education	multicultural adult education	

Source: (Veteška 2016: 42) – Přehled andragogiky

Fig. 2 Classification of un-constituted types of adult education in the Czech Republic

Applied disciplines	Border disciplines
adult education for social integration	corporate adult education
penitentiary adult education	Interest based adult education
security-prevention adult education	cyber adult education
adult education of handicapped	environmental adult education

Source: (Veteška 2016: 42) – Přehled andragogiky

We also encounter the division of adult education disciplines in Slovakia. Within the “systemic andragogy”, we distinguish basic and applied disciplines. According to Prusáková (2005), basic disciplines of adult education have its base mainly in the subject of adult education and counselling.

Basic (theoretical) disciplines of “systemic andragogy” consist of:

- the history of adult education and its ideology;
- the theory of adult education (both educational and didactic perspectives);
- comparative adult education.
- Applied disciplines of “systemic andragogy” consist of:
- professional adult education;
- social adult education;
- socio-cultural adult education (Prusáková 2005: 16).

Based on these definitions of adult education disciplines in Slovakia and Czech Republic, we can state adult education represents a multidisciplinary science that captures a wide range of theoretical, methodological and practical issues of adult education. Applied discipline classification of adult education (professional, socio and socio-cultural adult education) is common for both countries – the Slovak Republic and the Czech Republic.

The applied disciplines are primarily focusing on practical problems in the field of adult education. At the same time, they reflect the individual areas of adult life. All three specializations are reflected in specific types of adult education – further professional education – vocational education and retraining, interest based education, or citizenship education of adults. Professional adult education represents an important part of the career growth, qualification and/or or retraining of an adult person.

On the other hand, social-cultural adult education focuses on activities in the adults' spare time such as cultural events, socio-cultural activities, interest based and citizenship education of adults. We can state that socio-cultural adult education supports the meaningful utilization of a spare time of an adult, which can have effects on his/her work activity as well as activities in society. This brings us to the discipline of social adult education, which also focuses on the social welfare or work with disadvantaged groups as well as addressing the socio-pathological phenomena. The target groups of social adult education are also seniors, whose developmental role is mainly the transfer of experience, traditions and knowledge to younger generations. Such transfer of information is also beneficial for previously mentioned areas of adult education.

As can be seen from these ideas, the different types of adult education are interconnected and cannot be strictly separated. This interconnection is mainly found in the different types of adult education that are mutually dependent. As an example we can mention interest based and professional education. Both types of education can take place in an adult's free time, but one is based on an personal motivation (interest based education) and the other on external motivation (vocational education) while both types of education can be beneficial for adults. Interest based education is beneficial in terms of adults further professional development and could increase qualifications, chances of better enforcement at the labour market. We can also say that an adult can benefit through completing the vocational education in a sense of access to useful information and knowledge that can be later used in the context of everyday situations or even in difficult life situations. Acquiring knowledge from both types of education is ultimately also reflected in the social sphere and related to the further life of an adult in a society.

As we have suggested, the individual specializations of adult education are related and interrelated. However, on the other hand, they strictly retain their content focus. In this context, we would like to point out that adult education should pay full attention to the current social situation as it greatly influences its further development.

As mentioned above, adult education, in Slovakia and the Czech Republic, represents various activities that seek to support society in its further development and through the development of citizens' competencies improves society as such. Referring to traditional content,

the focus of these types of education is aimed at topics such as human rights, democracy, the European Union, globalization from the educational point of view. However, we suggest there are further topics which need to be included in the focus of adult education in Slovakia and the Czech Republic such as topics related to the communication, conflict resolution, and social capital building skills, and issues related to extremism, radicalism, xenophobia, population migration, disseminating disinformation, demagoguery and deception, and so on. These themes are gaining a transnational importance.

In terms of adult education classification in Slovakia and the Czech Republic, we consider socio-cultural adult education incorporating the citizenship education of adults to be the most convergent with our idea of “socio-political” adult education.

In the Czech adult education we also find the concept of political education of adults. There is a certain difference between two concepts of citizenship education of adults and political education of adults. Political education of adults is perceived as an education that is primarily supported and also implemented by the state (Beneš 2014). According to Beneš (2014), this education has been receding, and it has been taken over by citizenship education of adults, which has a wider scope, especially from a content point of view.

Another contextually related education incorporating socio-political focus is multicultural adult education. Průcha and Veteška (2012) characterised multicultural education objectives as leading youth and adults to know and respect the specifics of members of other ethnic, racial groups and other nations. The authors point out this knowledge is necessary for the coexistence of the majority population with members of ethnic minorities without conflicts. Such perception of multicultural adult education is partially complementing objectives of proposed "social-political" adult education.

Conclusion

There are varieties of concepts or approaches of adult education dealing with the addressment of the difficult socio-political situation, partially or marginally. However, none of these concepts converge with our idea of proposed “socio-political” education to the full extend, although we consider this type of education to be an important vehicle to support the addressment of current as well as future socio-political issues of uncertainty and changes.

We therefore are proposing the possibility to establish the new type of adult education – the “socio-political” adult education which we have previously identified as: "an adult education which aims to specifically address socio-political crisis and contribute to the sustainability of

societies while promoting culture of peace, dialogue, collaboration and participation, within a professional as well as socio-cultural context of adult education ". In this light, we could:

1. ideally constitute a "new kind" of adult education discipline, terminologically and contextually referred to as "socio-political education",

2. for the time being to consider the inclusion of "**socio-political**" education in the existing classification of adult education types (referring to the classification in Slovakia) into:

- **social adult education**, provided that the content and target groups are adequately expanded, or;
- **socio-cultural adult education**, considering that the contextually related types of adult education such as the citizenship education of adults as well as multicultural adult education are also anchored in this discipline.

In any case, we consider "socio-political" adult education to be a very promising strategy when addressing the current difficult socio-political situation in our societies.

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Current problems in educating the children of modern slovak migrants

ABSTRACT

Modern-day migrants are those Slovak citizens who have lived abroad long-term. Their departure has intensified especially after the accession of the Slovak Republic to the European Union. These citizens are often parents of school children who study in the country of their parents' residence and some are also preparing for commission exams in the Slovak Republic. These children, together with their parents, live mainly in the former "western" European states, but also overseas (USA, Canada). This paper lists a number of legislative and organizational issues that are associated with their education. In the making of this text, we worked with current Slovak documents which ensure the whole process from the legal point of view. We also cooperated with the independent association of Slovak educational centres, which operate abroad, called ISEIA – the International Institute and the Association of Slovak Educational Centres. The project is a part of the research task "The Concept of Education for Children of Modern Migrants in Western European Countries" - KEGA 012UMB – 4 / 2017.

KEY WORDS: modern migrants, weekend educational centres, national identity, commission exams, seconded teachers.

Introduction

In recent years, the topic of emigration of Slovak citizens abroad has become a reality in Slovakia again. Emigration is a typical issue for Slovakia. The whole process of migration had taken place in certain political and historical contexts and has had several stages.

The first stage of Slovak emigration became significant at the end of the 17th century. This period was characterized by the migration of Slovaks within the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, with Slovaks populating mainly some areas of today's Hungary, partly Romania, and later the territory of Vojvodina in Serbia.

Another two waves of mass migration came in the 70s of the 19th century and at the beginning of the 20th century. The migrants aimed for the USA mostly. Before the World War II. the number of Slovak migrants in the USA reached 750,000.

The following interbellum migration wave had its roots in the economic crises (1921 – 1923 and 1929 – 1934), growing unemployment and social hardships, with Germany, France, Belgium, Austria, Canada, Australia and to some extent Argentina as the target countries.

The establishment of a communist regime in Czechoslovakia after 1948 became yet another cause for a significant migration of Slovaks to the western European countries and abroad. This migration was predominantly of political type and people usually fled to Germany, Austria, Switzerland, France and also to the USA, Canada, Australia and the Republic of South Africa. Unlike the migration in the 19th century this wave comprised of educated and highly-qualified people.

The fall of the communist establishment in 1989, the creation of an independent Slovak Republic in 1993, but especially the accession of the Slovak Republic to the European Union (EU) in 2004, has led to the emergence of new opportunities for employment and study abroad, which eventually triggered a new large-scale migration. The available statistics indicate that there are about 230,000 modern working emigrants from Slovakia in the EU and overseas at present. Traditional European target countries such as Germany, Austria, Switzerland and France were joined by Ireland, the UK, partly Italy, Norway, Sweden and Denmark. The leading destinations abroad are the USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand (according to the data extracted from The Concept of State Policy of the Slovak Republic in relation to Slovaks Living Abroad for the Period 2016 – 2020).

Based on these data we can divide Slovaks and their descendants living abroad into three main groups according to their status in the country of their temporary residence and their relationship to Slovakia. Their need and motivation for education in the Slovak language varies as well. Within the framework of our project and for the sake of its content clarity we will divide them into following groups:

1. Compatriots with the status of autochthonous national minorities – They are predominantly the minorities with deep cultural traditions, their own national intelligence and intricate system of societies and leagues. This group comes by the name of autochthonous national minorities. Slovak ethnic and linguistic regions with an advanced Slovak subculture and national identity have been preserved, especially in Serbia, Romania and Croatia (Filadelfi 2012). We are provided with a relatively accurate statistical data on autochthonous national minorities since their cultural and educational sphere is intensively and purposefully subsidized from the Slovak government.

Fig. 1 Number of members of the Slovak national minority – as of June 2014

Country	Penultimate census	Last census	No. of compatriots estimated	Year of the last census
Czech Republic	193 190	148 000	350 – 400 000	2011
Croatia	4,713	4,753	10,000	2012
Hungary	17,693	29,647	100,000	2011
Poland	1,710	3,500	12,000	2011
Romania	19,000	17,199	25,000	2011
Serbia	59,021	52,750	52,750	2012
Ukraine	6,397	6,700	12,000	2011

Source: CSP SR SLA 16-20

2. **Compatriots, or their descendants who have long been living overseas and in the Western Europe.** These are the compatriots who have left Slovakia, resp. Czechoslovakia during the period of the first economic crisis after 1948 and 1968.

3. **Compatriots – modern migrants, who left abroad after 1989,** most of them did so after the accession of the Slovak Republic to the European Union, with the largest group being citizens either experiencing seasonal migration or working abroad long-term. According to the Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic, in the 1st quarter of 2013, the number of Slovaks working abroad grew by 19.3% - from 118,000 in 2012 to 135,700 citizens. Up-to-date statistical data claim that the number of modern Slovak migrants living in the Western Europe countries and abroad is approximately 300,000.

Their numbers have increased recently and the issue of their support from the home country is therefore becoming more and more topical. Together with members of Slovak national minorities abroad, they represent about 2.7 million people of Slovak origin. These include the above-mentioned approximately 300,000 citizens of the Slovak Republic living, working and studying abroad. There were 238,308 Slovak citizens living in the Czech Republic, Great Britain, Germany and Austria in 2013. Estimation of the distribution of Slovaks living abroad according to PAS 2015 (Kremsky 2015) is following: 40% in the Czech Republic, 25% in Great Britain, 15% in Austria and Germany (a total of 80%) and the remaining 20% in: Ireland, Netherlands, Belgium,

Italy, France, Sweden and other countries (e.g. 9,000 Slovak citizens in Switzerland). More than 2,800 people have resigned their residence in Slovakia in 2014. The number of Slovaks working abroad has tripled between 2000 and 2014.

Fig. 2 Up to date numbers of Slovaks living in the western Europe

Country	Official data	Compatriots estimation
England	90,000	11,000
Ireland	24,000	30,000
Germany	21,000	32,000
France	8,500	10,000
Italy	3,000	4,500
Spain	1,200	2,000
Austria	3,800	5,500
Belgium	6,000	7,000

Source: The Concept of State Policy of the Slovak Republic in relation to Slovaks Living Abroad for the Period 2016 – 2020

In our paper we aim to target a specific area of education of the children of Slovak parents who live permanently or temporarily abroad, while excluding the community of Slovak expatriates who have a different status in the field of education. We will endeavour to concentrate on the following issues:

1. The contemporary concept of modern migrants' children education in the Western Europe and abroad;
2. Realization of commission examinations in the Slovak Republic.

1. THE CONTEMPORARY CONCEPT OF EDUCATING THE MODERN MIGRANTS' CHILDREN IN THE WESTERN EUROPE AND ABROAD

The migration nowadays is deemed more than a transitory phenomenon in contrast to the act of definitive abandonment of the country. This particular trend, referred to as a transnationalism, is characterised by more intensive contact between migrants and their home country as the result of reflection on the return to their home country. In regard of this phenomenon we can identify an intensified endeavour of the communities, especially in Western European

countries, to improve the conditions for their activities related to meeting the needs of cultural and spiritual life and their children's educational needs in the mother tongue. These efforts and activities are also supported by the European Parliament, which proposes an increased effort towards the education of migrant children. According to its current resolution the European Parliament:

- supports the development of a model partnership between schools and communities in the member states to enable children whose parents work abroad to benefit from the community assistance, support and counselling programs,
- claims that migrants and their children have to have a free access to education in order to learn the language of the host country if they are to be fully integrated into it,
- calls on the governments of all member states to provide education for children of legal migrants, including the teaching of official languages as well as the support of their native languages and cultures,
- is convinced that the maintenance and promotion of multilingualism have to be a part of the curricula of all schools and insists that language learning should be encouraged from the pre-school age to ensure that children are not separated from society and help them to integrate into the school environment,
- proposes that legal migrants should be provided with sufficient financial and administrative support in regard to the language courses, via trained staff who also understand the native language of migrants,
- insists that it is important for migrant children to learn their mother tongue and the languages of their country of residence and to have reading and writing skills even at the pre-school age,
- thinks that more attention should be paid to the curricula of classes with migrant children attending. The teachers should be trained in their intercultural skills to cope with the diversity in the schools more effectively.

These communities are a home to a variety of centres, leagues and other associations, focusing on various cultural and social activities of the compatriots (S. Kariková – A. Doušková, 2016). However, in recent years, children's educational centres have also become much more intense, and in some countries (especially in the US and Canada) they follow the tradition of Sunday schools. These schools have been created in the past particularly by church associations. Now they tend to be independent and focus primarily on the area of education. In addition to educational activities related to teaching and maintaining the mother tongue, they also provide

space for cultural events, parents' meetings that enable for the exchange of experiences, as well as lectures and information useful for those who live in the country.

The educational centres are partially financially secured by a subsidy scheme (grant system) provided by the Office for Slovaks Living Abroad, on the basis of annual applications. The financial subsidy is not eligible and therefore parents have to contribute to the centre running funds as well. In relation to the issue of education of children who are preparing for commission examinations in the Slovak Republic, the educational centres have been struggling with many problems as follows:

- the centres are staffed by volunteers,
- their operations are not a subject to any uniform coordination and methodic leadership,
- the teaching sessions take place throughout the weekends mostly, so the number of Slovak language and culture lessons varies,
- children are taught by volunteers who might not necessarily have the pedagogical training needed,
- parents' motives for children's education differ – some of them do not plan to return to the Slovak Republic and aim only to maintain the Slovak language, where others strive for preparation of their children for the commission examinations in the Slovak Republic,
- the Slovak participation lacks the uniform methodological materials designed for the preparation of the individual lessons, given by the national curriculum for education,
- further education of teachers working in these centres is not legally provided for since they do not carry out their pedagogical activities within the territory of the SR.

In order to solve these problems the representatives of Slovak communities and their educational centres abroad have initiated the emergence of a separate Section for Western Europe and the countries abroad within the Commission for Education and Training of the Office for Slovaks Living Abroad. The 1st session took place on the 29 October 2014 with representatives of the expatriate education communities from Argentina, France, Ireland, Canada, Luxembourg, Germany, Switzerland, Sweden, the United States and Great Britain and the representatives of the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic and the Office for Slovaks Living Abroad present. The meeting resulted in the emergence of a voluntary association of Slovak education centres (ISEIA – the International Slovak Educational Institution and Association) to support the education of children living abroad in their mother tongue and to build a cooperation between the individual training centres. The Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica is a member of this association. The Faculty of Education with the Department of Elementary and

Pre-school Pedagogy takes an active part in this area. The specialists of this department created a didactic-methodical material titled "Let's Play about Slovakia in Slovak". Moreover they have attended several methodological visits at the centres in Dublin, Munich and Birmingham, initiated professional meetings with representatives of the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic and others. They have also conducted a survey to find the actual number of children, teachers and volunteers working in the centres, as well as the number of children and their motivation for education in the Slovak language – whether they aim to maintain the Slovak language only or whether their training is motivated by the preparation for commission examinations in the Slovak Republic. The ISEIA pool has a total of 39 training centres. We have obtained completed questionnaires from 20 of them, 12 from the Western Europe and 8 from the USA and Canada. These are the findings:

- there is a total of 924 pupils currently educated in the centres observed,
- 166 of these children are preparing for the commission examinations in the Slovak Republic,
- the centres employ 67 qualified teachers and approximately 40 volunteers,
- Following a subsequent more detailed analysis of the answers we received, we have seen a certain trend but also some problems the centres have in common:
- all of the surveyed centres have been founded after the 2003, one third of them even after the 2015 with still more centres coming up,
- the largest number of children is accumulated in kindergarten classes (416), the first grade follows with 356 pupils and the least populated is the secondary grade with 62 children attending the classes,

The centres agree on two key requests for the assistance from the Slovak Republic: the need to adjust the commission examination (we will discuss this issue in the paper further on) and **the position of teachers** in these centres. The Slovak legislation defines a “seconded teacher” status which concerns teachers of elementary and secondary schools with the language of instruction Slovak. These teachers of Slovak language and academic subjects are being sent abroad by the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sports of the Slovak Republic on the basis of international contractual documents (cooperation programs) between our ministry and the Ministry of Education of the respective country. The agreement specifies the material, wage, technical security and accommodation conditions for the teacher during their deployment. The teacher is deployed for a minimum of one year, with the possibility of extending their deployment for a maximum of four years, and their stay abroad is a subject to the consent of the receiving foreign party.

The selection of candidates for the post of a teacher of the Slovak language and academic subjects abroad shall be carried out in accordance with the national regulations of the Slovak Republic by the means of the selection procedure. The committee of the Ministry of Education of the Slovak Republic for the selection and evaluation of the activities of teachers in schools teaching Slovak language and academic subjects in this language abroad is appointed by the Minister of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic. The seconded teachers are therefore a valuable asset to the promotion of Slovak country and culture abroad. Besides their teaching duty, they work closely with the embassies of the Slovak republic and the compatriot organizations abroad in the preparation of cultural and educational events. This status applies especially to those teachers who are active in compatriot schools. These are the officially established and funded schools/classes offering education in the Slovak language in countries like Hungary, Serbia, Romania, etc.

The teachers that are active in the training centres in the Western Europe and abroad have a completely different status. Their work is carried out more or less on voluntary basis. They educate children with different motives of maintaining the Slovak language, have different education certificates, and so on. The fact that the education centres are not included in the system of schools and educational institutions of the Slovak Republic, these teachers do not have their teaching experience recognized, they have no chance to participate in continuous teachers' education and thus receive no compulsory credits, which means they are also underpaid. It is therefore necessary to adjust the official status of the seconded teachers in order to enable these teachers to make a reasonable profit from their endeavours.

According to the above-mentioned questionnaire we have also found that the number of pupils in the education centres is on the rise, with the most interesting fact being that the number of preschool children is the highest. There is a high chance that these children will continue their education and the numbers will increase further. These data need to be analysed further, because we are not absolutely sure of the basic causes for this increase. This may be related to several variables: the number of young people who left the Slovak Republic has gone up (and we cannot estimate whether it is a temporary or permanent residence or phenomenon), many young women have founded their own families abroad – usually with foreigners, but it may well be the next generation that sees a return to Slovakia in their immediate future, also due to Slovak legislation (dual citizenship ban). In any case, this trend will also be reflected in the area of education policy of this group of Slovak citizens.

2. REALISATION OF COMMISSION EXAMINATIONS IN THE SLOVAK REPUBLIC

Parents of schoolchildren form a specific group of Slovak citizens living abroad. Aside from attending the compulsory school education in the official (primary or secondary) schools abroad, many parents insist on their children getting an additional education within the Slovak school system in order for them to be able to communicate in Slovak language and have a knowledge of the country itself. We suppose that this decision is based on two rational variables: (1) migration of the individual family is a temporary phenomenon only, with a high probability of returning back to Slovakia, (2) the parents try to develop and maintain a solid link between their children and their Slovak language and cultural origins while living abroad also by the means of keeping in touch with registering¹ **school in Slovakia. They also want to fulfil the needs of the compatriot fellowship life abroad.**

The fundamental question is how the legal representatives (parents) of children – pupils of elementary and secondary schools – should proceed if they want their children to remain pupils of elementary schools in Slovakia during their stay abroad. In the following part we will analyse the legislative procedures currently valid and binding for schools and legal representatives of pupils who perform compulsory schooling in a special way, in this case outside the territory of the Slovak Republic.

Compulsory school attendance outside the Slovak Republic (abroad) is carried out in accordance with the provisions of two laws:

(1) Law no. 596/2003 Coll. on State Administration in Education and School Self-government and amending and supplementing certain acts, as amended.

(2) Law no. 245/2008 Coll on Education and Training (The Education Act) and amending and supplementing certain acts, as amended.

In the wording of the **Law no. 596/2003 Coll. on State Administration in Education and School Self-government** and on amendment of some laws as amended, it is important to note that primary schools and school facilities are managed by the headmaster (§ 5) and they carry out state administration in the first instance. The headmaster decides (among other things): (1) on the permission to complete the compulsory schooling outside the territory of the Slovak Republic, (2) on the permission to take a commission examination and also (3) on the individual education of a pupil carried out abroad (so far less used form). At the same time, the municipality governing the school operations keeps records of children and pupils at the age of compulsory school attendance

¹Registering school is the school to which the child was admitted for education on the basis of the Decision on Admission

having permanent residence in the municipality and keeps records of the schools in which they perform it (§6). In accordance with § 8 of the aforementioned Act, a pupil performs the compulsory school attendance at a primary school in the school district where they reside, unless the pupil's legal representative decides according to paragraph 4 of this Act. The pupil can complete their compulsory schooling at a primary school outside the school district where they reside with the approval of the headmaster of that primary school. The director of the primary school into which the pupil was admitted communicates this fact to the director of the primary school in the school district where the pupil is resident and to the founder of the primary school where the pupil was admitted. The municipality, which is the founder of this primary school, notifies the municipality where the pupil has their permanent residence of their admission to the primary school in the relevant school district.

That means:

- *A relevant department of the municipal office should also provide an overview of pupils attending school in a specific way, including school attendance outside the Slovak Republic (abroad).*

The secondary schools are established and repealed by the self-governing region via the generally applicable regulation according to the network of the secondary schools in the conferred execution of public administration. The self-governing region is also responsible for providing the conditions for education and compulsory school attendance in secondary schools, conditions to ensure the education of children and pupils with special educational needs, children and pupils with extraordinary talent in schools and educational establishments within their scope. According to the §5 the school is managed by the headmaster and they carry out state administration in the first instance. The headmaster decides upon (among other things): (1) a permission to complete a part of a study at a similar type of school abroad and (2) permission to take a commission examination.

That means:

- *The headmaster of the secondary school is entitled to decide that a pupil is allowed to complete a part of a study at a similar type of school abroad.*
- *This opportunity is used by the legal representatives of the pupils, mostly in the 3rd year of study, who use the services of various agencies or choose the destination country and*

the school for the half-year or year-long study programme themselves. The procedure is governed by the Education Law.

- *The students eligible for the schooling abroad must fulfil the condition of being at least 16 years old together with having the 10-year compulsory school attendance completed.*

The aforementioned Act also determines the competence of the local state administration bodies (§10). The District office at the headquarters of the self-governing region processes inputs for statistical processing of data on education and training in schools and in educational establishments within its territorial jurisdiction. In cooperation with local authorities, this very District office organizes and finances language courses for children of foreigners who are permitted to stay in the territory of the Slovak Republic.

That means:

- *The District office at the headquarters of the self-governing region should keep the data about pupils who complete a part of their studies abroad.*
- *The information about the language courses for the children of foreign citizens with permission to stay in the Slovak Republic have caught our interest.*

It is problematic to find out the real number of pupils who attend school in a specific way outside the territory of the Slovak Republic because the statutory obligation to report this fact in the annual collection of statistical data about schools and pupils is not mentioned in this Act. Again, we rely on the text of the Education Law, according to which (§ 35) schools and school facilities included in the network are required to provide the Ministry with statistical data on the annual surveys on the following:

- a) the numbers of classes, teachers and other employees, their highest education and qualification as of the 15 September of the respective school year,
- b) the number of children, pupils and students and their age structure broken down according to the language of education, their nationality, study programme, special educational needs as of the same date,
- c) the number of boarders in school catering establishments, number of children and pupils in school boarding accommodation, capacities and income of the school boarding and catering departments as of the 15 September of the school year, ^[1]_[SEP]
- d) the accident rates for children and pupils in comparison with the previous school year data,
- e) the school libraries data as of the 15 September of the respective school year,
- f) the equipment of schools and educational establishments with digital technologies as of the 31 December of the calendar year.

That means:

- *Under these provisions of the law, schools have no obligation to provide the Ministry with statistical data on pupils attending school in a specific way (neither the numbers nor the country, the specific schools, the length of stay, etc.).*
- *In the process of collecting school and pupil statistics (always as of the 15 September of the school year, school report 3 – 01), the pupils who attend schools outside the territory of the Slovak Republic are not defined in any special data section in any of the official statements.*
- *Since the year 2016, this particular information is being collected in a different group of data, which are used for the funds allocation.*

The information about the place and manner of school attendance is (also) crucial for the allocation of funds from the state budget and also serves to calculate and adjust the normative contributions. The financing of schools and school facilities is carried out according to the Act of the National Council of the Slovak Republic no. 597/2003 Coll. on the Financing of Primary Schools, Secondary Schools and School Facilities, as amended by the later regulations and Government Regulation no. 630/2008 Coll. as amended, on the basis of information collected from the data for normative funding. Starting in 2016, the following data about the pupils attending school outside the territory of the Slovak Republic are being collected in The Data Collection for Normative Funding (www.vykazy.sk):

(1) **The number of pupils the school has no information about.** If there are pupils who missed out more than 15 lessons as of the 15 September of the respective school year or, for reasons unknown, did not attend classes until 15 September and did not report the reason for their absence, then the school enters the data for these pupils under a separate item "*Number of pupils the school does not have information about.*" This is also true for those pupils who attend school outside the territory of the Slovak Republic but *have not submitted a certificate of the school attended abroad.*

(2) **The number of pupils attending school outside the territory of the Slovak Republic.** The elementary school inserts the numeral data of pupils who attend school outside the territory of the Slovak Republic and have submitted a certificate of the school attended abroad under a separate item "*Number of pupils attending school outside the territory of the Slovak Republic.*" This is also true for those pupils who attend a school outside the territory of the Slovak Republic in an individual way.

That means:

- *The information about the number of pupils attending school outside the territory of the Slovak Republic thanks to the resources of the statistical data form [eduzber.sk](http://www.eduzber.sk) that collects the numeral data about the number of pupils in the respective school year from schools and school facilities financed from the budget of the Ministry of Education and the budget of the Ministry of the Interior (www.eduzber.sk).*
- *It is possible to determine the detail of the particular information through the education departments of the relevant district authorities or the department of professional and methodological activities.*
- *The form is available on the above-mentioned website under the name: Form of category ES1, ES2 (elementary school – 1st and 2nd grade). There are separate forms of this type for all types of secondary schools available.*
- *A handbook is published annually to provide the schools with instructions regarding the forms completion, where the names of specific competent persons in the district offices are published, providing consultations for filling in the data.*

We need to mention that the normative funding for a regular pupil in 2017 amounts to €1,370.31 (part of which is retained by the awarding authority of the school). Pupils attending school outside the territory of the Slovak Republic fall under the category “other pupils”. Normative funding for this group amounts to €137.00 / 1 pupil. The Majority of headmasters approached think this amount to be extremely low in regard to the actions the school has to take regarding the pupils and their legal representatives during their study abroad. We will further analyse these steps in our study.

Under the **Law no. 245/2008 Coll. on education and training (The Education Act)** and amending and supplementing certain acts, as amended (§ 20), the legal representative is obliged to register a child for compulsory school attendance at a primary school. The school enrolment takes place from 1 April to 30 April prior to the beginning of the school year the child has to begin their mandatory school attendance in. A pupil is required to attend a primary school in the school district where they have a permanent residence (catchment school) and the legal representative does not choose another elementary school for their child. A pupil may attend mandatory schooling at a school other than their catchment school if the school headmaster admits them for basic education (this school becomes a registering school for that pupil based on a decision about admission to education). Based on the decision or approval of the headmaster the pupil may complete a part of their school attendance in a specific way, i.e. also outside the territory of the Slovak Republic. Details of the pupil's education according to § 23 let. b) “school attendance

outside the territory of the Slovak Republic" or letter e) "individual education abroad" is stipulated in §25 of the cited law.

That means:

- *The legal representative of each child who reaches the statutory age limit (6 years until the end of August 31) is obliged to enrol them in the primary school. Each pupil has to be enrolled into their "registering school" that is entitled to deal with all processes related to school attendance abroad (until the completion of the mandatory schooling under the provisions of the Education Act).*
- *Any case of non-compliance with the provisions of the decision about school attendance outside the SR in children under the age of 16 is considered a neglect of mandatory education. The school is obliged to proceed according to valid legislation and to inform the relevant authorities of this fact.*

The law establishes (in the section §23) several types of the specific way of school attendance (hereinafter SWSA). We will draw our attention to the following types: (1) education outside the territory of the Slovak Republic, (2) individual education abroad. In both above-mentioned cases the legal representative of the pupil interested in the SWSA is obliged to obtain the approval of the mother school headmaster based on their written request thereof. Cases where the pupils complete their ninth and tenth year of mandatory school attendance are not unheard of. The school is also obliged to inform the legal representative of the pupil of their obligation to enrol their ward to the secondary school. Moreover the secondary school has to take those pupils, who complete their ninth year of mandatory school attendance abroad, into account. The pupil or his legal representative fills the following data in their application:

- name, surname and residence of the pupil, ^[]_[SEP]
- identity number of the pupil, ^[]_[SEP]
- the address of the pupil's permanent and temporary residence abroad, ^[]_[SEP]
- The name and address of the school to be attended by the pupil abroad, if known in advance, or the name and address of the school established by another state in the territory of the Slovak Republic to be attended by the pupil (*if the school is not known in advance, the information is to be enclosed immediately after obtaining the information in an appropriate way to the mother school in the Slovak Republic*).

The schools usually have the specimen forms for the legal representatives of the

pupils at the ready and there may be some additional data required:

- expected length of stay (from – to) – the application is usually submitted for a single school year,
- the address of the permanent residence of the legal representative(s) in Slovakia and abroad,
- contact information (e-mail, phone number abroad) of both legal representatives.

The written application entails the request for the issue of textbooks and workbooks for the relevant school year. Schools with experience in this area provide basic information for the legal representatives of pupils who wish to attend school in a specific way are to proceed (web, information bulletin, etc.). In the case of education pursuant to Article 23 b) a legal representative of the pupil or an adult pupil is to enrol in a school within 15 days of their arrival to the country of residence. A confirmation of school attendance with the name and address of the school is to be submitted to the director of the registering school within 30 days after the arrival of the pupil to the country of temporary residence. The legal representative of a pupil or an adult pupil shall submit this document every September 15 of the respective school year if the pupil continues their education under the Article 23 b).

Schools usually request a signed certificate of school attendance abroad and a pupil's study plan at the given school. This is not explicitly required by law, therefore a statement from the legal representatives stating that the pupil is attending the school abroad, along with precise details, should suffice. If the school insists on an official document, it should be written on a letterhead of the school abroad, endorsed with a school stamp and signed by the headmaster of the school concerned. Documents can be sent electronically, and the original by mail. A curriculum of the relevant year (translated into Slovak if necessary) should be attached to the confirmation with a content standard of the subjects taught. The registering school can compare this with the Slovak counterpart and prepare subjects and contents of the commission examination.

After graduating from abroad, the legal representative of a pupil (or an adult pupil themselves) is obliged to: (1) submit a certified photocopy of the certificate to the headmaster of the registering school by 31 August of the respective school year when they completed their studies at a school abroad and (2) pass the commission examination according to the decision of the aforementioned headmaster under the provisions of the Education Act by 31 August of the respective school year.

The registering school provides pupils with textbooks and workbooks at the request of a legal representative of the pupil or an adult pupil. Other costs incurred in connection with a student's SWSA are not covered by state resources and are borne by the pupil's legal representative

according to the instructions of the registering school (various supplementary study materials that pupils use). A pupil who is attending school in a specific way under the § 23 b) and c) may, at the request of the pupil's legal representative or adult pupil's request, perform commission examination. In the application, the legal representative of a pupil or adult pupil shall state the school years for which the commission examinations are to be carried out. The legal representatives are required to apply for a permission for the pupil to undertake the commission examination within the individual subjects.

Pupils carrying out a specific way of schooling under § 23 e) – individual education abroad – take an exam in all compulsory subjects of the curriculum of the relevant year of the registering school, except for subjects mostly educational in nature, for each relevant school year. This is especially true for all school years after the fourth year of the primary school and the ninth year of the primary school. The subjects of the commission examination are usually determined by the registering school headmaster on the basis of the assessment of the pupil's curriculum from a school abroad. On the first level of the primary school (according to the ISCED 1), it is usually the Slovak language, mathematics, homeland studies and compulsory subjects of the curriculum of the respective primary school that are not taught at the school abroad. On the second level of primary school and secondary school, it is always Slovak language, history and geography (focus on Slovakia). Other subjects are determined by comparing the curricula of Slovak schools and schools abroad. The previous version of the law determined the maximum number of subjects for the commission examination.

The headmasters would recommend the legal representatives of the pupils to ask the Slovak Centre for the Recognition of Education Documents of the Ministry of Education of the Slovak Republic to transfer the marks from a study abroad to the Slovak classification (equivalence) and to submit the relevant document to the headmaster in their own interest.

Upon the written request of the children's legal representatives (or the adult pupils themselves) the headmasters shall determine the following:

- the subjects of the examination,
- the content of the examination and the expected performance according to the educational standard,
- the exact date and time, (usually by the 15th of May of the calendar year in which the test is to be performed) after a counsel with the legal representatives of the pupil.
- make a decision on the authorization to perform commission examination of the specific subjects no later than 15 days prior to their conduct.

The test itself should be preceded by an intense communication between the pupil (their legal representatives) and the class teacher, or teachers of individual subjects respectively. Through regular communication, optimal conditions are created for the preparation and good handling of commission examination. The content of the consultations is to be determined by the relevant methodological body of the registering school (ISCED 1 – methodical association, ISCED 2,3 – subject committee). Part of the consultation is to define the content and scope of the test, to enter various written tasks (or oral, if technically possible), to solve exemplary tasks, to give examples of possible tasks and, of course, to explicitly define evaluation and classification criteria.

The pupil may, for grave reasons, (where the registering school is hard-to-reach) take the commission examination at another school in the Slovak Republic, after the agreement of the legal representative of a pupil or adult pupil with the headmaster of the registering school and the headmaster of the school at which the examination is to be conducted. Based on the results of the commission tests, the school issues a certificate to the pupil.

A student who **did not request to perform commission examination** will perform that after completing their school attendance in a specific way. According to the results of the commission tests, the school headmaster will place the pupil in the relevant class.

In the case of a termination of the compulsory schooling outside the territory of the Slovak Republic and the return of the pupil to the registering school, the legal representatives deliver the written request for cancellation of the specific way of mandatory school attendance to the headmaster and state the date on which the pupil shall return to the registering school.

Commission tests are conducted according to legally determined rules. The board for commission examinations has **at least three members**. The board consists of a chairman, who is usually a school headmaster (or his appointed deputy), an examiner – normally a teacher of the subject in question and an associate examiner who meets the qualification requirements for the same or related subject. The headmaster may authorize the presence of the pupil's legal representative during their commission exams. The result of the commission exams shall be announced by the Chairman of the Commission publicly on the day of the examination. If a pupil takes trials at their registering school, the result is recorded in the class report book and the pupil is issued with a certificate. The results of the tests shall be recorded to a protocol signed by all the members of the Commission.

The result of each commission examination is recorded on the final classification of the pupil. Based on the Decree no. 320/2008 on Primary schools §11, the certificate issued by the registering school shall contain the following text: "The student is evaluated on this certificate from subjects, which were not evaluated on the certificate issued in the school year by....

school for the year..... ".

Description of the processes related to school attendance in a specific way is intended for lay people, for example the legal representatives of school-attending children, because the dictations of the aforementioned laws and decrees are often hard to understand. This is one of the main reasons why most schools, especially those with relevant experience, have their own internal guidelines. The directive is elaborated at the level of the headmaster, then approved by the teaching council, and contains all the information necessary for proper practice of completing school attendance in a specific way. This systematically and seriously conducted process shall be recorded by the respective registering school in a personal file of the pupil completing a schooling abroad. The contents of this Personal file may in our case represent a certain recap of the whole process described above:

1. Written application of the legal representatives for permission to fulfil the specific form of mandatory education, including the application for the issuing of textbooks for the respective school year.
2. The decision of the schoolmaster to authorize the mandatory school attendance in a specific way – outside the territory of the Slovak Republic
3. The original of the written confirmation of the school attendance listing the subjects that the pupil is taking at the school abroad, including their content standards.
4. Written application by the pupil's legal representatives to perform the commission examinations for the relevant period.
5. The headmaster's decision to authorize the performance of commission tests for the relevant period, notification of the term of the commission examination.
6. Appointment of Commission members, protocols on commission examinations for individual periods, the tests, projects, and other outputs resulting from evaluation requirements.
7. Official certification from the school abroad and its translation to Slovak.
8. E-mail communication of representatives, of the headmaster and relevant teachers with legal representatives during the period of specific school attendance in the respective school year.

Conclusion

Attention which the Faculty of Education of Matej Bel University has devoted to this issue has a long-standing tradition. This is related to the fact that the Government of the Slovak Republic elaborates materials entitled "The Concept of State Policy of Care for Slovaks Living Abroad" in

five-year cycles. One of the areas of this concept is also the science and research area, with the aim of the Slovak State Policy to support scientific projects focused on the research of Slovak culture and the history of expatriate communities abroad, to support their own scientific potential and mutual cooperation with scientific institutions in Slovakia. This objective corresponds also to the educational area of the Concept where the education of compatriots and their children in the Slovak language is accentuated through the institutional education. These objectives were also realized and supported by the Department of International Cooperation, European Affairs and Lifelong Learning of the Ministry of Education in cooperation with Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica. From 2009 the University participated in two research projects:

1. "Analysis of the Condition and Needs of Slovak Education Abroad" - project completed in 2011;

2. "Education and Creation of Identity of Slovaks living Abroad" - the project has been realized since 2012, while in the first phase we focused mainly on Slovak national minorities from the countries of Hungary, Romania and Serbia, the educational needs of compatriots living in Western Europe and overseas are at the centre of our interest at the present.

3. "The Concept of Education for Children of Modern Migrants in Western European Countries" - KEGA 012 UMB – 4/2017. This project is already explicitly focused on the educational needs of modern migrants and their offspring.

Chapter II Theory and practice of social communication in personal relations

Peter Jusko

Possibilities for prevention of radicalism and extremism among youth in the context of social work

ABSTRACT

Active participation in the prevention of radicalism and extremism should be one of the characteristics of social work in the new millennium. At present, acts of intolerance and violence clearly demonstrate the dark side of postmodernism. We have seen a global increase in violence over the past fifteen years. The effort to prolong juvenility and other postmodern characteristics interfere with higher social and political structures. It is challenging in terms of time and competence to include young people into a multidimensional and vague postmodern world reality. Non-violent solutions to social problems using modern socio-educative methods such as Service Learning, The Best Practices and The Evidence Based Practice have an antiradical impact on youth. Acts of hatred marked by racism and nationalism with multiple tragic consequences mobilize civil society and encourage the formation of many human rights-based initiatives at the local level. The inclusion of issues of extremism and radicalism into the curriculum is best done with secondary school and university students because they belong to the group which is most at risk due to these phenomena in our society. As a starting point, social interventions in Slovakia should accentuate the functional connections among people involved in the active fight against extremism and radicalism at the local, regional and national level. Further it should deal with the improvement, or more precisely innovation of the existing prevention activities and exchange of experiences among relevant foreign partners within this area. Enthusiastic social workers trained to deal with youth who would successfully implement the necessary social interventions are needed for the practice of these activities.

KEYWORDS: extremism, radicalism, youth, prevention, social work, mass media, postmodernism, violence, aggression, social constructivism, identity, racism, nationalism, xenophobia, education

Introduction

The Act of the National Council of the Slovak Republic No. 219/2014 Coll. on social work, and the conditions for the pursuing of certain professional activities in the field of social affairs and family and on amendments to certain acts became effective in 2015. This act regulates social work and social conditions for the implementation of work and the establishment, status and competence of the Slovak Chamber of Social Workers and Social Work Assistants and conditions

for the pursuing of certain professional activities in the field of social affairs and family. The Slovak Chamber of Social Workers and Social Work Assistants are currently preparing a National Congress on the attributes of social work in the new millennium, in cooperation with The Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Family. In our opinion, one of the attributes of social work should be an active participation in the prevention of radicalism and extremism.

The trigger for the operational involvement of social work in these ongoing processes is the analysis of existing strategic and conceptual documents which were modified to cover this area and the subsequent identification of social work possibilities in the prevention of extremism and radicalism among youth. These documents include:

- A Concept for Fighting against Extremism 2015 – 2019
- A Crime Prevention Strategy
- An Enlargement Plan to Prevent all Forms of Discrimination, Racism, Xenophobia, Anti-Semitism and Other Demonstrations
- A Comprehensive Program for the Fight against Crime
- A Concept for Fighting against Spectator Violence 2013 - 2016
- Enlargement Plan for Sustainable Development in the Slovak Republic
- The European Commission's Programme “Prevention of and Fighting against Crime”.

The European Union and its Member States are developing further conceptual and legislative initiatives that would provide better facilities for the fight against extremism and radicalism. One of most recent events was the Conference of Ministers of Justice of EU Member States in Bratislava in August 2016, in which ministers opened a debate on the issue of growing radicalism in Europe. They exchanged their experiences in the fight against this phenomenon in the field of prevention and repression and identified other measures which could be used in the fight against rising radicalism at the European level. In our opinion, this category should also include activities in the field of social work as a profession, because social work in terms of the National System of Occupations deals with difficult life situations of citizens, recognizes their mutual interdependencies, deals with the negative effects of the environment on individuals, family, group and community and identifies, analyses and proposes solutions to social problems.

In contemporary society, the mass media play a controversial role in relation to the growth of radicalism and extremism. According to the results of the research on “Príčiny rastu radikalizácie a agresivity určitých skupín obyvateľstva” (2012, p.33), the majority of Slovak citizens (79%) believe that sensation-seeking media contribute to the growth of extremism. For supporters and sympathizers of extremism, the internet is a simple and frequently used means of

communication and organization for extremist events. Again, this fact is confirmed by the results of the research (2012, p.37), in which up to 88 % of Slovak citizens hold an opinion that the internet and easy access to extremist sites contribute to the growth of extremism.

From the perspective of ordinary citizens, the most important source of information about extremism is television. Other significant sources include print media, internet and radio. Fortunately, our citizens marked personal experience as a source of information on extremism to a lesser extent than, unfortunately, the school. Strengthening the role of schools as an important socializing factor in puberty and adolescence is necessary. Children and young people, under the influence of the media, often try to excel and become famous and to some of them, the route to fame does not matter. Their aspirations can be fulfilled in different ways, and also unfortunately by carrying out extreme acts which are often widely publicized with their implementers gaining mass popularity among their peers. According to our citizens, media, as the largest source of information, should play a more significant role in prevention of the growth of extremism in Slovakia (Mlýnek, 2012: 53). A responsible approach of all information providers is a condition for the reduction of violent and criminal acts resulting from the growing radicalization in our population.

1. Postmodernism and its effect on the growth of contemporary youth radicalization

Social determination of contemporary people's lives is denoted by different attributes. One of them is the adjective postmodern associated with socially constructed aspects of reality contracted at different level of scientific acceptance. Keller (2015:129) characterizes postmodern reality as something absolutely unsystematic, fragmented to extremes, so complex and so deep in inner contradictions that it allows a number of interpretations. Further, according to Mlýnek (2012: 5) an excessive increase of work rate, insufficient time for revitalization of the workforce, worldwide environmental degradation, subordination of rights to short-term goals, or even the incorporation of the leaders of organized crime into the controlling structures of the states. According to Beck (2004), one of the parts of (not) coping with these problems is a socially unequal distribution of risks, which allows the (wealthier) population "redeem" the majority of these risks. Moreover, a contemporary society is able to use some of those risks commercially, for example to ensure more significant media market share.

The struggle for survival perceived through the media (virtually) or unfortunately by everyday reality causes people to be reluctant towards participation in social events and solving social problems. As a consequence, excessive individualism occurs and causes malfunctions e.g. in standard solutions to social problems through political engagement and

in civic participation. The social dependence of the post- modern society members on flexible forms of employment is apparently compensated by freedom and liberty in commercial activities such as shopping, holidays, cultural and sport events and so on. Prevalence of violent events, increasingly in the form of terrorist acts, convinces us that they occur exactly in the places of mass consumerism and at times when they are heavily used. Terrorist attacks in shopping malls, holiday destinations, or at sports events attack exactly the areas of relaxation and leisure.

According to the results of the Ministry of Interior survey called “Príčiny rastu radikalizácie a agresivity určitých skupín obyvateľstva” from 2012 the regions with the highest perception of extremist activities are Banská Bystrica (37.3%), Košice (37.1%), Bratislava (34.6%) and Žilina (31.8%). Citizens increasingly mistrust gentle methods of problem solving and this affects the mutual coexistence of people and emphasizes the need for scientific reflection on the problem. The task for scientist and teachers, especially in the area of teaching, humanities, social and behavioural sciences, is to ensure the immediate transfer of these research findings into pedagogical and social practice.

Acceptance of diversity in (not only) young people’s lifestyles caused by socialization of the postmodern mentality is a condition for successful work with youth. The past serves as a useful guidance and inspiration in terms of prevention against the creation of the false picture of today's world as something absolutely new, original, something which has never been seen before. Supporting traditions in various fields, which enhance the process of personal and social identity of young people, can overcome such a viewpoint. In this context, linking with Keller (2015: 176) we observe that in a society that forces everyone to develop by ceaseless creation of new projects, an individual gradually loses energy and motivation for any creation.

2. Criminological bases of radicalization and extremism among youth

We record a worldwide increase in acts of violence over the past fifteen years (since 11 September 2001). From the media point of view, terrorist attacks in various parts of the world are discussed, but acts of violence in different forms are becoming a part of our daily lives. In relation to young people, we would like to point out to not a new, but still persistent phenomenon of non-objective violence. E.g. even thirty years ago it was discovered among unemployed young people (Dubet 1987) that they could not identify any enemy of their aspirations. So their episodic revolts only aimlessly vent their accumulated anger because they compared their lives with successful people.

A cult of masculinity connected with acts of violence plays an important role for young members or supporters of extremist groups. Militancy in extremism often somehow attracts young

people. It is exciting for them to wear a uniform, or possess a weapon. In this context, voluntary military service is a socially preferable substitution for this kind of extremism.

If the young person has already acquired a certain social position manifested by successful graduation and has a lucrative job, he will try to hide his radical or extremist attitudes. This aspect of “controlled violence” can arise from both the subjective and objective reasons, most commonly from their combination.

In some extremist groups (Extrémizmus a radikalizmus mládeže – škandinávské skúsenosti, 2015, p.3) there is a rule that newcomers must perform some act of violence to be accepted. In the event that these violent events are carried out, it is important to identify their essential characteristics e.g. their frequency, the consequences which occur as direct damage, as well as damage to other members of society and the type of violence.

Persecutory rituals (Girard, 1997) are dangerous manifestations of violence tolerated and actively carried out by the entire society. Their culmination becomes a collective orgy of violence, which releases the accumulated frustration and anxiety. The required tasks for professionals working in educational and social practice is to enable young people to acquire knowledge and competences useful in conflict resolution, social communication and in the reduction of stressful situations, which should contribute to support for anti-discriminative and anti-oppressive approaches among young people.

Detected and sanctioned acts of violence are becoming a part of the summary of offences in this country. Crime has seen a number of changes (Novotny - Zapletal et al. 2004), over the past decade, and the changes associated with violent crime are e.g.:

- a growth in domestic violence
- an increase in autotelic brutality and ruthlessness
- the formation of international organized crime
- an increasing number of offenders among children, adolescents and young adults
- a growth in the proportion of offenders and victims among ethnic and national minorities, immigrants and foreigners.

Among the members of this community many of these factors cause a desire to change this situation (even) violently. This causes ordinary members of society to become offenders but also victims of violence and connected crime. To create a scientific reflection of this problem and the subsequent drafting of its effective prevention, it is essential to know the characteristics of the offenders and victims. The critical reflection of other members of society, the so-called “silent

majority” is equally important. Some supporters of such proceedings are involved. The Latency of their attitudes and potential behaviour is a risk for further negative trends in the growth of radicalism and extremism, particularly in relation to young people. The relationship between the offender and victim in terms of radical and extremist acts is not as clear and well-defined as other types of crime. Repeated victimization of the offended and the continuing acts of violence can cause victims of violence to later become criminals. In this case, victims try to break out of their situation, described as a desire to increase their standard of living. Radicalism and the resulting acts of violence are related to the social situations of offenders and victims, especially to poverty, unemployment and the individual's inability to solve these problems.

Trade environment (Keller, 2015: 30) is charged with a high degree of aggression and punishment of people who live in uncertainty is also common. People who promote human rights are often persecuted, not only in non-democratic political regimes, e.g. the labelling of ecological activists “eco-extremists” due to the fact that the full protection of the environment also has radical forms of protests.

3. Social determination of extremism and radicalization of youth

From the terminological point of view, extremism includes actions and activities based on attitudes of extreme and democratically unfriendly ideology that either directly or in a specific term destructively affects the existing democratic system, and tries to replace it with a system of a totalitarian regime or dictatorship. One of the characteristics of extremism is the suppression of the rights and freedoms of certain groups of the population according to their gender, race, nationality, ethnicity, religion, etc. and the use of violence against its opponents (Koncepcia boja proti extrémizmu na roky 2015 – 2019). The activities carried out by extremists include (Mlýnek, 2012: 7):

1. Committing a street crime.
2. Production and distribution of materials that promote racial, ethnic, religious or other intolerance.

The estimated number of members of extremist groups in the SR varies between right-wing extremists at around 900 people and left-wing extremists at around 200 active members. The number of supporters of extremism is estimated at several thousand with a danger of growth.

However, the feeling of self-importance and overestimating of one's abilities acknowledged by social constructivism could also be included into extremist tendencies in post-modern society. Keller indicates such people as adventurers of everyday life (2015: 157).

These individuals are concerned with themselves and are very unstable, constantly experimenting with something and making contacts to search for self-confirmation.

With a certain degree of simplification, a motivation toward extremism could be included alongside those two orientations. While in ideologically focused extremism, hatred in various forms plays a major role, for the “adventurers in everyday life“ it is boredom and a desire to have exciting experiences.

Neo-nazi skinheads, football hooligans or racist extremist are classified as right - wing extremists. Their illegal activities include support and promotion of movements aimed at suppressing the rights and freedoms of citizens, or defamation their nationality, race and faith. Extreme anarchist, environmental and anti-fascist movements tend to be assigned as left - wing extremist when they commit offenses related to bodily harm, rioting or damage to someone else’s property.

In a society where the manifestations of radicalism and extremism are growing it is necessary to strengthen its social cohesion and confidence in non-violent and democratic ways of solving problems, so that young people will not consider membership in extremist groups as an appropriate alternative to their social participation.

Extremist groups can provide their members with benefits absent in their everyday life, e.g. the sense of identity, security and protection, strong friendship, adventure and excitement. Extremist groups sometimes replace families. The extremist groups are characterized according to (Extrémizmus a radikalizmus mládeže – škandinávské skúsenosti, 2015: 7) the number of members, ideological background, clothing, symbols of weapons, membership in a group, personality of leader, group dynamics, recruitment process in the group, the attractiveness of the group or sanctions used when leaving the group.

Extremist groups create social capital for their members. Putnam (2000) defines it as a willingness to solve problems with others in an atmosphere of mutual trust. He distinguishes bonding social capital that encloses the group from the outside world and promotes the sense of excellence and bridging social capital that interconnects different people. Social capital in the post-modern society functions as an exclusive association. It means that benefits are available only for the members of a particular group.

Norwegian prevention specialist and consultant in the field of extremism, Tom Olsen (Extrémizmus a radikalizmus mládeže – škandinávské skúsenosti, 2015: 1) thinks that there are four major basic types of people who become members of extremist groups: ideological activists, companions, adventurers and the socially frustrated. Each of these people comes from different social backgrounds, has a different motivation for membership, holds various positions

in the group and later, has various reasons to leave the group, but each requires a different type of prevention and intervention activity.

One characteristic of the supporters of extremism is related to their social status before joining the extremist group. In particular, the discrepancy between social conventions and personal aspirations in a certain sequence, expressed in a continuum of conflict - resistance - hatred - violence.

At the beginning of the new millennium, there was an interesting crossover of rebellious and hedonistic attitudes among young people. A subculture, so-called Bobos was formed (Brooks, 2001). Bobos with their controversial existence could be considered as an expression of the postmodern extremism intervening into education, employment, business, or leisure. Bobos do not create a social group on the basis of the well-established socio-psychological characteristics; it is rather the alternative culture of countercultural elements. A tendency to prolong youth and other postmodern characteristics of extremism infiltrates the group at the highest social and political structures. The tendency for extremists to humiliate, and sometimes physically exclude “the unacceptable” from society has already taken place many times in human history and has had a large impact on social development.

4. Selected psychological and spiritual aspects of radicalization and extremism

In the middle of the 19th century Gustave Flaubert wrote his novel *Madame Bovary*. He established the term “bovarism” based on the 150 year old lifestyle of the main character, which denotes a tragic attempt to escape from reality into the world of great illusions (Keller, 2015: 136). The results of current research (Mlýnek 2012: 36) are similar: “There is a relatively new phenomenon; some people need to experience adrenaline thrills.” There are young people who seek that “adrenaline” and therefore break social rules and often compete with security institutions in carrying out repressive activities (police, military, private security services, etc.). Such collisions often leave a number of victims on both sides, among “winners” and “losers”. The situations and consequences are no longer in the virtual world, but in an unfavourable social reality.

The way in which the public perceives the situation of innocent victims brings a question: Why do members of extremist groups attack unsuspecting victims? According to the survey (“Príčiny rastu radikalizácie a agresivity určitých skupín obyvateľstva” 2012: 48) the reasons for attacks are mainly as follows: a feeling of superiority (21.1%), a need to wreak their anger (17.4%), entertainment (13.3%), and a sense of importance (13.2%). Many of these reasons point to the same level of social frustration of the aggressors. Socially frustrated members of

extremist groups (Extrémizmus a radikalizmus mládeže – škandinávské skúsenosti, 2015) often come from problematic family background and may have experienced various traumas including discrimination and social marginalization.

The inclusion of young people into the multidimensional and vague reality of our postmodern world mostly defined by their success on the labour market is a difficult task in terms of time and competency. The key competences for a successful process are the capabilities to solve conflict situations, skills in social communication and the development of critical thinking and critical literacy.

Whilst writing this article, the Summer Olympic Games involving thousands of sportsmen from all around the world are taking place. The athletes often state: “I came here to enjoy it!” The viewers of sports have a similar approach and their desire for experiences grows stronger and stronger. They carry out irrational acts, for example shouting to athletes who are thousands of kilometres away. If those needs are not fulfilled during the process of social inclusion in young people, they are in danger of being socially deprived, which may lead them towards extremism. Extremist groups can fulfil their needs Bjørge and Carlsson (2005) include among the areas of needs fulfilment, for example ideology and politics, searching for adventure, violence, finding foster families or friends, and not least, the acquisition of social status and identity.

In pursuit of these needs, the need for truth and goodness seems to be an outdated, uninteresting and unnecessary activity. The influence of social constructivism which interferes into everyday life suggests that the truth is “formed” and “changed” by ongoing social processes. The rigidity of this statement is a defence against the formation and changes in people's lives from which “those invisible” benefit. Success as the only personal life target of young people creates an unhealthy trust in their own skills and capabilities if it is achieved.

The Church and its functions in a globalizing world are perceived by respondents of this research (Mlýnek 2012: 34) as a stabilizing element in the society with a considerable importance in the fight against extremism. A positive phenomenon in Slovak society is a low occurrence in the field of religious intolerance among the registered churches and religious communities in Slovakia. A significant problem is the xenophobic perception of members of other religions. Here we can see the significant role of the churches, as well as politicians and the media, which can be carried out in prevention in larger groups.

5. The desire for dangerous adventures and radicalization of youth

Children and youth in the process of growing up naturally tend to participate in different leisure activities. Their teleological divergence is not a problem at that period, on the contrary, the diversity of activities contributes to a functional accommodation of young person into the conditions of postmodern reality. For young people curiosity is a strong motivating factor in the selection of leisure activities. The risk of uncritical curiosity is an exposure to dangerous situations which border with extremism and radicalization.

Dangerous situations are physically and mentally demanding. Therefore, young people are the subject of interest of the community-oriented experience. The desire for strong, unrepeatable and exciting experiences is also typical for young people. Youth as a period of life is prolonged in a postmodern world and thus forms more of a permanent entity than just a temporary state. Youth as a social construct does not become a part of life, but more often its target. It also refers even to those in advanced middle age. Nevertheless, increasing age modifies the structure of activities, including those which are potentially dangerous or those with extreme and radical orientation. The end of adolescence in the first-half of the third decade of life causes a redefinition of the personal and social characteristics of the final process of the identity acquisition of a young person.

The acquisition of personal identity should include an internalised sense of personal responsibility connected with actions respecting the individual freedoms of every person. We consider acquisition of freedom and responsibility as a prerequisite for the successful prevention of radicalism and extremism among young people. One of the preventive projects, covering the adrenaline-based activities associated with dangerous elements is The Project of Preventive Police Union in Oslo, Norway (*Extrémizmus a radikalizmus mládeže – škandinávske skúsenosti*, 2015: 10). The main aim of the project was to understand the processes and motivations for joining and leaving an extremist group and also the qualified intervention of social youth workers. Engagement of young people into activities such as snowboarding, climbing and free ride cycling has an additional effective. for the participating young people these activities have substituted the same adrenaline experience as their membership in an extremist group.

The necessity for a rapid response to the increasing radicalization of the population (not only) of the European Union mobilizes several components of decision making , particularly within the ministries of interior, defence and justice. The socio-educational context of this issue emphasizes the importance of the involvement of other ministries, especially the ministries of education, labour, social affairs and family. This approach to extremism and radicalism involves institutions at the global level (UN, EU, etc.), but mainly at national and regional level. In the Slovak Republic, as well as in the other EU countries, the sources of radicalization of the

population were identified. These are the concentration of poverty and other social problems and the negative consequences of multiculturalism accentuated by uncoordinated waves of migration (In: Stretnutie ministrov spravodlivosti členských krajín EÚ, 2016).

Ministers of Justice of EU Member States during their conference in Bratislava agreed that society should pay attention to the infiltration of extremist attitudes into politics because they can threaten the rules of law and democracy. Citizens from socially excluded localities have been trying to escape their difficult situations for years. Promises, as well as some concrete actions backing up the policy, peace and security are often the only stimulus for their political and civic engagement which is often limited to participation in elections.

Citizen affected by floods in Eastern Slovakia perceived direct personal help as more positive than conceptual documents and press conferences in faraway Bratislava. The same is true for the prevention of extremism and radicalism. The effectiveness of antipropagandistic billboards, websites and videos is at the least questionable. As Weilnböck notes (In: O extrémizme bez extrémov, 2016) a successful prevention requires a face to face approach and interpersonal relationships taking place in the offline environment. In our opinion this irradicalizational effect points out to non-violent solutions for social problems by using modern socio-educative approaches such as Service Learning, The Best Practices, and The Evidence Based Practice.

6. Racist and nationalist tendencies of today's youth

A young person's personality does not naturally include racism and racist tendencies. A majority of young supporters of racism develop racist attitudes as a result of membership in extremist groups. Racist attitudes come into the criminal context especially if they are reflected in the form of racially motivated crimes. Statistics in this field are carefully monitored not only by professionals, but also by an unbiased public, which highlights the need for constant optimization, not only in terms of creation but also the application of criminal codes.

Regarding this, Bjørge and Carlsson (2005) stress the importance of a comprehensive approach to this issue, where the most important goal is reducing the number of members as well as individual activities of racist groups by working with youth that can be the target for recruitment into such groups and providing assistance for leaving these groups. According to these authors, massive anti-racist campaigns based on ideology and values do not have the desired influence on the young people who are considering membership in extremist organizations and these young people do not leave racist organizations.

Extremism in the Slovak environment follows vandalism and hooliganism (In: Príčiny rastu radikalizácie a agresivity určitých skupín obyvateľstva, 2012: 39) and is associated with racist attacks on Gypsies. According to the results, 57% of respondents said that the most common extremist actions in our country are racist attacks on Gypsies. Due to the potential identification of locations with an increased occurrence of these problems it is possible to apply a Norwegian model of interdisciplinary consulting services in our country (Extrémizmus a radikalizmus mládeže – škandinávské skúsenosti, 2015: 6).

According to Krigelová Gallová (In: O extrémizme bez extrémov, 2016) Slovakia has the worst attitude towards Gypsies and a very negative attitude towards refugees and migrants from all European Union countries. Perception of Slovakia as a strongly ethnocentric country corresponds to the research results focused on expressions of racial superiority (Mlýnek 2012: 41) in which up to 70% of public associate extremism with a claim to ethnic superiority. Significant perception of this aspect of extremism is probably connected with wide media coverage of extremist actions. Racially motivated attacks on Gypsies are connected with a claim to racial superiority. Certainly, it is not “just” the result of a social reality reflected in science, but also a historically documented and considerable danger of a radical reversal of social development.

Unfortunately, it is a common historical practice to search for “the offender” among the different. As Keller reported (2015: 113) in this situation, a well verified mechanism is initiated. A punishment mob proclaims the targeted victim as the real cause of the critical situation. The characteristics of a selected victim verified by objective sources, or by own experience carries only negative features such as committing theft, violence, or persistent very long-term unemployment. The need for a comprehensive detached view as a prerequisite for the prevention of ill-considered actions by the majority of the population is determined by the seriousness and “insolvability” of the above mentioned social problems. As a response to one of these ill-considered actions (the building of the first segregating wall in eastern Slovakia in 2009) an audio-visual project about extremism, racism and xenophobia “New nationalism in the heart of Europe”, dealing mainly with ethnic conflict, was created.

Acts of hatred with tragic consequences associated with racism and nationalism mobilize the civil society and provide a stimulus to the formation of several local human- rights initiatives. One of these initiatives is also a National Platform in Banská Bystrica – ‘Not in our city’, which aims at the promotion and development of tolerance for diversity through social, cultural and educational events, e.g. the event “Stop extremism” on the occasion of International Human Rights Day.

7. The educational dimension of preventing radicalism and extremism

The preference for commercial or more precisely economic aspects of education in secondary schools and universities needs conceptual, contentual and organizational changes in the educational process. The tendency to avoid the potentially distorting consequences of these changes is associated with other aspects. According to Čáčová (In: O extrémizme bez extrémov, 2016) Slovak schools are considered the least democratic environment in Slovakia. Non-democratic forms of governance are actually linked to extremism, although it was only partially confirmed in the research (In: Príčiny rastu radikalizácie a agresivity určitých skupín obyvateľstva, 2012: 38). The results of this research show that the majority of respondents (55%) do not see the link between education and inclination towards extremism. Nevertheless, 39% of respondents see an inclination towards extremism in individuals with lower education.

The inclusion of the issue of extremism and radicalism into the curriculum is very urgent in secondary school students, because they are the group most threatened by the infiltration of this phenomenon into our society. The preparation of such educational activities for secondary school students is the current task not only for the leaders of secondary schools in Slovakia, but also for the teachers and scientists working at universities. The inclusion of scientists and researchers into this interdisciplinary field of creation and modification of the curriculum in secondary schools is necessary, mostly for improving the quality and proficiency of responses to existing threats due to the unpredictability of various terrorist attacks among students of primary and secondary schools. To give an example, security exercises will now take place in French schools three times a year in which students will learn how to react to terrorist attacks.

Shaping attitudes towards extremism is determined by education and it is documented by the results of research (Mlýnek 2012: 22), where respondents showed their reactions to the expressions of extremism. The most apparent differences in relation to the respondents' education were observed in the response "I absolutely condemn the expressions of extremism", where the rate of occurrence of these expressions increases together with the level of education. The reflection on the area of disinterest is also intriguing, because respondents with lower education are less interested in social events and thus also in expressions of extremism in the society.

Liessmann (2009) talks about a false notion of education which can be quickly acquired as necessary, quickly adopted and quickly forgotten until it will be proved that there is no demand for it on the educational or the labour market. Looking at the school's influence on the growth of extremism and radicalism in society, the role of schools is underestimated. According to the results in 2012 (Mlýnek 2012: 35) members of Slovak society have not yet perceived the school in our country as a place that would contribute to the growth of extremism (64%), although nearly a third of respondents (27%) reported this impact on schools. A cross-curriculum topic of school

education process, which should contribute to irradicalization of extremist youth, is the field of human rights and their protection. Especially the education of students in the helping professions from primary school to higher education provides an educational aspect preventing these negative tendencies in the whole society.

Currently, the main source of risk is education of a specialized for immediate performance and short-term profit oriented, seemingly completely pragmatic human (Beck, 2004). “Forgetting” the historical context will have, but likely has already had serious consequences e.g. in the form of radicalization of youth and other groups in society. It is important for young people to become familiar with the history of their city, region or the entire country. Education and remembrance activities are considered as an appropriate form for the efficient transfer of historical memory, which young people could understand as a lesson learned from our history. One of these activities is the project “Students in the footsteps of totalitarianism” (O extrémizme bez extrémov, 2016). Results of the research “Príčiny rastu radikalizácie a agresivity určitých skupín obyvateľstva” (2012: 54-55) indicate that the public recognizes huge shortages in actions carried out in this area. We consider as a necessity a more proactive approach in the primary and secondary schools as well as at the universities in the prevention of the growth of extremism. Regarding university education and study programmes we propose extending the content of study programmes which relate to this problem, and consequently changing the profile of graduates by including topics from radicalism, extremism and prevention. These programmes are social work, ethics and theology, for instance, as well as other teaching and non-teaching study programmes in social sciences and humanities. Preventive and educational activities based on the fight against extremism are undertaken by the Multicultural Centre in Prague (In: O extrémizme bez extrémov, 2016). These activities aim to prevent stereotypes in young people’s thinking, based on experiential pedagogy and on the methods of critical thinking. In this aspect, we agree with Liessmann (2009), who highlights the dark side of the ongoing changes in the pattern of education which discards teachers who do not want to accept the changes and who continue to stubbornly cultivate the spirit and the critical thinking of their students separately from immediate performance-oriented education.

Conclusion

The acquisition of potential knowledge and skills in the prevention of socio-pathological phenomena in children and youth is a long-term and continuous task for preventers working in educational practice but also in other sectors of public administration, the Churches and non-

governmental organizations (NGO). The most urgent job in social and educational practice today is to incorporate the prevention of radicalism and extremism into educational practice. From the individual plans of prevention in this field, except for the obvious universal and selective prevention, an individual prevention is the most applicable. We assume that every young person is at risk due to radicalism and extremism and also requires specific and individual preventive activities or social interventions in the case of membership in such orientated groups.

Institutionalization of prevention in this case means identifying the effectiveness of preventive activities carried out by relevant institutions. Results of the research “Príčiny rastu radikalizácie a agresivity určitých skupín obyvateľstva” (2012: 50) suggest that respondents give the most importance to the police (84%) and the judiciary (71%). Those are followed by the family (69%), state and government (67%), media (54%), school (49%) and municipalities and cities (37%). We would like to point out two facts:

1. Citizens of the Slovak Republic identified the police as the most crucial factor to prevent the growth of extremism.
2. Citizens of the Slovak Republic expect a larger investment into prevention against the growth of extremism from the media than from schools and representatives of local government.

The importance of strengthening the municipal and educational aspects of prevention is demonstrated by the experience of Scandinavian countries (*Extrémizmus a radikalizmus mládeže – škandinávské skúsenosti*, 2015: 10) where prevention programs such as. Marte Meo, MST, CTC, SSP and many more exist. We cannot forget the wider context during the promotion of prevention (*Extrémizmus a radikalizmus mládeže – škandinávské skúsenosti*, 2015: 6) i.e. assistance of the victims of violence, increasing social awareness regarding expressions of xenophobia and intolerance, the introduction of legal methods for fighting against racism, discrimination and violence, or the research into the deeper reasons for these negative phenomena.

According to the Norwegian model of interdisciplinary guidance for local initiatives against racism and xenophobia (Bjørge and Carlsson, 2005), successful prevention is based on three sources of knowledge:

1. Knowledge of the phenomenon, i.e. terminological and causal connection of racism, xenophobia, neo-nazism, etc.
2. Local-specific information regarding events in the community, identifying the offenders, victims, violent events, etc.

3. Knowledge of the process of obtaining information and the creation of local diagnosis and analysis.

Social interventions in Slovakia should accentuate the functional linkage between local, regional and national participants who are active in the fight against extremism and radicalism as its starting point, and also the improvement, or more precisely the reprofiling of existing preventive activities and the exchange of experience in this area with suitable foreign partners. As the primary method of early intervention it is possible to consider the empowerment conversation which is used at the beginning in the process of re-orientation of young people especially towards ongoing study and then to further success in the labour market. A career counselling during formal education at secondary school and university is very helpful for young people. In the Slovak Republic it is carried out by Educational and Psychological Counselling and Prevention centres.

Regional aspects of interventions in the growth of radicalism among young people should include, e.g. the overall characteristics of the community, but especially those, which support the radicalization of young people, the characteristics of extremist acts that occurred in the community and the identification of violent offenders. We need enthusiastic and trained workers with youth who would successfully implement the necessary social interventions. The acceptance of historical, cultural, social and spiritual specifics or, in other words, a clever application of universal directives is a criterion in the prevention of radicalism and extremism among today's youth that should be taken into consideration by the experts who will work with these young people.

Katarína Kurčíková

Preparation of future social workers to operate and communicate in a multicultural environment

ABSTRACT

Presented theoretical study is based on conditions in which our society currently exists. The current social reality is markedly multicultural and multiethnic. Any cultural community, nation or ethnic group can not count on the fact that it evolves without contact with others. (Kosová 2004)

Summarizing the above effects, we could express a proposition that change in climate patterns accompanied by human continuous pressure on natural and human resources eventually has an impact also on international migration, and last but not least, also on more considerable occurrence of conflicts. Through the above study, we would like to stimulate a discussion and highlight the importance of preparation for the profession of social worker who will focus on providing services and assistance in a multicultural environment.

KEY WORDS: Social work, multicultural environment, global education, service learning.

Introduction

The role of social work is a professional activity in different environments. The social worker can be concentrated on dysfunctional families, the unemployed, people who are not able to focus on current affairs or laws, have health problems, affected by the problems of their age, they have a different lifestyle than most living. Currently, his field of attention paid to the members of various minorities or migrants. Social worker impact gets into a multicultural environment in which the specific communication and disposal of special skills are needed.

Multicultural environment

Multicultural environment and society is understood as a social system in which symbiotically coexist different nations and ethnic groups characterized not only by its heterogeneous culture, but especially multicultural degree. (Poláková 2001)

Coexistence of different cultures, however, does not cause only diverse conflicts, but can also bring problems in communication with other cultures. We are speaking especially about cultural differences. Cultural differences must always be assessed by comparing two specific cultures, because what distinguishes one culture from another, does not differ from a third. Cultural differences can generally be reflected in all three levels of culture (creations, modes and patterns

of behavior and acting, ideals and values - those levels seen in the context of education, socialization, acculturation and globalization). The differences can be observed in the form of expression and communication (different languages), but also in behavioral and communication skills (verbal and nonverbal expressions).

Cultural differences are also the cause of many misunderstandings and conflicts. These misunderstandings are manifested in the form of prejudices and stereotypes, but can also result in more serious forms such as intolerance, xenophobia and racism. Slovakia before 1989 was more or less viewed as a monolithic country with one nationality. State policy did not recognize any ethnic minorities. After 1989 this situation changed. In the current globalized society, we need to prepare professionals who will dispose of skills. They will be able to communicate with other cultures. Therefore, future social workers should work on their cultural intelligence. Our curricula, and teaching methods in schools and universities have in basic documents the basis for multicultural education and training formulated minimally. Also there are not any objectives that distinguish multicultural education from other educational areas, which are informing about other cultures, or leading pupils and students into tolerance and respect for the representatives of different cultures.

Despite these findings, we want to put in focus the Millennium project, presented in 2000 to a public debate, which addresses the need and ways of transformation of our school in the changed social conditions. Based on the comments was elaborated the National Programme of Education in the Slovak Republic for the next 15-20 years. These materials, along with the Convention on the Rights of the Child and with other analyses and visions we are considering as the basis of multicultural education in the conditions of Slovak schools and universities. Equally important is the "National Strategy for Global Education for the years 2012 - 2016", which allows the integration of global development education problems into the curriculum of Slovak schools. The presenters are the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of SR, which are bound by tasks of the "Action Plan for the implementation of the strategy for 2012".

In 2016 the term of the National Strategy for Global Education in 2012 - 2016 ends. While the Strategy was in force, the GENE Peer Review was conducted in Slovakia, resulting in some recommendations for Slovakia. Currently, fulfilment of the Strategy and GENE recommendations are under review and, at the same time, discussions are held with the Ministry of Foreign and European Affairs in connection with formulation of the new "National Strategy for Global Education in 2017 - 2021".

Global Education as part of the training of future social workers

When defining the content of global education, it is necessary to respond to up-to-date challenges in the world. There are basic thematic units attempting to comprehensively cover the issue of global education. The themes are as follows: poverty and starvation, world demographic development, democracy and civil society, fair trade, gender, globalization, education, humanitarian and development aid, human rights, media and ethics in the media, minorities (refugees and migration), world trade and debt, war conflicts and terrorism, multiculturalism and tolerance versus xenophobia and discrimination, environment, etc.

All of the topics are closely related to the working environment of social workers who are specialized in working in a multicultural environment.

Basic global issues include: environment pollution, racism, threat of nuclear wars, etc. They concern an enormous portion of human population and threaten the human existence

itself, because they concern each of us regardless of age. The following belong to the starting types of global issues:

- Ecological (subjugating relation to the world - ruining natural resources, polluting the environment);
- Social (subjugating relation to people - social, racial, ethnic, religious intolerance, social justice, wars, violence, terrorism);
- Personal (human crisis leading to alienation of the human nature);
- Technological (posthuminal dimension of technology)

Based on the above starting types of global issues, global education objectives (selected from the National Strategy for GE) are divided as follows:

- Affective - to assume responsibility for oneself and perceive one's role in the world, respect different opinions and views of the world, understand their interdependence and interconnectedness of various regions of the world and various dimensions of development, perceive one's possibilities for active participation in development at a local and global level.
- Psychomotor - to employ tools of democracy in participation in public life (right to vote, right of petition, right of free access to information, right of association, to be able to define and analyze a problem, look for various methods to tackle it, choose the most appropriate method and apply own as well as others' experience to tackle a problem, estimate one's abilities and look for possibilities how to use them in tackling problems, form one's own opinion based on information and support it by arguments, to be able to accept opinions of

- others and revise one's initial opinion, use empathy in understanding others' situation.
- Cognitive - to know causes and consequences of the most important global issues, compare various concepts of development theories, human rights or globalization phenomena, critically analyze causes and consequences of difficult life conditions of people living in various territories of the world, assess why and what way development aid is provided, critically analyze development aid, etc.

The main topics of global education include:

- Globalization and interdependence (aspects of globalization, world trade, sustainable development, migration, etc.).
- Global issues and development cooperation (development cooperation, humanitarian aid, fair trade, the Millennium Development Goals, poverty, inequality, health, malnutrition, AIDS, conflicts in the world, etc.).
- **Multiculturalism (the basis for multicultural / intercultural education as part of a global education, stereotypes, prejudices, xenophobia, racism, intolerance, cultural identity, cultural differences, etc.).**
 - The environment with respect to the global aspects (climate change, waste management, environmental migration, alternative energy sources, etc.).
 - Human Rights (human and civil rights, children's rights, gender equality, democracy, etc.).

New horizons for the preparation of future social workers working in a multicultural environment

In general, school is perceived as a facility for upbringing and education. It is considered one of the oldest collective institutions of Western culture. It exists almost for 2500 years. During the course of its existence it underwent many changes. Upbringing and education in ancient Greece were different than medieval church schools. Medieval universities functioned differently than modern schools. At individual stages, mainly the content of education, methods of education, organization of teaching were modified, and, naturally, also functions and goals the institution served to.

The content of education is an important parameter of any upbringing and education system. However, there are also other key elements. For schools to successfully fulfil their mission, not only what we teach is important, but especially how we teach it, and what we emphasize in teaching (facts assimilation versus understanding, theory versus practice, quantity versus quality, etc.), how

education is organized, what climate is in schools, what relationships there are between teachers and students (Burjan 2015).

Regulation of institutions of higher education and universities by the government is considerably lower in comparison with lower-level schools. Higher education pedagogues have more freedom in instruction - choice of the content and application of methods (freedoms of teaching, freedom of exploration, freedom of research are enshrined in the Act No. 131/2002 Coll. on institutions of higher education). In universities, accreditation of its study programmes is the prerequisite for instruction. The capacity of a university to carry out a study programme in a branch of study is assessed by the Accreditation Committee (advisory body of the government of the Slovak Republic (www.minedu.sk/vysoke-skolstvo/)).

Global education as a cross-section theme intervenes in all areas of education, in particular not only subjects of Humanities, where it provides a possibility and space for its realization. Institutions of higher education and universities, which are preparing future social workers, should present global themes not only as cross-section ones, but also within separate compulsory, compulsory optional or optional subjects (in connection with implementation of the Action Plan for fulfilment of tasks resulting from the National Strategy for Global Education in 2012 - 2016).

We afford to say that currently the themes of global (and development) education are applied rather marginally or at minimum at universities. Their content is still changing, a traditionally academically oriented university prefers stability of time-tested scientific disciplines. It is necessary to recommend faculties, especially those providing study programmes in teacher training fields of study, but also in programmes of helping professions, to take into account the goals and themes of global education in training of future teachers and helping professionals. This, naturally, depends also on the focus of the faculties, departments and, last but not least, study programmes themselves. Global education carried out in university settings should highlight beyond-the-cognitive dimensions such as the ability of cooperation, openness of communication, acceptance, helping others, active listening and, first of all, encourage critical thinking in students. It should be directed at acquiring value patterns of social behaviour. This is connected also with education for humanism and tolerance among people. From this point of view, it is important also to apply global upbringing and education and to observe certain didactic principles in realization of global education and individual thematic areas the education deals with. Since the philosophical background of global education is the doctrine of anthropocentrism saying that if we want to understand the world around us, we must first understand ourselves, the general goal of global upbringing and education is, in the conception of Pike and Selby (1994), formation of global consciousness and preparation of students for life in the global world. It is about all-round development of student personalities with an emphasis on creativity they achieve

especially by a positive relation to themselves and others, active involvement in the teaching process, cooperative approach and experiential learning (learning also in the form of existential event). It includes also particular abilities and skills for the student to master, and which are important for the given range of problems, this personality growth including also a creativity potential, values, ideals or interpersonal relationships and their deepening through effective communication or cooperation (Kurčíková 2013).

Andreotti distinguishes three group types of global education perception and related reforms applicable also to the education system:

- 1) Soft reforms - Soft reforms work with the idea to make the world "a little bit better". Solutions should be defined through personal transformations and individual actions - for instance recycling, providing help (is help always a solution?). These changes are directed only unilaterally and superficially. They do not tackle the situation in depth. It is recognition of epistemological hegemony. The same questions and the same answers arise here.
- 2) Radical reforms - Radical reforms make the world "a bit better" (involving many people, numerous votes, perspectives in collective measures). Defenders and followers of radical reforms see perspectives in measures of a mass nature (reduce, revalue...). The same questions and various answers arise here. Recognition of ontological hegemony.
- 3) Beyond reforms - Beyond reforms conceptualize that the modern world is unsustainable, we can proceed to possibilities of new worlds. Various questions and various answers arise here.

As inhabitants of the modern Western civilization we are heirs of thoughts developed in Europe for hundreds of years. These thoughts, as well as events forming them, necessarily influenced the world where we live, also ourselves. The way we perceive the world, life and people around us, what relationships we form, what expectations we have, how we define happiness and similar, all this is a result of our upbringing and education in the given region and context. In general, the dominant European and Western approach based on ideas of Enlightenment (we can know everything by reason, the world is like a clockwork machine) is considered to be the modern education system and it is often criticized to support colonialism and long-term suppression of knowledge and cultures of Indigenous nations (from English "Indigenous studies" that may be studied at many universities in USA, Canada, Australia, Norway, etc.). The concept "educational system of Indigenous nations" is inevitably simplified and generalized, since it is a very diverse community - more than 370 million people living in 90 countries of the world (UNO, 2009, p. 1).

Common look at the world may help us to understand how differently man and man's place on Earth is perceived. At this point it is important to mention, that our intention is not to present Indigenous nations as those who have answers to our problems, but we believe that their perspective

can help discussion on limitations and origins of our view of the world.

In the end we would like to present the basic principles of education by Indigenous nations. The rules could form a background potential applicable also to the Slovak education system through global education. Simonelli (1996) from Yale University summarized the teaching of Dr. Gregory Cajete - teacher, academic and member of the nation Tewa in New Mexico:

- Comprehensive thinking and awareness of diverse areas of knowledge must be active in all aspects of education. Indigenous education is interdisciplinary education.
- Nature is the first teacher and model of process. Connection to nature is not romantic or sentimental, but essential for survival. Whether in kindergarten or studying calculus, indigenous education is environmental education.
- Indigenous teaching focuses as much on learning with the heart as on learning with the mind. Indigenous education always includes the affective or feeling side of life.
- Overt intellectualization is kept to a minimum. Teaching through a real situation expands the realm of learning beyond speculation. Indigenous education favors direct experience and learning by doing.
- Readiness to learn is a basic determinant of learning. Indigenous education seizes moments of teachability as the best teachers.
- At all levels, whether in preschool or in a university engineering program, the relationship of student and teacher is key. Indigenous education is always a person to person process.
- Teaching and learning is a matter of serving and being served. Indigenous education is service based education.
- Creative dreaming, art, ritual and ceremony help the student externalize inner thoughts and qualities for examination. Indigenous education includes the inner world.
- Learning is a socially and community based experience. The student moves freely between private study and group experience. Effective indigenous education is that which takes place between learners and their community.
- From middle school to graduate school, learning is connected to each individual's life process. Education is a relationship between one's inner self, family, community and the natural environment, as well as involvement with the information content of the subject. Indigenous education is first and foremost a sacred life journey.

This way we can look into the past and let us get inspired by our predecessors and their wisdom to proceed to the future. In the conditions of Slovak universities mainly those providing courses in education and humanities, the principles can be applied in teaching in the form of teaching

methods and techniques in various areas and themes. Below are some of them for illustration:

- 1) Service learning strategy
- 2) Artphiletics
- 3) Living libraries
- 4) Growth mindset - strengthening of students' mental setup
- 5) Existential experience method

Application of the Service Learning strategy for education of social workers

Service learning is a teaching-learning strategy applied at all levels and in all types of schools. The Alliance for Service-Learning in Education Reform in USA (1995) defines service-learning as a method by which young people learn and develop through active participation in thoughtfully organized service experiences that:

- Meet actual community needs;
- Coordinate in collaboration with the school and community;
- Integrate into academic curriculum;
- Provide structured time to think, talk, and write about he/she did and saw during the actual service activity;
- Provide young people with opportunities to use newly acquired academic skills and knowledge in real life situations in their own communities;
- Improve the content of teaching carried out in school settings by expansion of students' learning outside school/classroom.

The service-learning method is focused not only on the teaching but also on the learning process, therefore it is defined as an active teaching-learning strategy based on service to others with the aim to develop personality and form civic responsibility. The starting point is a student's immediate concrete experience with the world and with oneself. Students perceive, feel, observe and reflect on the new experience, practical or particular activity or themselves. They analyze them from various points of view, reflect on them in accordance with their education, future practice and ordinary life. It is a hindsight of experience, i. e. reflection (Brozmanová - Gregorová 2013). In the context of global education, the method can be used in connection with a variety of themes. This teaching based on acquiring and receiving knowledge through an individual decision encourages critical thinking. It is also an act of bilateral enrichment and learning from each other, as well as from life experience. Its benefit may include not only development of critical thinking, but also deepening of social, emotional, moral and cultural intelligence, interaction with various target groups, influence

on values, attitudes and offers opportunities for self-development and self-realization.

Application of Artphiletics as a complementary method for future social workers education

Artphiletics is a branch applied in upbringing and education as a contributor to cultivation of emotional and value sphere of the inherent human world. In the mid 90-ties of the previous century the term emerged in texts by Slavík , in order to differentiate the work with art production in the educational area from the focus of art-therapy used in clinical (psychotherapeutical) branches working with mental problems and disorders. The art-therapy focuses on a client's mental disorders or problems with the aim to affect them therapeutically and work towards their re-education. One of its objectives is also treatment. The term Artphiletics is derived from Latin "ars, artis" (art) and Greek root "-phil-" interpreting a relation or favourable attitude (e. g. like). In this context it concerns the so called philetic conception of upbringing and education based on respecting individual experience and needs of students and leads towards their integrative mental (intellectual and moral) growth through reflective communication based on art-making. Reflection is expected to serve acquiring knowledge (about culture, people, nature) based on the self-discovery process. This way of acquiring knowledge is expected to lead towards the development of creativity, expressive skills, communication and social skills, adaptive decision-making and critical thinking. This concept contributes to prevention of psycho-social disorders in children and young people. It is in its reflective, creative and experiential character, because it permeates from visual culture or other expressive cultural presentations, for instance, dramatic, musical, dancing and uses artistic means of expression (Lhotová 2013).

The goal of Artphiletics in the context of global education is to offer young people a possibility of discovering their psychological alternatives and reserves, give them a chance to find their place and their roles in the human community, and to equip them with empathy to others. The purpose of Artphiletics and global education is to enrich the cultural capital of individuals, develop their social competencies and prevent psychosocial failures through artistic activities reflected on in a group. Artphiletics is defined as wandering between art-making and reflecting (Wawrosz 2011), it is methodologically based on psycho-didactic use of two interconnected activities: expression - creative means of expression - and reflection - insight of what was experienced and created (Slavík 2001). This interconnection of expressive (artistic) activities with their reflection through a dialogue in a creative group, is the core of Artphiletics.

Slavík (1997) thus emphasizes a new dimension brought by Artphiletics, in difference to the common arts and craft lessons, which makes it different from it. As for its objectives,

Artphiletics aims at acquiring knowledge about art in connection with the self-discovery process. As for its methods, it builds on the connection of the artistic expressive play with the so-called reflective dialogue - what is meant is that Artphiletics considers young people's art-making itself to be the first cognitive step to be subsequently followed up by the second step: reflection and a dialogue between individual personalities as the source of new knowledge (as mentioned above). In this aspect, Artphiletics is in the contexts of global education; in addition to its learning objectives in the field of arts and culture, it leads towards development of social, emotional, moral and cultural intelligence and ethical cultivation of individuals. By the above approach, Artphiletics professes the so called pedagogical constructivism and didactics leading teaching towards development of critical thinking or the so called higher-order thinking (learning to understand one's own mental processes).

Living libraries as a new teaching method for future social workers

The method of living libraries was used for the first time in Denmark. In our conditions, the method was theoretically elaborated by Iuventa - Slovak Youth Institute (Slovenský inštitút mládeže) (see the publication: Hajtmánková, Maziniová: Živé knihy, Iuventa 2008) which uses it especially in the field of informal education. Universities' intention should be to bring innovative methods of teaching also to higher education. The living library is a method for elimination of prejudices and stereotypes, familiarization with a new view of things around us. They function similarly to classic libraries - readers (students) come and borrow a book for a limited time. Having read the book, they return it back to the library and can plan borrowing another book. The difference is that the books in living libraries are particular people who enter into contact with the readers through a personal dialogue. The books generally engage the reader's attention with their story, experience, arguments, they should premeditate which stage of their life they want to share with the reader. The aim of their dialogue is to draw the reader's attention to a problem or theme of the Living Library. Books may educate, speak about themselves, but they can also answer readers' questions. Living libraries provide space for a constructive dialogue between people, who in their day-to-day life have little opportunity to meet and have a talk. Living libraries offer people an opportunity to privately and personally communicate with a stranger in structured, protected and absolutely free space - without any other liabilities. The free structure is probably one of the reasons why living libraries are so popular, and frequently organized abroad.

Living libraries within university education may form students' attitudes in relation to themes of global education. Interconnecting the campus with practice (non-governmental organizations), developing international cooperation in the field of global education, activating students and involving them in the process of the teaching method organization and thus forming also

their competencies in the area of projecting and other key competencies required in practice would also be of advantage in teaching themes of global, development education.

Growth mindset as a new teaching method for future social workers

The theory of growth mindset contributes to the finding that the view of ourselves we have adopted (our mindset) fully influences our potential development and success. It is about how our own attitude limits, or on the contrary - expands our thinking capacity, growth and conscious formation. This method may be used as a practical instruction how to break a fixed mindset, strengthen the courage, positive attitude and go beyond limits. People with a growth mindset think about how to learn things, thus they learn about all various possibilities how to create a learning effect. Important achievements in education require a clearly set goal, full commitment and appropriate learning methods. Last but not least, also allies in learning and training. The growth mindset provides this to people, and that is why it helps their abilities to grow and bring positive results (Dweck 2015).

Existential experience as a new teaching method for future social workers

Understanding problems, assuming full responsibility for them while strengthening our relationship with ourselves - these are also objectives of global education. In the ideal case, global education should cultivate our mind, senses, enable to explore our own emotions, intuition. Therefore, we see the inspiration for such education also in application of the method of existential experience. Things that are nothing exceptional at the first sight, such as full moon reflected on a lake surface, getting lost in the mountains, work with clay, dance, etc. may be a strong stimulus for change at a personal level.

As Hipš claims, strong existential experiences that are consciously processed have a potential to change the human mind and consciousness. Such experiences may include the awareness of our death, feeling of boredom and intense experience of loneliness. The method of existential experience applies principles of experiential pedagogy which has a potential to evoke strong existential experiences in a safe setting and subsequent conscious processing at a personal level. Only if we uncover and understand the actual functioning of the mind, we have the possibility not to be slaves of desires. Since all the destruction of the nature, man and ourselves comes from our desires. On the other hand, only the awareness of our own death can save us. Full acceptance of the transience of one's own physical existence has an enormous transformative effect. If we feel that working with the theme of death has no place in teaching, then we deny the life itself. Everything in this world is transient, including our body. And we can work with transience at various levels.

Social worker - a professional in a multicultural environment

In the context of the preparation of future social workers, as well as preparing any other professionals working in a multicultural environment is desirable to emphasize and incorporate the teaching of topics such as globalization and interconnectedness, global citizenship, global trade, fair trade, sustainable development, migration, development cooperation, volunteerism, poverty and inequality, health, conflict, conflict resolution, cultural identity, intolerance, cultural differences, multiculturalism, human rights, gender equality, children's rights, peace, or, climate change, waste management, use of natural resources, alternative sources of energy.

It is very important to answer following questions (Kurčíková 2014)

1. How does the encounter of cultural difference affected us?
2. We will be able to cope with everyday diversity around us?
3. Can we grow in ourselves feeling for understanding of different cultures?
4. Can members of different cultures co-exist on its own knowledge, mutual recognition and respect?
5. What obstacles currently encountered when we talk about multikulturalizme a multicultural society?

Currently, new role for social workers is emerging – knowledge of communication and work in multicultural environment (especially when working with migrants). In terms of practice, we may point out that it is not a simple matter. In the implementation of social work in a multicultural environment social workers should focus on learning to communicate with members of different groups. In this process they are dealing with issues of tolerance and respect of different groups and are responsible for their behavior and actions. Petrasová (2010) states that future social workers need to developed in context of more efficient implementation of their work in multicultural environments in particular:

- possession of various processes for conflict solutioning
- have knowledge of other cultures
- be empathetic to cultural diversity and to other cultural traditions

We should not forget also to develop cultural intelligence as a basic social skills that should be possessed by a social worker who works with members of various minorities, including migrants.

As Stachoň (2016) reported, in devices such as restraint and accommodation center are carried out following professional activities: crisis intervention, social intervention, social services, social prevention, social counseling, accompaniment, sociotherapy and (material) assistance. In social work with asylum seekers, it is important to estimate the appropriate way to

communicate with clients, gain their confidence, understand the context associated with its social situation and its causes and reflect the cultural and social features of life of the foreigner. Therefore, we are talking about the need for culturally competent social workers.

Conclusion

Future social workers should through education during their study get awareness of global issues relating to each individual. With development of their critical thinking on global issues to gain a deeper understanding of issues relating to the whole world. Topics of Global Education provide scope for positive formation and change of attitudes of individuals and strengthen the awareness of one's role in the world. Motivates people to take responsibility and educate towards learning of the values of "active global citizens." Education for future social workers should support tolerance, solidarity and understanding the problems of international development, in his methodology is focused on supporting active learning and reflections, emphasizing the diversity and respect for others and also contribute to the clarification of preferences of individuals in a global context. One of the priority topics of teaching should be a multicultural education and minority issues as part of it.

We are considering it important that the students - future social workers will be educating to active citizenship, thereby contributing to the creation of a fair and sustainable society at local and global levels. It is necessary to promote their skills, which they will be able to participate in the life of the various communities, to think critically, to reject discrimination, stereotypes and prejudices and recognize all human beings as equal.

Our vision is that students gradually began to perceive that all people have the same basic needs, which are fulfilled by variety of ways. Gender, culture, social status, ethnicity, language, disability (etc.) Create differences between people. In order to social work students were able to exist in a diverse and rapidly changing world, and to be content with themselves, they need to meet people with a different culture and identity, and be able to recognize and challenge the various stereotypes and prejudices.

The Department of Social Work PF UMB is dealing for years with the theme of multicultural education and minority issues in several subjects and is working for some time with several organizations that are engaged in this issue (Pontis Foundation, People in Peril Foundation, MSF, Živica, etc.) . Teaching process in these areas is based only on lectures and seminars, but we are trying to shape the attitudes of male and female students on topics, which global and multicultural education include. Attitudes of young people to this subject are very often formed only under influence of the media, without understanding of deeper context. These people should

be acting in this area professionally, and therefore their attitudes are an important determinant of effective professional assistance.

One of ways to achieve focus not only on the acquisition of knowledge but also on acquisition of skills and forming attitudes in formal education is already above mentioned strategy for Service Learning. This strategy is at UMB under the auspices of the Department of Social Work developed for several years, but still within the subject focused on multicultural education and global education was not applied. Nowadays, in 2016, the Department of Social Work carried out a project aimed at social work with minorities in cooperation with the Comenius institute.

Application strategies Service Learning, together with the methodology of the Living Library in education, we want to respond not only to the need for cognition of minorities (otherness and diversity not only at the university but also in society), and forming attitudes of students of social work for them, but also to the need for self-development and learning innovative way. We realize that for the formation of attitudes in global issues and multicultural education, young people need to obtain the "experience" with real people (minorities, experts / expert practitioners, people who situation of intolerance actually experienced, etc.). As part of our plan is, that male and female students of social work were not just passive subjects of education, but become its active co-creators.

Author's characteristics:

In her educational activities, the author deals with the issue of the Roma ethnic group, global education, social skills, effective communication in social work, Art-therapy and Artphiletics in social work and helping professions. At the Department of Social Work, she conducts seminars, gives lectures, live library and various forms of professional practice for students of social work. Her research activities focus on the issue of the Roma ethnic group, global education, minority and on the modern form of aggression - cyber-bullying.

Michaela Šavrnichová
Motivational interviewing in practice of social worker

ABSTRACT

Motivational interviewing is a counselling approach aimed at encouraging the pursuit of intrinsic motivation to change behaviour. The main objective of motivational interviewing is to direct the client towards the desired changes in his/her behaviour and to sustain them. Although originally created and designed for clients with alcohol dependence issues (later expanded to marijuana and heroin users), in recent years its application has significantly exceeded the matter. The wider target group thus includes people in need of changing their behaviour, which causes them problems or compromises them in some way and necessitates further professional interventions. The chapter addresses basic knowledge of the process of change in behaviour, as well as specific motivational interviewing techniques and strategies in counselling activities of a social worker. It focuses on the closest relationships of an alcohol-dependent individual, in which we can clearly identify signs of co-dependent behaviour resulting from long-term coexistence with an alcohol-dependent member.

KEY WORDS: behaviour, co-dependent client, counselling process, change, motivational interviewing

Introduction

Motivational interviewing is a widely applicable method of therapeutic work in helping professions, originally designed for work with clients with alcohol dependence. The method is based on the Rogerian client-centred approach and also incorporates some elements of systemic as well as cognitive and behavioural therapy. According to *William R. Miller and Stephen Rollnick*, the authors of the method, it is a “special method that helps people recognize their existing or impending problem and address it. It is particularly effective for people who are reluctant to change and are very indecisive. It is aimed to help overcome ambivalence and support an individual to advance on the road to change“ (Miller, Rollnick 2004: 46). According to Soukup (2015), a motivational interviewing is a client-oriented counselling approach aimed to promote the client’s intrinsic motivation to change behaviour. It does not necessarily include significant changes (e.g. quitting substance misuse and accepting treatment), but it may also comprise minor changes (e.g. checking opening hours at the office, etc.).

In recent years motivational interviewing has become an increasingly recognized intervention of therapeutic and counselling work and besides the addictive behaviour (primarily treatment of alcohol dependence) its use has spread to other clinical areas – treatment of pathological gambling, work with HIV-positive individuals, sexual deviants, treatment of patients suffering from eating disorders, anxiety disorders, obesity, unhealthy lifestyle, as well as areas of domestic violence and penitentiary area. Target groups along with the possibilities of using motivational interviewing method and its elements have also affected social work with juveniles, common economic and counselling practice. In addition to the individual approach they found its application in the group and couple therapy (Miller, Rollnick 2002, 2004; Soukup 2014, 2015). Their application may be identified within the work with clients who clearly indicate various forms of compulsive or otherwise problematic behaviour. The core of motivational interviewing is a collaboration between the counsellor and the client, encouraging client to change and promotion of self-realization in changing unwanted behaviour (Šavrnichová 2015b).

Co-dependency and its specifics

Co-dependency is a multi-dimensional condition, which is generated by the closest relatives of a substance abuser focusing attention on needs and behaviour of the substance abuser, resulting in changes in experience and behaviour of family members (Whitfield 1991). A co-dependent individual has a close relationship with a person dealing with addiction problems, and his/her emotions, behaviour, attitudes and relationships with other people are unequivocally (though often indirectly) influenced by the behaviour, experience and attitudes of the person who is a substance abuser. In practice, not only does the immediate family protect the substance abuser by denying the problem, it also rationalizes and sometimes even advocates the problematic behaviour. Due to mental exhaustion and depression often the closest family members themselves turn to alcohol or other addictive substances. Members of Co-Dependents Anonymous (2009) even admit that if certain things in their experience remain unprocessed, their behaviour becomes increasingly destructive not only towards others, but especially towards themselves. A co-dependent individual spends a lot of time by trying to control others thereby essentially eliminating the possibility of concentrating their focus on their own needs. Such behaviour tends to result in disturbed relations in which it is almost impossible to create mature functional boundaries. Such individual creates a sick image of him/herself and of the world, and is often attracted to dysfunctional relationships, resulting in the maintenance of the victim feelings. First, this dysfunctional adaptation brings relief, but frequently the next step is a formation of another unhealthy bond (Kudrle 2003).

Wegscheider-Cruse and Cruse (1990) classify co-dependent behaviour into *denial of reality* (in response to certain events or unprocessed feelings, resulting in distorted reality or attempt to change it); *false feelings* (i.e. emotional measures manifested by a complete denial of emotions arising from specific events) and *compulsions* (or false behaviour in order to release the previous negative emotions even at the cost of a destructive compulsive behaviour). In focusing on the needs of the sick, co-dependents gradually lose their personal identity, neglect themselves, and assume ultimate responsibility for the problems of the addict and for the addict him/herself, enabling and allowing him/her to evade their own responsibility and the consequences of their behaviour. Co-dependents gradually lose not only their personal identity, but their own self-assessment decreases, the reality becomes distorted and many families are characterized by a complete denial of the problem and the existence of addiction itself. Co-dependent persons try to make changes that would (in their view) change or correct the situation, but what they do, in fact, only worsens the family situation. They unconsciously and unwillingly support the persistence of the problem (Šavrnichová 2015a).

A key role in motivational interviewing with a co-dependent client plays yet another important element of this problematic behaviour – a co-dependency phase, in which the co-dependent finds him/herself (Šavrnichová 2011):

1. *DENIAL*. Denial is a phase of shock, in which the co-dependent person tries to delude him/herself by believing that there is nothing serious going on in the family. This stage is already marked by manifestation of defensive mechanisms, by which the co-dependent protects him/herself from reality: disparaging, trivializing the situation, ignoring the facts, escape into self-pity. The co-dependent relies on the addict's promises, trusts them, and even though he/she sees that there is something wrong in the behaviour of their relative, the co-dependent hides his/her real feelings and consciously avoids unpleasant topics that would open the addiction problem in the family.

2. *ANGER*. At some point a co-dependent person starts to feel righteous anger at the behaviour of the addict because he/she begins to realize that the addict lies, fails to fulfil his/her obligations, fails to keep promises and begins to manipulate the rest of the family. The co-dependent can then feel that he/she means nothing to the addict and has the need to strike back and somehow punish him/her for the pain caused.

3. *RESCUE*. This phase has the longest course and many co-dependents remain in this phase for life despite efforts to change not only the addict, but also their own life. This period is characterized by alternating help to the addict by facilitating/encouraging his/her problematic behaviour. A co-dependent person becomes a kind of a “saviour” of the addict, protecting

him/her from the consequences of drinking, and reaches the status of a person who is more or less responsible for a drinking family member. This results in the “alcoholic’s comfort” as the alcoholic has no reason or motivation for change, because the co-dependent person consistently proves to assume responsibility for them by taking care of all their needs. When the situation deteriorates and the co-dependent person sees the consequences of their facilitation, increasingly intense feelings of guilt lead to further facilitation. The entire phase is permanently accompanied with feelings of fear, internal stress, regret, guilt, shame and anger (at different times and intensity).

4. *SADNESS*. A phase of sadness follows the previous phase and is closely associated with it. The co-dependent person may move from one phase to another and vice versa. In the sadness phase, the co-dependent is aware of his/her helplessness and admits to have no impact on the dependence of their relative. However, the co-dependent has not resigned yet and despite the recurring feelings of sadness, depression, fear of the future, despite secluding themselves and despite the unwillingness to interact with others, he/she repeatedly saves the addict.

5. *HATRED*. Anger, rescue, sadness, long-term feelings of fear, regret, shame, and unprocessed feelings of guilt lead to the formation of aversion and in extreme cases even hatred. These feelings do not form equally for everyone and their intensity and duration is also individual. Hate is particularly specific for those co-dependents who have for years witnessed how the addict gradually destroys family relationships and how his/her behaviour affects physical and mental state of other family members.

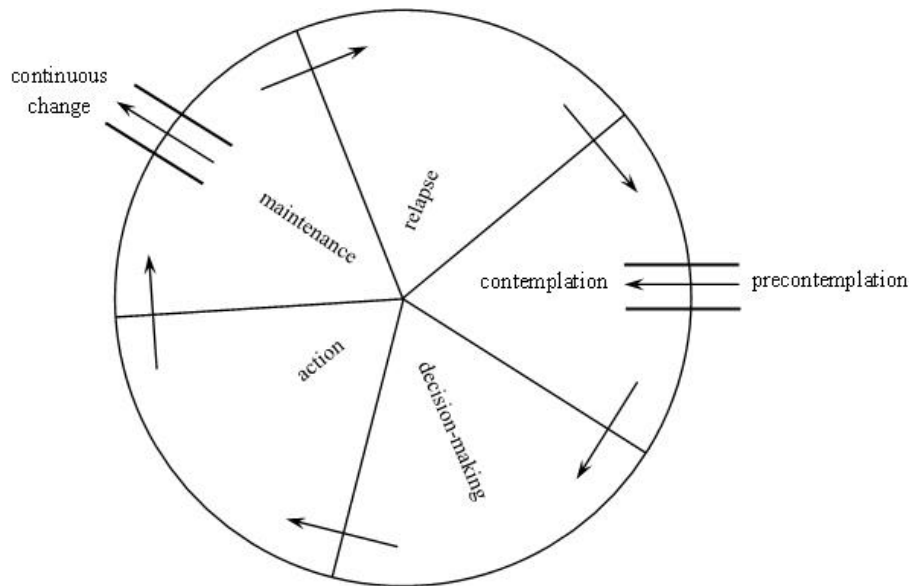
6. *RECONCILIATION*. Reconciliation is a phase of adjustment, reconciliation with the situation, acceptance of reality and focus on oneself and one's needs. This phase allows the co-dependent person to realistically assess the situation, to behave rationally and it also provides feelings of serenity and happiness. At this stage, the co-dependent is aware that their behaviour will not change the addict and only the addict must change.

The process of behavioural change

The behavioural change scheme was compiled by Prochaska and DiClemente in 1980s. The scheme describes the changes in behaviour and experience of a man undergoing the process of deciding on the change, working on the change and maintaining the change. Although originally designed based on the experience in the treatment of addiction, it can be applied to any process of change in human behaviour. According to the authors, this model “offers an integrative framework for understanding the process of behaviour change whether that change involves the initiation, the modification, or the cessation of a particular behaviour” (DiClemente, Velasquez 2002: 201). The

scheme describes the various stages of the change process in which motivation is understood as the current internal state of an individual or a readiness to change, affected by various external factors. This cyclical process of change is referred to as the *Circular Change Model* or a *Wheel of Change* (Fig. 1). The model shows pre-contemplation as an entry to a wheel of change, in which the person keeps turning until they reach a permanent change, which is the exit gate.

Figure 1 Wheel of Change (Prochaska, DiClemente).



Source: Miller, Rollnick 2004.

Pre-contemplation is a phase before thinking about changing behaviour. This is a phase of a client, who does not perceive the need of a change, feels well and to whom any change of behaviour seems unnecessary. The typical feature of this stage is the fact that even if the client perceives a problem, they usually attribute the cause to external circumstances, not to themselves alone. They are masters in rationalizing and explaining their problems, or their mismatch between the experience and behaviour.

Contemplation is usually described as a phase of reflection and consideration. It differs from the previous stage in the fact that one can associate at least some of the current problems with one's current status. At this stage, the client begins to think about profits and losses and begins to realize certain connections between their problematic behaviour and increasing problems. Although the client considers the possibility of changing their behaviour (doubts on whether it is appropriate to continue in the present behaviour begin to grow), the positives still prevail over negatives (in case of co-dependent clients it is at least the belief that they can still handle the situation themselves). It is also the stage where clients experience the most ambivalence. As social

workers in practice, it is important that we be comfortable with and that we recognize ambivalence as a vital part of the contemplation stage of change. Social workers should also realize that contemplation does not mean commitment (DiClemente, Velasquez 2002).

Decision is a phase, in which the problems grow and negatives, or behavioural consequences are far greater than previously prevailing positives. At this stage (also referred to as determination stage), the client is already fully aware of their connection and starts to realize that their situation has to change. The actual decision-making process can be long and difficult for the client. The counsellor should be therefore patient and encourage the client in their decision-making, support their self-confidence and discuss with them all possible solutions, alternatives and any complications. For addicted clients “this is ideally the end of the pre-treatment and the client begins the treatment. However, the client still needs to be motivated” (Kalina 2008: 123). At this stage, the co-dependent client may experience shift to other stages of co-dependency or a definitive decision on the change of the present lifestyle, regardless of whether the addicted family member decides to be treated or not.

Action starts as soon as the client is determined to change their behaviour. This phase is the actual change, which may e.g. determine the precise rules of the household shared with the addicted member, the decision to refuse to tolerate any alcohol use at home, divorce petition etc. Action is the most obviously busy period and the one that requires the greatest commitment of time and energy. The danger is that many people, including professionals, can erroneously equate action with change, overlooking not only the critical work that prepares clients for successful action but the equally important (and often more challenging) efforts to maintain the changes following action.

Maintenance is the phase, in which the client maintains the already achieved positive changes in behaviour. This period is perceived as critical and threatening the client (especially in case of a co-dependent client and the counsellor has to approach sensitively the client’s decision to remain in the new way of life as long as possible due to their strong emotional ties to the addict).

Relapse is a return to the pre-contemplation phase, to the original problematic behaviour. Relapse can occur for many different reasons. Individuals may experience a particularly strong, unexpected urge or temptation to return to the problem behaviour and fail to cope with it successfully. At this stage, the counsellor should also support the client in thinking about the change, restore the intention and decision, encourage them to act and maintain the results.

In this process of change it is necessary to follow several essential requirements. Since this is a cyclical process, which may repeat several times on the road to change, the counsellor must time and dose the intervention depending on the stage of change and motivation the client is facing.

According to Nešpor (2007: 61) “it makes little sense to advise clients when it is clear that he/she is not willing to accept any advice due to the stage of motivation, when the client is not looking for a change.” Counsellor must be able to work with the client at all stages of the change process, building on the possibilities of the client, and motivate him/her towards the objectives corresponding to stage the client is facing (Tab. 1). Accelerating the whole process might discourage, demoralize the client or lead to client’s adjustment to the counsellor’s intentions without the client’s identification and definitive anchoring of the change in behaviour.

Kalina (2015) points out that at the same it is also detrimental to leave the client without incentives to achieve the next stage for too long, while it is equally inefficient to neglect the stage which the client is facing and return the client back. In addition to the state of motivation and the stage of change, which the co-dependent client is facing, the counsellor should take into account the above-described phases of co-dependency, which play a key role in motivating the client to change their present attitude towards the addicted family member.

Table no. 1: Stages of change and the roles of counsellor

Stage	Counsellor's motivational tasks
Pre-contemplation	Raise doubts, enhance the perception of danger and issues, which come with the problematic behaviour
Contemplation	Shift the balance to a desirable direction, remind of the reasons for the change, remind of threats, if there is no change.
Decision	Help the client to decide on the best course of action, which is directed towards the change.
Action	Help the client to do everything necessary.
Maintaining the change	Help the client to find and use methods to prevent recurrence of the problematic behaviour.
Relapse	Help the client to resume the process of reflection, decision-making etc.

Source: Miller, Rollnick 2004 In Kalina et al. 2013.

The first characteristic that is clearly visible in the confrontation within the motivational interviewing using the scheme of change is the fact that motivational interviewing is an excellent counselling approach to the early stages of change, particularly pre-contemplation and contemplation. In both phases clients do not wish to be instructed or forced to the commitment with which they are not identified or for which they are not prepared. Hence in these phases of the Wheel of Change the first phase of motivational interviewing shall be applied, ensuring that clients get motivated by counsellor in a non-confrontational and accepting approach to consider their own situation, its positives and negatives. The second phase starts when a client decides to make a change. "At this point, the client has made a decision to change. In this phase, the clinician's job changes from one of motivating the client to one of advising and coaching as the client develops a workable change plan, anticipates barriers to change, and identifies potential support systems" (DiClemente, Velasquez 2002: 203).

The basic principles of motivational interviewing

The above information on the process of change is based on the basic principles of motivational interviewing, presenting a broader context in the choice of appropriate methods and techniques in the counselling process. Motivational interviewing method is not just a set of counselling techniques. It is also consultant's attempt (even though it is somewhat of a down

approach) to create a positive atmosphere supporting the change in order to increase client's intrinsic motivation to the extent that the change will come from within the client and it will not be demanded from outside.

The four basic principles of motivational interviewing include:

- Express empathy.
- Develop discrepancy.
- Roll with resistance.
- Support self-efficacy.

Express empathy

Social worker's empathetic approach is one of the fundamental characteristics of motivational interviewing. With empathetic approach and by creating an atmosphere of acceptance, the social worker lays important ground to initiate necessary changes. Empathy is also associated with emotional involvement and positive interest in the other person. It is based on the acceptance and acknowledgment of the client, which is in practice expressed by reflective listening and in counsellor's skills to refrain from assumptions, premature conclusions and advice. This approach allows the social worker to understand the client's feelings and his/her vision of the situation, even if the client has a different view. According to Miller and Rollnick (2002: 37) "it is possible to accept and understand a person's perspective while not agreeing with or endorsing it. Neither does an attitude of acceptance prohibit the counsellor from differing with the client's views and expressing that divergence. The crucial attitude is respectful listening to the person with a desire to understand his or her perspectives". An empathetic counsellor attempts to "respond to the client's views as understandable, reasonable and (at least within the client's world) justified" (Miller, Rollnick 2004: 49). The client thereby acquires a sincere feeling that he/she is listened to, respected and that the counsellor does not consider him/her as a problematic personality in conflict with his/her surroundings (this can include e.g. disagreements and inconsistent approach toward the addict among family members).

Miller and Rollnick (2002: 37) summarize the effect of empathy and acceptance as follows: "Acceptance facilitates change. Skilful reflective listening is fundamental. Ambivalence is normal".

Develop discrepancy

This principle of motivational interviewing is based on finding a conflict between the existing client's behaviour and his/her long-term plans and goals (e.g. health, other family members). In general terms, we may understand this process as "awareness of the conflict between where one is and where one wants to be" (Miller, Rollnick 2004: 50). Many clients who seek help are aware of these contradictions, however, in most cases they try to ignore them using defence mechanisms (e.g. denial, rationalization, projection), because they perceive a conflict of values in comparison with the real behaviour as a threat to their own personality and identity. In the course of motivational interviewing it is essential to recognize, enlarge and emphasize this contradiction while communicating with the client. In doing so, however, it is important to distinguish two dimensions of this conflict. The first is the importance of the change, when it is necessary to emphasize and promote its recognition by the client. The second dimension is the size of the contradiction (distance between current behaviour and desired behaviour). The basic principle of the contradiction development lies in the fact that the counsellor highlights in empathic atmosphere the contradictions between the client's and his/her actual behaviour, while leading the client to identify and provide arguments for and against the change him/herself.

According to several experts (Miller, Rollnick 2004; Živný 2012; Soukup 2014) at that very moment the development of contradiction is in the process of motivational interviewing, when working with the client becomes more prescriptive (in terms of direction, no leadership), and the interview focuses on the distinction of ambivalence in client's experience and on the use of this ambivalence in favour of the change in the client's behaviour. The main idea behind this principle is that "client rather than the counsellor should present the arguments for change. Change is motivated by a perceived discrepancy between present behaviour and important personal goals or values" (Miller, Rollnick 2002: 39).

Roll with resistance

Aversion is considered a natural part of the change and within the counselling process it can be a signal for the counsellor indicating that it is necessary to choose a different strategy, which could "pull" the client towards the change. Aversion of a co-dependent client can be especially intense, if the client is currently at the stage of anger or hatred and constructive communication about further changes is even more difficult. Another specific element are the client's defence mechanisms, frequency and intensity of which depends on the co-dependency phase, which the customer is facing. The most common include *ignorance* (an attempt to solve the problem in the

family by consciously avoiding the addict, or situations related to the problem); *denial* (an attempt to solve the problem based on the attitude that the problem in the family is not as important as others think; *shift* (targeted engagement in other activities); *rationalization* (irrational interpretations of problem situations with the addict); *projection* (blaming other people or the system for the problem the family is facing, e.g. “If he worked he would not drink”, or “The mother is to blame. She always tolerated everything”); and *reactive formation* (family’s effort to address the problem when individual members behave exactly opposite to their feelings) (Šavrnichová 2015b).

The counsellor may, however, use aversion for the benefit of the client by turning the question back to the client and thereby actively engaging him/her in the problem solving. Miller (2011) points out six specific areas that a counsellor should avoid when working with a client:

Avoid interviewing in the form of questions and answers.

Do not enforce unilateral statements on the issue of change.

Do not act in as an expert who knows everything in the consultation process.

Avoid inappropriate ranking of the problem.

Do not prematurely focus on one goal.

Do not blame the client for his/her behaviour.

Therefore, in motivational interviewing it is not recommended to oppose the client and explain him/her why his/her opinion is wrong. The counsellor rather formulates his/her opinion in another way, in favour of the desired change. It is especially the client on whom depends whether he/she decides for the change and how he/she will want to implement it. Miller and Rollnick (2002: 40) summarize the principle of using aversion as follows: “Avoid arguing for change. Resistance is not directly opposed. New perspectives are invited but not imposed. The client is a primary resource in finding answer and solutions. Resistance is a signal to respond differently”.

Support self-efficacy

Client’s confidence in their own abilities to successfully implement the steps necessary for the change is an important component of motivation. Unless the client him/herself is convinced about a possibility of a successful change, he/she will be much less inclined to get involved personally in the processes leading to the change. Self-efficacy is the other side of personal responsibility for change. To assert that a person is responsible for deciding and directing his or her own change is to assume that the person is capable of doing so. The person not only can but must make the change, in the sense that no one else can do it for him or her. Motivational interviewing does not foster the view that the counsellor will change the client. “I will change you” is not the intended message. A more appropriate message is “If you wish, I can help you change”.

Miller and Rollnick (2002: 41) describe the support to abilities as follows: “A person’s belief in the possibility of change is an important motivator. The client, not the counsellor, is responsible for choosing and carrying out change. The counsellor’s own belief in the person’s ability to change becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy.”

Together with other active components, this principle is an essential part of rapid interventions referred to in the professional literature as the “frameworks” of motivational interviewing – FRAMES: feedback, responsibility, advice, menu of options, empathy and self-efficacy. Any confidence stems from client’s self-esteem, confidence and hope. Unless the client is convinced about the possibility of a successful change, his/her willingness to participate in the process of change will be relatively low and problematic for effective intervention. In addition to the client’s self-confidence, a very important factor is also the counsellor’s belief in client’s ability to change their behaviour. If the client does not feel this attitude, his/her ability to change is reduced.

Basic techniques of motivational interviewing

Ask Open Questions

During the early phase of motivational interviewing, it is important to establish an atmosphere of acceptance and trust within which clients will explore their concerns. This means, that the client should do most of the talking at this stage, with the counsellor listening carefully and encouraging expression. The key for encouraging clients to do most of the talking is to ask open questions – that do not invite brief answer. Some short-answer (closed) questions may be of course necessary, but they should be few and far between during the early phase of motivational interviewing (Miller, Rollnick 2002). If you know in advance or otherwise sense that the person has clear agenda to talk about, a simple opening of the door may suffice. For example: “I would like to understand how you see things. What is brought you here?” or “You said on the phone that you have been having some problems with your husband and his drinking, and you want to talk about it. Fill me in. How about starting from the beginning, and bringing me up to date?”

In discussing a focal problem with more ambivalent clients, Miller and Rollnick (2002: 66) advise “to ask for both sides of the coin or to ask a connected cluster of relatively neutral open questions. Some counsellors prefer to ask people first what they have liked about their current (“problem”) behaviour or situation, and then what the not-so-good side includes”. For example: “Tell me what you have noticed about your marriage over the years. What changes have you seen, and how have these affected you?”

Listen Reflectively

Reflective listening is one of the most important and most challenging skills required for motivational interviewing. Reflective listening is based on active listening, when the counsellor shows to the client through reflection that he/she is listening and simultaneously controlling. Miller and Rollnick (2002) emphasize that it is not a passive process by the counsellor because the counsellor is the one who decides what he/she will reflect on, what he/she will emphasize, what words he/she will use to capture the meaning of what the client is saying. Gordon (1970 In Miller, Rollnick 2002) outlined 12 kinds of responses that are not listening. (1) Ordering, directing, or commanding. (2) Warning, cautioning, or threatening. (3) Giving advice, making suggestions, or providing solutions. (4) Persuading with logic, arguing, or lecturing. (5) Telling people what they should do, moralizing. (6) Disagreeing, judging, criticizing, or blaming. (7) Agreeing, approving, or praising. (8) Shaming, ridiculing, or labelling. (9) Interpreting or analysing. (10) Reassuring, sympathizing, or consoling. (11) Questioning or probing. (12) Withdrawing, distracting, humouring, or changing the subject. These responses called “roadblocks” because they tend to get in the way and have the effect of blocking, stopping, diverting or changing direction.

Soukup (2015) defines several types of reflections. **Simple reflection** is the repetition of the client’s statement that the counsellor uses to confirm their interest and attention. It is appropriate to mention it in own words (e.g. “If I understand you correctly...”). **Comprehensive reflection** reveals possible deeper meaning of what the client is saying and attempts to give a clearer or another dimension of understanding to the statement (e.g. “It is not easy to maintain own opinions and convictions in such an environment”). **Reinforced reflection** contains the client’s statement, parts of which the advisor deliberately highlights to emphasize their importance (e.g. “You have done absolutely everything you could think of doing”). **Weakened reflection** can lead to a continuation and deepening of the subject, which the client avoided (e.g. “You slightly hesitated whether to say it to others in the family”). **Bilateral reflection** highlights the ambivalence or inconsistency in what the client is saying or said previously (e.g. “On the one hand you are afraid of your husband’s reaction, on the other hand you do not want to hide from him and you would be relieved”).

Miller and Rollnick (2002) advise, that reflective listening statements should constitute a substantial proportion of counsellor responses during the early phase of motivational interviewing. Reflection is particularly important after open-ended questions (once you have asked an open question, respond to the client’s answer with reflective listening).

Affirm

Affirmation and valuation of the client in the counselling process is another way of building a relationship with the client, leading to the reinforcement of their self-esteem, confidence in their own abilities and willingness to work towards a change in problematic behaviour. Valuation may relate to current as well as previous minor achievements, or attempts to change their situation. The process of reflective listening can be quite affirming in itself, but direct affirmations have a place in counselling too. For example: “Thank you for coming on time today”, or “I appreciate that you took a big step in coming here today”.

Summarize

The summary is an extended reflection in which the counsellor clearly repeats client’s significant statements expressed during the previous conversation. Using this procedure, the counsellor helps the client as well as themselves to clarify the possible connections, highlight the essential issues, and prove the client that he/she has been listening attentively and has accepted the client. Summary may be used for the entire duration of motivational interviewing. As Miller and Rollnick (2002) mentioned, at least three kinds of summaries are useful in motivational interviewing. **The collecting summary** just illustrated, is offered during the process of exploration, particularly when you have heard several change talk themes. They are usually short and should continue rather than interrupt the person’s momentum. **Linking summaries** tie together what a person has just been saying with material offered earlier, perhaps in a previous conversation. The most commonly used expressions in this kind of summaries include: “On the one hand..., on the other hand..., and also”. Linking summaries are meant to encourage the client to reflect on the relationship between two or more previously discussed items. They can be especially helpful in clarifying a client’s ambivalence. **Transitional summaries** should be used at the end of the meeting, when it is necessary to summarize all the topics discussed during the meeting. It is recommended to give prior notice to the client that the counsellor will try to summarize all relevant information, or to propose to the client to correct the counsellor in his/her conclusions.

Informing

Providing information and advice to the client is an important component of motivational interviewing. Soukup (2015) recommends a three-step procedure to provide information: (1) The counsellor will first try to find out what the client already knows and what he/she is still interested in. (2) In providing information, the counsellor may request permission (e.g. “I realized something that I would like to share with you...”), may express that the information may be refused (e.g. “I do not know whether you think it as helpful...”), may provide information in a neutral form using the experiences of other people (e.g. “Some people find it helpful to...”). (3) After any information

provided to the client by the counsellor, it is advisable to find out what the client thinks about it, which of the alternatives the client considers as the most acceptable in his/her situation.

Motivational interviewing strategies

➤ The change speech

There are no specific basic techniques of motivational interviewing for this method. They include main communication elements and are used by several counselling and therapeutic approaches. If the client speaks positively about the need for change and about the ways to pursue it, the change in his/her behaviour is more likely. Soukup (2015) defines this type of client's expression as the "change speech" (sometimes referred to as "self-motivating statement") and divides it by intensity into two main categories:

Statements indicating the process of preparation for the change in behaviour (desire to make the change, e.g. "I finally want to do something about it", or "We need to do something"; and disadvantages of the status quo, e.g. "If it goes on like this, I myself will end up on drugs", or "My husband's health condition got worse and I am too tired to go on like this").

Statements indicating a commitment to make the change (e.g. "I'll talk about it with my husband", or "We will set clear rules if we are to live in the same household" – a specific plan or commitment to move toward the change).

Resistance to change and its management

Statements, in which the client lists reasons why he/she does not want, need or may not make the change, are referred to as the "speech to maintain the status quo". If more statements like this prevail in the communication with the counsellor, it is less likely that the client will change his/her problematic behaviour. Soukup (2015) divides the status quo speech into two categories: situations in which the client actively rejects all interventions aimed at changing the behaviour (resistance talk); and common situations in which the client defends the status quo and the benefits arising from it (sustain talk). Typical statements for this category are the sentences starting with "Yes, but..." (e.g. "...But he will have nowhere to live" or "...how will he pay the rent?"). Despite the risks that in trying to break the resistance and to intensify reasoning the client's status quo talk may be reinforced, the statements of this category may be a valuable source of information for the counsellor on how he/she is progressing with the client and what stage the client is currently facing. Change is facilitated instead by communicating in a way that elicits the person's own reasons for and advantages of changes. „Change talk generally falls into one of these four categories:

Disadvantages of the status quo. These statements acknowledge that there is reason for concern or discontent with how things are. This may or may not involve an admission of a „problem“. The language generally reflects a recognition of undesirable aspects of one’s present state or behaviour.

Advantages of change. A second form of change talk implies recognition of the potential advantages of a change. Whereas the first type of change talk focuses on the not-so-good things about one’s current status, this second type emphasizes the good things to be gained through change. Both kinds, of course, are reasons for change.

Optimism for change. A third kind of talk that favours change is that which expresses confidence and hope about one’s ability to change. It may be stated in hypothetical (I *could*) or declarative (I *can* do it). The common underlying theme is that change is possible.

Intention to change. As the balance tips, people begin to express an intention, desire, willingness, or commitment to change. The level of intention can vary from rather weak to very strong commitment language. Sometimes the intention is expressed indirectly by envisioning how things might be if change did happen” (Miller, Rollnick 2002: 24).

Conclusion

Philosophy of the therapy enhancing motivation in Rogerian spirit assumes that people are actually quite motivated to change their current situation, but a state of readiness for change varies and is influenced by a number of diverse internal factors and external conditions (Kalina 2013). Co-dependency phenomenon in families with an addicted drinking member generates in the client an urge to help and at the same time to control the addict through constraints, accusations and repeated manipulation. Development of co-dependency results in low self-esteem, sustaining of victim feelings and increased tolerance with respect to the addict to the extent that the problem of addiction in the family deepens and destructively impacts other family members. Confronting a co-dependent client’s participation in the development and deepening of addiction in the family is a complex and long-term process that requires a non-directive empathetic approach from the counsellor, as well as counsellor’s confidence in client’s abilities in the process of changing problematic behaviour. Practical experience in working with addicts showed that motivational interviewing has a positive effect on the client’s experience of the client – counsellor relationship, enables the client to get better orientation in their own problems and allows more effective enhancement of client’s motivation to change. We believe that the strategies and techniques of motivational interviewing aimed at the work with the client’s ambivalence, development of intrinsic motivation and support for behavioural change process can also be used in the context of long-term systematic work with families with the occurrence of addiction. In some cases, we can

only talk about short-term time-bound intervention aimed to motivate relatives to participate in the treatment process of an addict (e.g. by their participation in family therapy). In most cases, however, long-term strategy appears to be more effective aiming to work primarily with ambivalence of a co-dependent client (development of contradictions) and help the client find ways to proceed in dealing with the obstacles, regardless of the pathological behaviour of an addicted member of the family and his/her attitudes on the issue of treatment.

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Key competences of social workers working with children endangered by social network crimes

ABSTRACT

At present, social networks are the most significant means of communication of children and youth. The aim of this paper is to map the risk of pathologic phenomenon on social networks and determine the key competences needed by social workers to recognise these risks and provide support to children in danger of becoming victims of crimes committed via social networks. This paper focuses mainly on the modern phenomenon of acts of indecency committed on the Internet.

KEY WORDS: social work, endangered child, social networks, forensic social work

Introduction

Helping victims of a crime is part of a social worker's job. The aim of this paper is to determine the role of a social worker specialized in helping children endangered by crimes committed on them via social networks. The target group of children and victims of acts of indecency belongs to the category of seriously vulnerable victims. For this reason, we consider it necessary to focus on work with children victims of acts of indecency committed via social networks. As experience has proved, there will be more and more of such victims as the cyberspace grows bigger.

The initial part of this paper defines key concepts related to the target group and social work with victims of crimes. It also defines cyberspace as a means of social communication. The paper especially defines the possibilities of helping victims of a crime. It mentions the role of a social worker working with children victims of crime in general and possibilities of helping child victims of acts of indecency or acts of violence. Next the paper defines key competences that social workers need to be able to work with victims of crimes. It describes in detail selected competences of social workers: prevention of secondary victimization and interconnection as part of multidisciplinary cooperation. The paper also defines forensic social work as a special area of social work and its key competences. The main goal of this paper will be obtained by case interpretation and its evaluation. The conclusion of the paper describes recommendations for social workers in their area of work.

Definition of basic terms

The following terms relate to the issue of children victims of acts of indecency committed via social networks. For consistency, the definitions of social work, endangered child, key competences, victims of crimes, forensic social work and social networks are provided.

Social work

Global definition of social work approved in 2014 by International Federation of Social Workers and International Association of Schools of Social Work defines social work as: "... a practice-based profession and an academic discipline that promotes social change and development, social cohesion, and the empowerment and liberation of people. Principles of social justice, human rights, collective responsibility and respect for diversities are central to social work. Underpinned by theories of social work, social sciences, humanities and indigenous knowledge, social work engages people and structures to address life challenges and enhance well-being...". (International Federation of Social workers)

Endangered child

A child whose basic biological, psychological, emotional, social and spiritual needs (need of stimulation, order, love, security, social recognition, open and shared future) are not fulfilled or there is a risk that these will not be fulfilled. CAN and SCEC syndromes are part of a new social morbidity – child maltreatment. Another role in the health and rights of a child is played by social determinants. We can say that each child is potentially more or less endangered. It is impossible to strictly draw up the border as there are many factors of endangerment as well as their intensity and development. Special attention needs to be paid to potential risks. (Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, Proposal of Measures to Transform and Unify the System of Care for Endangered Children) Simply said, "endangered child" can mean a child whose life or health are endangered in any way. As per the definition by WHO, health does not mean just the absence of sickness, but also a complex state of physical, mental and social well-being.

Competences - key competences - key competences in social work

"A competence is a functional demonstration of well mastered and recognized professional role of a social worker. These competences contain, among others, special knowledge and ability to adequately reflect and sensibly apply the values of this profession." (Matoušek 2003) Authors of the hierarchical model of competence structure (anatomy of competence), A. D. Lucia and R. Lepsinger, assume that a competence consists of intelligence, talent, abilities, values, approach, motivation together with a layer of skills, knowledge, experience and knowledge of processes,

such as know-how that are reflected in one's behaviour (Kubeš et al. 2004). Kubeš et al. (2004) mention so called key competences. Such competences serve as a description of behaviour that is important for all employees and contributes to company values, much needed company culture and expected performance.

Competences of social workers can be understood as authority and scope of activity and are defined by applicable law. Competences can also be perceived as ability to carry out a specific activity. Therefore, we can say that competences of social workers consist of fulfilling education and experience requirements proved by exams and ability to fulfil job responsibilities and meet the objectives of social work while maintaining the values and observing the ethical code of the profession. (Havrdová 1999)

Criminal acts - victims of criminal acts

A criminal act is such behaviour that carries the signs defined in the Criminal Act (Act No. 40/2009 coll., Criminal Code). A victim is a natural person to whom the criminal act caused bodily harm, injury to property or other harm or the offender enriched himself at the expense of the person. If the criminal act led to the death of the victim, then direct relatives, siblings, adopted child, adopted parent or his/her spouse, husband/wife or registered partner also become victims in case they were close to the victim. If there are more of such people, they are all considered victims. (Act No. 45/2013 Coll. on Victims of Criminal Acts and Amendments to certain other acts)

Forensic social work

According to the definition of National Organization of Social Work operating in the USA and Canada, forensic social work means applying social work on issues related to law and legal systems. Broader definition includes any social work related to legal issues and disputes, both criminal and civic ones. It covers problems in childcare, probation and mediation issues concerning youth and adults, correctional options and integration into society. (Květenská 2015)

Social networks

Social networks have become a phenomenon of today's society. There are many definitions of the term social network. What all have in common is that it is a virtual environment that enables individuals to be in touch with many other people from various parts of the world, share personal information, photos, videos, opinion etc. One of the definitions was written by David Knoke and Song Yang in their book Social Network Analysis: '...Social network is a

structure formed by a group of actors where some members are connected by a set of one or more relationships...' (Knoke, Yang 2008)

Terms used in the following text will be understood in the context delimited above.

Cyberspace as a means of social communication

Information and communication technologies and their users create so called cyberspace as a form of a parallel world. Consciousness is created by users of the network as a virtual world which, however, has real consequences. It covers all of the virtual space, especially the world of the Internet and other networks and mobile technologies. It offers extensive possibilities of use, from everyday communication (via email, chat, social networks, video calls using web cam) to searching for information, using information systems of various institutions (including public authorities) to saving information and finding entertainment. At the same time it offers space for harmful behaviour including crime. As information technologies grow more and more into everyday life, we use the term 'cybernetic crimes' or 'cybercrimes'. (Gřivna et al. 2014)

Cyberspace brings a whole spectrum of human communication possibilities – from the positive ones to the negative ones. It offers a space without borders or time limits of communication across large distances. Social networks are a means of social communications that helped transform communication and keeps transforming it further. This is why the competences of social workers also have to change and adopt to the new conditions and possibilities brought by social communication in cyberspace.

Helping victims of crimes

There are several forms of helping victims and in order to provide professional help it is useful to differentiate between these forms. The following part of the paper defines basic forms of such help focused on victims of serious acts of violence. Providing health care to a person who suffered injuries due to a physical attack takes priority. It can be followed by various kinds of counselling that will direct the victim towards other forms of support including social help. The institutes of confidant and representative are also considered a form of support to victims of criminal acts - these new institutes were established by Act No. 45/2013 Coll. on Victims of Criminal Acts. Social counselling seems to be the form of help that associates all these types of help. Mental and psychosocial form of help represents an indispensable type of help. The following text defines basic forms of help provided to victims of criminal acts.

Health care

If the victim has suffered injuries as a result of a violent act of crime, it is absolutely necessary to call medical help. It is important to state the cause of the injuries that the doctor will then describe in the medical report. In the criminal proceedings this piece of information is an important evidence when claiming financial compensation or support from the state. In some cases police also invites a doctor - forensic expert to take photographs of the injuries for the purpose of criminal proceedings.

Counselling

For the purposes of this text we will understand the term social counselling as defined in Act No. 108/2006 Coll. *on Social Services*, which defines basic and expert social counselling. According to this Act social counselling provides individuals in difficult situations all the information that is necessary to deal with this situation. Basic social counselling forms part of all types of social services. Professional social counselling includes civic counselling, marriage and family counselling, social work with unadaptable individuals, counselling for victims of criminal acts and domestic violence, social and legal counselling for individuals with physical disability and counselling for elderly. The service includes counselling, providing contact with social environment, therapeutic activities and help when enforcing own rights and interests.

Social help

Victims of criminal acts can receive help and support from registered social services (see below). When meeting the eligibility requirements, victims of criminal acts can apply for emergency financial support at the nearest Job Office. This is regulated by special laws.

Confidant and representative

According the Act on Victims of Criminal Acts the victim has the right to be accompanied by a confidant when participating in criminal proceedings. The confidant can be any natural person selected by the victim and capable to enter into legal acts. Confidant provides mainly psychological help. The confidant cannot be a person that in the same criminal proceedings is a defendant, defence lawyer, witness, forensic expert or interpreter. Confidant can at the same time be the victim's representative.

At the same time the victim has the right to be represented by a representative for the criminal proceedings. The representative can be selected by the victim or the victim can require to be assigned one. A representative can be any person that is capable to enter into legal acts – it can be a lawyer or a person with a close relationship to the victim who does not need to have legal

qualification. Again it cannot be a person who has another role in the criminal proceedings. A representative has the right to make proposals, raise requirements or legal remedies and can attend all the acts of the criminal procedure that can be attended by the victim himself. The representative can also provide legal advice.

Timely intervention

To minimize the risks of primary and secondary victimization it is important to provide the victims a timely intervention that has to meet the elementary principles of emergency intervention. According to Čírtková and Vitoušová (2007) so called victim intervention, i.e. intervention provided to victims of criminal acts, has its specifics. It works on the presumption that if the psychological harms are not treated in time, they can cause various physical, psychological and social difficulties or disorders in the future. According to the above mentioned authors the period following immediately after the event is very important. That is why so called psychology of urgent (primary) care has undergone intensive development recently. There are two areas of this care: emergency psychological help and acute trauma therapy. Emergency psychological help (situational intervention, early intervention) is provided on the crime scene by psychologists as well as other professionals, such as doctors, police officers and other members of emergency teams. Acute trauma therapy is provided by specialists (psychologists and psychotherapists) and can start approximately two days after the incident or during the first weeks after the incident. In both cases the therapy has the same objectives: psychological stabilization of the victim, relieving from stress and other symptoms. The specialists aim to start natural experience processing and focus on encouraging the victims own psychological resources. Both ways have their own procedures.

Čírtková and Vitoušová (2007) define the following recommendations for members of the victim's family and other non-professionals providing help to the victim:

- Working with the feelings of guilt - some victims think again and again about the criminal act and blame themselves that they should act in a different way. It is not advisable to play down these personal reproaches and it is necessary to appreciate all acts that helped the victim to survive and overcome the critical events.
- Normalization of consequences of victimization: – victimization can trigger various disorders in experiencing and behaviour – such as sleeping disorders, eating disorders, compulsive and obsessive thoughts and memories, irritation or extreme tiredness. It is important to realize that such behaviour is a normal reaction to an unusual situation.

- Renew the feeling of security and ability to trust – victim’s trust to others is often affected and the victim may seem unpredictable, incomprehensible and causing harm with no reason. As a consequence, the victim separates from others and stays at home, limits his/her social contacts and everyday activities outside home to a minimum.
- Supporting emotional expression – for most victim’s victimization is a very strong experience that triggers strong emotions. Venting the emotions leads to using the negative energy.
- Renewing the trust in own abilities – the victim loses the feeling of security that he/she can at least partly regulate own fate. Trust in own abilities can be encouraged by supporting activities (small tasks and simple activities) and support of such activities, that the victim prefers.
- Providing support to resolve the victim’s main problems – positive role in this support can be played by relatives and other people close to the victim who support the victim in resolving problems perceived by the victim as major (e.g. accompanying the victim when lodging a criminal complaint, attending investigation procedures etc.).

Registered Social Services

Social services are provided to individuals, families and groups of citizens. They focus on maintaining the highest possible personal dignity and quality of life. Among those who most often use the support of social services are senior citizens, disabled, families with children, but also people living on the fringe of the society. Social services provide help with personal care, food, accommodation, household care, medical treatment, help with upbringing, obtaining information, obtaining social contacts, psychotherapy, socio therapy and help with enforcing own rights and interests. The provider of social services is a natural or legal person that has a licence to provide such services as specified in Act No. 108/2006 Coll. on Social Services effective from 1st January 2007. Providers of social services cannot be family members or social care assistants who care of their close relations or other people at their home. Social services also cannot be provided by a subject that is not registered as a provider of social services as defined in the Act in question (such as private cleaning company or accommodation provider).

Register of Social Services Providers was created based on Act No.108/2006 Coll., on Social Services. The aim of this act is to protect the rights and rightful interests of people who are for various reasons weaker in protecting their rights themselves. These reasons can be for example their age, disability, emergency life situation and many others. Beside the rights and obligations

of individuals, the Act also defines the rights and obligations of regional branches of Job Centres, municipalities, regions, the state and naturally also providers of social services. The act also provides for areas concerning the conditions under which social services can be provided in various social systems in which social workers operate. According to the *Register of Social Services Providers*, by 1st September 2016 there were 191 providers of social services in the Czech Republic whose target group is, among others, victims of criminal acts. (*Act No. 108/2006 Coll. on Social Services*)

Ministry of Justice and Ministry of Labour and Social affairs support activities of subjects providing support to victims of criminal acts by allocating funds from the state budget. A subject that wants to provide help to victims of criminal acts and receive funds from the state budget to finance its activities has to obtain accreditation to provide legal advice or restorative programmes, or both of these. Services of psychological and social counselling can only be provided by those subjects that have obtained a licence to provide social counselling and social prevention services on the basis of obtaining a registration decision as defined in the Act on Social Services Providers. In the Czech Republic such help and support is provided by non-government organizations. A significant proportion of help to victims of crimes is provided by Bílý kruh bezpečí. (*A worker designated to help victims of crime*)

Register of Providers of help to victims of crime

In connection to subjects that want to help victims of crimes, the Ministry of Justice of the Czech Republic maintains (based on Section 48, paragraph 1 of Act on Victims of Crime) a public *Register of Providers Providing Help to Victims of Crimes*. (www.portal.justice.cz) On their own request the Ministry of Justice registers solicitors and subjects providing psychological and social counselling that own a licence to provide social counselling and social prevention services as defined in Act No. 108/2006 Coll. on Social Services (see above). Subjects accredited by the Ministry of Justice of the Czech Republic to provide legal information or restorative programmes are included in the register based on their accreditation (see above). The register is an up-to-date list of subjects providing help to victims of crime, types of services and catchment areas. The register serves as a source of information about services available to the victims and all subjects that have the obligation to inform the victims about the subjects (such as the police). The register consists of several individual parts differing by content and contains:

- a) Subjects defined in Section 39, paragraph 2 entered into the register on their own request;
- b) Accredited subjects as defined in Section 39, paragraph 1;
- c) Solicitors registered on their own request as per section 47;

d) Centres of probation and mediation services.

As of 1st September 2016 there were 35 registered subjects providing social services to victims of crime and 26 accredited subjects. According to the register there are 184 solicitors offering their help to victims of crimes. Help is provided by 77 centres of Probation and Mediation services of the Czech Republic. (*Register of Providers Providing Help to Victims of Crime*, www.portal.justice.cz). That means that social workers, special needs professionals and other professionals specialized in helping victims of crime work in 138 various organizations. To be able to carry out their work these professionals should meet the basic criteria and possess the key competences as defined in the following section of the text.

The role of social workers for child victims of crimes

A situation when a child becomes a victim of a crime can be defined as follows: the offender comes from the family or is responsible for bringing up the child or is related to the child in another way. In this case we talk about a syndrome of maltreated, abused and neglected child. In the second case the child does not know the offender and becomes a victim of an accidental act. A special situation occurs when the child becomes a direct or indirect witness of domestic violence.

When acting against the interest of a underage child the actor commits a criminal act that can fulfil the subject matter of several criminal acts, especially the act of maltreatment of a child in care, sexual abuse, bodily harm, rape, child neglect, endangering the moral development of a child, manslaughter, abandoning a child, procuring, seduction to sexual act, kidnapping and human trafficking. In case the act of the criminally liable person constituted a crime, the child affected by the crime has a status of a victim in the running criminal procedure as he/she was harmed by this act or suffered a moral or other damage. To protect underage children under the age of 15 during interrogation concerning events that could bring back memories and given the child's age might negatively affect their mental and moral development, it is necessary to reflect the development and psychological characteristics of a child personality (Špeciánová 2005).

The restorative approach of justice considers a crime to be a harm caused to people and their relationship. Primary victims are people directly affected by the crime, but family members of primary victims and the offender, witnesses and members of the community are also considered victims. Restoration of the crime consequences should above all represent a reaction to the needs and harms of the victim. The role of the state is to use appropriate programs to create opportunities for all sides (victim, offender, community) to be able to discuss together the causes of the crime

and ways to restore its consequences while respecting to the needs of the victim (Matoušek et al. 2014).

In 2013 Act No 45/2013 Coll. on Victims of Crimes and Amendments of certain other acts. This act regulates the non-procedural rights of the victims so that they are not scattered among several regulations. The Act on Victims of Crime (Act No. 45/2013 Coll., <http://www.zakonyprolidi.cz>) should improve the rights of the victims, mainly to be treated with respect to their personality, with sensibility and respect to the current circumstances and in a way that will not cause any further harm. The main aim is to make help accessible (not only legal) to victims of crime in cases they need it and free of charge when necessary. It is important to reduce the risks of secondary victimization and provide the victims with information about their rights and their case during the proceedings. During the proceedings every victim has a chance to express his or her opinion on how the crime has affected their life. This approach is important for social workers who can work with victims of a crime during the preliminary procedure, i.e. during the crime investigation as well as during the trial and the follow-up phase of the victim's adaptation to normal life without the burden of the criminal act.

The main role in helping child victims of acts of indecency and violent crimes is played by the authorities responsible for Social and Legal Protection of Children. The network of bodies responsible for social and legal protection of children consists of regional authorities and regions, municipalities with extend powers, local authorities and municipalities, Office for International Legal protection of children and natural and legal persons delegated to execute the social and legal protection. Social and legal protection of children is defined by Act No. 359/1999 Coll. The main areas of social and legal protection of children are prevention of negative development of a child, measures to protect children in a crisis situation, arranging adoption and foster care, watching the development of children living in substitute family care or in institutional care and last, but not least protection of children against pathological phenomena. This Act significantly supports cooperation between other institutions as described below. (Act No. 359/1999 Coll.)

Institutional care for a child victim of a crime should be the last measure used. The above described story happened in times when there were no other options than placing a child into institutional care. Since then the possibilities of help to child victims of serious crimes have extended.

One of them is placing a child victim of an act of indecency or violent crime into a *facility for children requiring immediate help* which are a type of institutional care. These facilities offer the possibility to quickly place a child in a crisis into care. Another option is *temporary foster care*, i.e. a form of foster care in which the child is placed only for a limited time period.

Non-institutional forms of help available to children are *centres of crisis intervention*, that can follow early help of intervenors at the crime scene. Help similar to crisis intervention might be acute trauma therapy or common psychotherapeutic help.

One of so far the least widespread options is providing *social activating services for families with children* (see Act No.108/2006 Coll.), which is a social service regarded as *family rehabilitation*. This type of social service is usually provided by non-government organizations mostly in cooperation with authorities of social and legal protection. Rehabilitation of a family can also be done by a special worker of the Department of Social and Legal Protection of Children, i.e. field worker. Matoušek (2003) defines family rehabilitation as such support of a family where the steps in supporting the functioning of a family are the opposite to steps that exclude one of the family members because he or she endangers someone or is endangered himself/herself. In this context we can talk about the needs of an endangered child. Bechyňová and Konvičková (2008) understand family rehabilitation as a set of measures within social and legal protection, social services and other measures that are provided to or imposed on the parents and/or the child whose social, biological and psychological development is in danger. As a result of unresolved or endangering situation the child might be placed into care. The basic principal of family rehabilitation is supporting the child by helping his/her family.

Key competences of social workers necessary to work with victims of crimes

Professional literature talks about the term key competences. A group of experts specializing in one of the strategic objectives of the Lisbon process of the European Committee recommended implicit use of the term key competences that would denote a set of knowledge, skills and approaches (Bartoňková 2009). There is, however, no universally valid definition of this term. Despite the different concept and interpretation, it seems that most of the experts agree that a competence that is called “key” competence, must be necessary and beneficial to each individual and society. Workers need to have the possibility to continuously update their skills and knowledge, keep up with the latest development and be in accordance with ethical, economic and cultural values and habits of their society. Development of key competences is connected with company education and generally with further and lifelong education.

In this paper we will use the model of competencies by Ital and Knöfel (in Veteška 2008), who divide the basic competences as follows:

- social competences

- personal competences
- professional competences

Competences can be developed and trained. Each individual has a different level of competences from “strong” to “weak”. According to Veteška (2008) our personal type and temperament are our unique characteristics. To a certain level we can consciously influence our skills, motives, values and unintentional behaviour. Both theoretical and practical knowledge as well as professional and methodical knowledge, procedures to resolve problems and communication are those that can be developed most easily.

In the practical part of this paper we will work with the above mentioned classification of key competences of social workers and also evaluate which competences are needed in order to be able to work with especially vulnerable victims - children victims of sexually motivated cyberviolence.

Prevention of secondary victimization as professional competence of social workers

An example of social work activities can be prevention of secondary victimization in especially vulnerable victims, such as children. Ability to prevent secondary victimization should be one of the competences of social workers specializing in criminal justice.

The term victimization originates in the Latin word *victima* (victim). *Victimization* denotes a process in which an individual becomes a victim of a crime and this crime causes him harm and injuries. We can say that in this process the potential victim becomes a real victim. Commonly we talk about 2 phases of victimization: primary victimization and secondary victimization (Čírtková, Vitoušová, 2007). According to Dignan (2004) victimization is a complicated process that consists of several phases. First phase (also called „*primary victimization*“) includes all interactions between the offender and the victim at the time of committing the crime and the effect that such interaction or the crime itself have on the victim. The next phase consists of the reaction of the victim on the crime including all the changes in the victim’s perceiving of himself/herself, consequences of this and searching for answers to the question how the victim could change the behaviour of the offender. The victim’s dealing with the crime and deciding on further action can belong to primary harm (primary victimization). In the third phase the victim is involved in actions of other institutions (including prosecuting authorities) as a consequence of becoming a victim of a crime. If these interactions have a negative effect on the victim, we talk about *secondary victimization*.

Secondary victimization appears if the victim suffers further harm in connection with the crime. According to Gřivna (2014) secondary victimization can have the following sources:

- a) the offender (threatens the victims in order not to reveal the crime);
- b) social environment (e.g. tabloid press publishing details of the victim's rape, parents accusing the abused child from carelessness);
- c) prosecuting authorities (e.g. sexually abused child is repeatedly and insensibly questioned as a witness).

In a simplified view typical sources of secondary victimizations are: prosecuting authorities, media and people in the victim's environment (Čírtková, Vitoušová 2007).

Secondary harm can in some cases even exceed the primary harm. There have even been cases of rape victims' suicides committed after their family turned away from them or after their case became inappropriately published in media. As a consequence of secondary victimization the victim can also lose job due to permanent disability caused by the violent crime, suffer destruction of the family and loss of social status of the family members when sexual abuse of a child is revealed or the case is inappropriately published in the media etc. (Kuchta, Válková et al. 2005).

Secondary victimization is not necessary. Contact with police, court or forensic experts is always very stressful for the victim. The victim of the crime has to recall emotional events connected with the crime, describe them all in detail and answer uncomfortable questions. This natural and necessary stress is, however, not considered part of secondary victimization. We only talk about secondary victimization when the processes of criminal proceedings and related events cause further and unnecessary harm to the victim. We can talk about procedural unfairness (Čírtková, Vitoušová 2007).

Individuals most endangered by secondary victimization are victims of violent crimes, humiliating acts or crimes with sexual motives. Victims that do not understand the processes of criminal proceedings are a special category of victims. This can cause lower psychological resistance or other ongoing psychological issues. These victims are most commonly children, elderly people, individuals with mental disability, dementia and psychologically unstable people (Květenská 2012).

The question is how to prevent secondary victimization. Čírtková and Vitoušová (2007) define main frustration of needs that can cause secondary victimization. These are:

- need of information,
- need of security,
- need of confidence,
- need of respect.

During the investigation the victim is confronted with a number of additional questions. Usually it is sufficient to explain to the victim the process of the interrogation and assure him or her that additional questions are not a sign of distrust but are necessary to obtain important details. If the crime changes the everyday life of the victim, the victim expects information that often exceed the context of the criminal proceedings (issues related to lower income, high healthcare costs etc.). If the victim does not obtain satisfying information, he or she might feel humiliated. The victim feels as if being simply a source of evidence and not a living human being in a difficult life situation. Police officers should therefore sufficiently and comprehensively inform the victim about things the victim has right to and refer the victim to other places where he or she can get the information. In some countries police officers are obliged by legal regulations to provide information and inform about places where the victim can receive help (France, England, Slovakia). Victims of violent crimes, but also victims of robberies often suffer from disorders related to the feeling of security. Everything that reminds crime can raise concerns. This needs to be kept in mind during contact with the victim and it is necessary to be sensitive when clarifying details. (ibid)

Minimizing the impact of secondary victimization is one of the competences required in all professionals from the network of services provided to victims of sexually motivated cyberviolence. Social workers have the most possibilities to minimize these risks. The below part of this paper evaluates in which phases of the criminal procedures the help of the social worker is needed and what competences the social worker should use.

Multidisciplinary cooperation as social competence of social workers

One of the jobs of a social worker is to create a network of social services and other support provided to the client - in our case a child victim of an act of indecency committed in the cyberspace. Let us define basic elements of this cooperation and its meaning. The term *multidisciplinary* stands for something relating to more specializations and areas. The term *interdisciplinary* is also used and is interchangeable with multidisciplinary. While the English speaking literature uses the term multidisciplinary, in the Czech Republic the term interdisciplinary was used in the developing profession of social work and other helping professions. For the purposes of this paper we will use the term multidisciplinary. Various forms of multidisciplinary cooperation are applied in these areas: mental health care and psychiatric care, hospice care, domestic violence cases, elderly people care, work with youth at risk etc. The trend

to develop multidisciplinary cooperation can be especially seen in work with youth at risk in the recent years.

The terms *team work* and *multidisciplinary cooperation* have been recently often mentioned in connection with modern social work. Multidisciplinary team is based on the idea of cooperation of specialist and coordination of steps. It does not represent a hierarchical system and representatives of each individual profession enrich the team with specific skills and cooperate with other institutions and individuals that form part of the clients social network (Matoušek et al. 2005). In real situations the need of multidisciplinary cooperation proved to be especially important in cases which needed to be dealt with by more subjects at once (e.g. Authority for Social and Legal Protection of Children, special day care centres, school, low-threshold centres for children and youth). This need gave base to the development of various forms of multidisciplinary cooperation: case management or case conference in work with youth at risk. This work relates to children as victims of crimes.

Multidisciplinary cooperation in the field of work with youth at risk is in professional literature presented under various forms of cooperation, such as case management, case conference, teams for youth, systems of early intervention. In real situations these forms have a common denominator: *cooperation with the aim to help the client*. The most important method of social work is case work with a client.

One of such forms of team cooperation with the aim to help the client – a child at risk – is *case management*. The Czech translation of this term – *případové vedení* – is not used although it quite well expresses the essence of this form of work with a client. In real situations we can come across so called *case conferences*, which are basically an identical form of cooperation. Matoušek (2003) characterises *case conferences* as counselling consisting of discussion about the case and attended by family members and possibly other people in close relationship to the victim as well as representatives of institutions involved in the client's case.

Konvičková and Bechyňová (2008) describe case conferences in more detail. They define case conferences as planned and coordinated multidisciplinary meeting of experts who work with the child at risk on a daily basis. Multidisciplinary team of expert is a support network for the family. According to the same authors (ibid) the team most often consists of: a worker of a body of a social and legal protection of children, a worker of a citizen's association involved in rehabilitation of the family, the child's year teacher or counsellor, a worker of special needs centre, doctor or nurse etc. A case conference or its part can be attended by the child and parents as well.

The goal of the case conference is to:

- Objectively evaluate the situation from different points of view of members of the multidisciplinary team;
- Set up the goal of the rehabilitation and its case re-evaluation;
- Set up interim goals and realistic steps in a given time period;
- Set up responsibilities of each involved subject;
- Coordinate the multidisciplinary work with the family;
- Eliminate uncoordinated work with the family; it often happens that each institutions aims to reach a different goal in the work with the family and their recommendations can be contradictory;
- Set up rules for evaluation (Bechyňová, Konvičková 2008).

Matoušek and Palzarová (2010) in their paper focus on planning using case conferences and describe concrete steps towards the planning, course of action and creating individual plan of help for the family.

According to *Methodology recommendation of Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (Methodology recommendation of MLSA No. 2/2011..., www.mpsv.cz)* the case conference can be attended by all those that by law have the right or obligation to act in the interest of protection of the child. Participants of a case conference:

- a) Always a representative of a body of social and legal protection of children (most often a local authority or municipalities with extend powers) that is also usually the organizer of the case conference;
- b) Based on the needs of the case the following subjects can also participate: school or other educational facility, doctor or a representative of a health care facility or other facility for children (home for disabled, facility for children requiring immediate help), judge, police, public prosecutor, representatives of probation and mediation services, non-government organizations providing social activating services to families with children and other experts (psychologist, mediator etc.);
- c) The child and his/her parents or other carers responsible for the care of the child and other members of the family or the child's relatives. Neither the child nor the parents have to be present at all the parts of the case conference.

The recommended number of participants of a case conference is a maximum of 10 to 15 people. The above mentioned Methodological recommendation of MLSA generally focuses on the preparation of the conferences, but it also recommends the form of the outcome.

The leading and managing part of the multidisciplinary teams for children (here individuals under the age of 18) should be workers of *a body of social and legal protection* (further referred to as SPO). *Social and legal protection of children* was defined by *Act No. 359/1999 Coll.*. The main areas of social and legal protection of children are prevention of negative development of a child, measures to protect children in a crisis situation, arranging adoption and foster care, watching the development of children living in substitute family care or in institutional care and last, but not least protection of children against pathological phenomena. This Act significantly supports cooperation between other institutions. According to the Act on Social and Legal Protection of Children, municipalities with extended powers are obliged to establish a special body - *Committee for Social and Legal Protection of Children* consisting of members of the local governments involved in social and legal protection of children, especially education experts, psychologists, health care workers, citizens' association, church and other legal or natural persons. (*Act No. 359/1999 Coll.*) This committee is a type of a multidisciplinary team. Case conferences in such cases, however, require higher effort from all the involved experts and concrete tasks for each of them.

Important members of multidisciplinary teams are representatives of *prosecuting authorities*. These are police, public prosecutor and courts. Another participant of the multidisciplinary cooperation can be a worker of *probation and mediation services*. Providers of these services do not work just with the offender, but also with the victims. A significant role of a partner subject involved in work with youth at risk is played by *non-government non-profit organizations*. Specific social services working with children and youth provided by non-government non-profit organizations are for example *streetwork, low-threshold facilities for children and youth, volunteer projects and halfway houses*. *Social counselling* is a type of a social service that has to be provided by municipalities and other state institutions. On basic or expert level social counselling can also be provided by non-government non-profit organizations.

Forensic social work

In relation to legal areas of social work, foreign sources also mention *forensic social work*. A synonym for the (English) term *forensic* is judicial or criminalistics social work. According to the definition of *National Organization of Social Work* operating in the USA and Canada, forensic social work means applying social work on issues concerning law and legal systems. Broader definition includes any social work relating to legal issues and disputes, both criminal and civic ones. It covers problems in childcare, problems caused by divorce, negligence, termination of parental rights, impacts of abuse, probation and mediation issues concerning youth and adults,

correctional options and integration into society. All these fall under this definition. (*Forensic social work*, www.nofsw.org)

Forensic social work has several functions. *National Organisation of Forensic Social Work* (www.nofsw.org) states the following areas of activities of forensic social work:

Providing counselling, education and trainings:

- Criminal justice, juvenile justice, correctional system;
- Law-making;
- Personal law enforcement and self-defence;
- Solicitors and students of law;
- Public.

Diagnosis, treatment and advise:

- Diagnosis, assessment of situation, work related to juvenile justice;
- Diagnosis, treatment and advice regarding mental state, child's interest and inability to testify;
- Verifying, evaluating or compiling reports as part of the criminal proceedings.

Other functions of forensic social work can be:

- Creating strategies and programmes;
- Mediation, advocacy, arbitration proceedings;
- Education, trainings, supervision;
- Behavioural scientific researches and analysis.

Forensic social work focuses on judicial activities only within the scope of its expertise and activities. Forensic work is not yet established in Czech professional literature. This area is still awaiting the definition of its objectives and primary areas of interest of this applied science.

Methods

This part defines the main question of the research of this paper. It will also define methods of finding the answer to the research question. We will use and evaluate case interpretation and use it to describe the results leading to the answer to the set objective.

Research question

The above text indicates that the target group of social work as a profession is, among others, victims of crimes and endangered children. A special target group is a mix of these to, i.e. children victims of sexually motivated cyberviolence. The main aim of this paper is to determine the role of a social worker specialized in helping children endangered by crimes committed on them via social networks.

Interim goal (IG 1) is to use selected case interpretation to determine in which phases of the criminal proceedings the social worker should cooperate with the victim of an act of indecency committed via a social network and what form this work should have. Individual forms of work will be evaluated from the point of view of key competences defined above (professional, personal and social).

Methods

The method used for the research is case interpretation. Case interpretation is the most popular form of qualitative research. It includes a detailed description of the person in question and the characteristic being described. It is mostly used in description of unusual phenomena.

The case for interpretation was selected from real work experience of one of the authors of this paper. This case interpretation illustrates the course of investigation of a crime and the impact of this investigation on the life of the child victim of a crime committed via a social network.

Case interpretation

A thirteen-year-old Aneta used the internet to messages with friends. She felt lonely because her parents were going through a divorce. She was approached by a seventeen-year-old Lukáš who wrote her very nice messages, was kind and Aneta had a feeling that they understand each other very well. He asked Aneta for a photo and she sent it to him. He wrote her that he likes her and also sent a photo of himself. She liked him as well. They wrote to each other every day and slowly Lukáš was gaining Aneta's trust. It went on for about a month. The Lukáš asked Aneta for a more "intimate" photo. He wanted a picture of Aneta in underwear. She hesitated. Lukáš wrote that he likes her a lot and has fallen in love with her. He pushed on her claiming that she does not have to worry because he will delete the picture immediately. Even though they have never met and Aneta had only the information that he gave her, she had a feeling that she has a boyfriend and should send him a photo to win his favour and "keep" him. She sent him one picture of herself in underwear. He started writing about her beauty and that he would like to see her breast. She found his flattering very nice and sent him a photo of her naked breast where her face

could also be seen. He was her first boyfriend after all. After that, however, Lukáš wanted to see more photos. In spite of his affectionate insisting she refused. Lukáš's messages immediately changed their character. He started to threaten her and blackmail her claiming that if she does not send more photos of more intimate character, he will show the photo with her naked breast to her parents and classmates. She sent a few more intimate photos as instructed by Lukáš. Then she stopped contacting him and waited for him to carry out his threats. She started to have sleeping problems, her school results got worse and she did not communicate with her friends. She did not confide to anyone. Her parents did not notice too many changes and if they did they believed it was because of the divorce.

When Aneta was seventeen, she was contacted by detectives investigating a case of a twenty-one-year old Lukáš N. who, under fake identity, contacted underage girls via social networks to obtain their intimate pictures, firstly with their agreement and later under threats. Aneta was questioned twice in this matter and had to identify the photos of herself that she sent to Lukáš. The detectives had to inform her parents that she became a victim of a crime and explain them the facts. This was terrifying for Aneta - she was scared of their reaction when they find out. All her bad feelings returned along with psychological problems and depressions. As there was an unusually high number of victims - about eighty - the investigation took about six months. Most of the girls were underage or they became victims in the past when they were still children (before the age of 18).

Another mental strain was the trial. Aneta had to testify in front of the court. The process was very attractive for the media. Aneta was afraid of the reaction of people around her, her friends and relatives if they find out that she was also a victim of this crime. Her psychological problems remained.

Evaluation

Based on the evaluation of the above described case interpretation we can say that in the first phase, when the child is in danger of becoming a victim of sexually motivated cybercrime, the role of the social worker is preventive. In this phase, when the crime has not yet happened, but the social worker encounters a child that communicates via social networks in a dangerous way, the social worker should be able to identify whether the child is in danger of becoming a victim of a sexually motivated crime on a social network or in cyberspace. The endangered child should be provided a basic professional counselling focused on evaluation of the situation and identifying further steps. Social workers should have basic knowledge of crisis intervention and thus be able to provide situational intervention, i.e. intervention at the moment when the child confides her

problem. These are professional competences. Personal competences include the ability to meet the civic duty and report the crime to prosecution authorities.

The second phase of the social worker's involvement in work with the victim of crime relates to the beginning of the investigation, i.e. to the preliminary procedure that precedes the trial. In this phase the police secure the evidence, questions the witnesses and victims. The role of a social worker offers the following possibilities. It is important to work with the victim's family and use situational intervention, basic counselling or professional counselling. The social worker can guide the victim through the criminal proceedings as a confidant or representative of the victim that can propose further evidence in the criminal proceedings. A significant role that the social worker should play is the competence of involving other helping institutions that the victim needs in order to deal with the crime (psychotherapist, psychiatrist, child counsellor etc.) in the "endangered child's network". The key social worker is the coordinator of this cooperation. This competence can be considered a social competence of the social worker. Other competences are mainly professional, except the competence of a confidant, which is a personal competence.

In the third phase the social worker guides the victim through the criminal proceedings, after the police closed the main investigation, the public prosecutor has filed a charge and the judge uses the evidence gathered during the investigation as well as during the trial to decide about the guilt and eventually about the sentence. In this phase the social worker's competences from the previous phase are very important.

The fourth phase when the victim needs help and support of a competent social worker starts after the trial is closed. In this phase the victim adapts to normal life unaffected by the crime. Social worker should be able to support the victim as well as his/her indirectly affected family, which is a social competence. In case further support is needed, the social worker should cooperate with other professions. In many cases the victim no longer needs further help in form of multidisciplinary cooperation. This phase is based on minimizing the impacts of the crime on the victim's life. The social worker's competences belong to the category of professional, personal and social competences. For the social worker this phase means end of work with the victim.

Results

The phases in which a social worker can get involved in work with a child victim of an act of indecency committed via a social network can be in a simplified way summarized as follows:

- 1) phase - prevention of victimization
 - Identification of a child endangered by cybercrime
 - Basic counselling

- Professional counselling
- Situational crisis intervention
- Reporting a crime

2) phase - preliminary proceedings - police investigation

- Work with the child victim's family
- Situational crisis intervention
- Basic counselling
- Professional counselling
- The role of a confidant
- The role of a representative
- Cooperation with the child's network of support - multidisciplinary cooperation - SC

3) Phase - trial

- Work with the child victim's family
- Situational crisis intervention
- Basic counselling
- Professional counselling
- The role of a confidant
- The role of a representative
- Cooperation with the child's network of support - multidisciplinary cooperation - SC

4) Phase - adaptation to normal life unaffected by the crime

- Work with the child victim's family - SC
- Cooperation with the child's network of support - multidisciplinary cooperation - SC
- Minimization of impacts of the crime - SC, PeC, PrC

Table 1 Competences of a social worker cooperating with a child victim of an act of indecency committed via a social network can be summarized in table - see table 1.

Form of social work	competence		
	professional	social	personal

1	Identification of a child endangered by cybercrime	+		
2	Basic counselling	+		
3	Professional counselling	+		
4	Situational crisis intervention	+		
5	Reporting a crime			+
6	Work with the child victim's family	+	+	
7	The role of a confidant			+
8	The role of a representative	+		
9	Cooperation with the child's network of support		+	
10	Minimization of the impacts of the crime	+	+	+

Source: own evaluation

Discussion

Four phases of a social worker's work with a child victim of an act of indecency committed via a social network were identified based on the case interpretation. The first phase is prevention of victimization. The social worker should prevent the child from risks related to dangerous communication the child uses in cyberspace. In the second phase the social workers guide the child victim through the preliminary procedure, the third phase includes the start of the trial. Fourth and last phase of cooperation between the social worker and a child victim of an act of indecency committed in cyberspace can be also called a phase of adaptation to normal life unaffected by the crime.

In the evaluation summary of forms of social work with child victims of act of indecency committed in cyberspace, the predominant competences seem to be the professional ones as compared with social and personal ones. The conclusion of the above stated evaluation is that 8 out of 10 forms of social work identified above can be matched with professional key competences. Social and personal competences represent equally 3 of the above identified forms of social work. Out of these only one represents social competence and one form of social work represents personal competence. Forms of social work were matched using own judgement of the authors.

Conclusion

The evaluation indicates that in work with child victims of crimes committed in cyberspace the need of professional competences prevails. These competences can be gained through

education of social workers in the area of criminal law and other sciences related to criminal procedures and through social work with victims of crimes, as mentioned above.

This does not mean though, that personal and social competences of social workers are less important for this job. These are, however, competences partly determined by the personality of the social worker and can be widened and strengthened using special exercises for these professionals.

In what phase the social workers is invited to cooperate with the victim of a crime depends in the first phase on the potential victim and in the other phases this cooperation is in case of child victim required by prosecuting authorities or authorities of social and legal protection of children.

For these reasons it is necessary that competent professionals with deep social and personal competences are available to child victims of an act of indecency committed via a social network and that the social worker's competences correspond with the target group and education known as specialization in the field of forensic social work.

Peter Papšo

Family mediation in Slovakia

ABSTRACT

Chapter deals with family mediation and its implementation in the Slovak Republic. The introduction focuses on the basic definition of mediation, its legislative background, description forms of mediation and seeks its strong and weak points. Then it describes the actual mediation process in its various stages. The next subsection is devoted to the specifics of mediation in social work, and flowing gently into the main sub-headings have focused specifically on family mediation.

KEY WORDS: mediation, family, divorce, social work, child.

1 Mediation

In order to talk about mediation, first we have to define it. At the beginning of this chapter we introduce the legislative background, discuss the process and forms of mediation, its advantages as well as drawbacks. We also explain the process of mediation and demonstrate the connection between mediation and social work. Conflicts and disputes are part of human life and society as a whole. It is impossible to avoid them in public or private life. Therefore, it is necessary to learn how to live with them and, more important, how to resolve them. Our inability to solve disputes adequately can result in numerous negative situations, unhappiness, human pain or even hatred. Currently, there are a number of possibilities for dispute resolution and the choice is only a matter of decision. Mediation is a new form of alternative dispute resolution, which aims to resolve conflicts quickly, objectively and constructively. It can be characterized in number of ways. Probably the simplest perception is to understand it as a dispute resolution with the assistance of a third, impartial person, i.e. the mediator. Legally, it is most frequently presented as an extrajudicial act, in which participants resolve disputes arising from their contracts or other legal relations.

Mediation as a process of dispute resolution is described in detail in the Act No. 420/2004 Coll. On Mediation in the legislation of the Slovak Republic, most recently amended in the Act No. 390/2015, which amends and modifies the Act No. 420/2004 Coll. On Mediation as amended. Mediation as a method focuses on dispute resolution, in which a qualified and neutral person helps participants in the conflict with their mutual communication. It aims to achieve participants' satisfaction with the procedure as well as with the solution itself. (Holá 2003).

Mediation can be also understood as a voluntary, confidential and extrajudicial dispute resolution with the assistance of a mediator. The mediator helps both parties to find ways and possibilities to resolve their conflict. Mediation therefore aims to make an agreement, which would be agreeable to both parties involved in the dispute. The fact that mediation is also applied in social work must not be overlooked. In this respect it is currently seen as a new and modern method used in work with clients. However, this perception of mediation is to be discussed later.

1. 1 Legislative background of mediation

The aim of including mediation directly into the legal code of the Slovak Republic resulted in the adoption of Act No. 420/2004 Coll. On Mediation. The main purpose was to make the administration of justice more accessible for all citizens of Slovak Republic, as it is their basic

right. Mediation thus became an organic part of politics focused on improving justice accessibility. The need for the inclusion arises from an environment where the number of legal actions is on the increase, legal proceedings are protracted and the legislation is often complicated and extensive.

<http://www.amssk.sk/?s=ako+vznikol+z%C3%A1kon&submit=H%C4%BEda%C5%A5>

As it has been mentioned before, mediation was included in the laws of the Slovak Republic in Act No. 420/2004 Coll. On Mediation in the legislation of the Slovak Republic, which became effective came into force in September 1st, 2004. It is a short act regulating the process of mediation, its principles, organization and effects. The act refers to disputes, which result from civil and family law relations as well as commercial commitments and labour relations. This law was amended in 2010 with the effect from July 1st, and the most recently by the Act No. 390/2015. The main purpose of the amendment was to make alternative dispute resolutions more accessible. It also aimed to remove periods of limitation (an amendment from 2010). Thus, in case of an unsuccessful mediation, it would still be possible for both parties to begin legal proceedings at a court. According to this act, a mediator is “every natural person, registered in the register of mediators, on whom parties involved in mediation agree and who concludes an agreement on commencement of mediation with all participants” (The Act No. 420/2004 Coll. On Mediation). The given law also defines a mediator’s actions as business activities. It means that a mediator is rewarded for services provided. According to the act, public notaries are also authorized to practise mediation among other activities. Professional training for future mediators may be provided by an educational institution accredited by the Ministry of Justice of Slovak Republic and enlisted in the register of educational institutions. Such professional training must be of at least 100 hours to be accredited (The Act No. 420/2004 Coll. On Mediation).

In terms of social work mediation is most frequently used when working with families, within the frame of the Act No. 305/2005 Coll. On Social and Legal Protection of Children and Social Guardianship. As it states “if the body of social and legal protection of children and social guardianship implements its measures and reveals that a child, parent or a person, who personally takes care of a child need help, because they are not able to resolve family conflicts and problems or they are unable to cope with a new situation in the family, mediation is suggested as a professional method to relieve conflict situations in the family.” (§11) This concerns mediation in social work with families. The same article further states, that “for the purpose of this law, mediation is not an extrajudicial action to resolve a dispute. Practising mediation or ensuing its practice for the purpose of social and legal protection of children and social guardianship does not limit the rights and duties of other subjects according to a special law.” (Act No. 305/2005 Coll. On Social and Legal Protection of Children and Social Guardianship.) Apart from the above

mentioned legislation, family mediation also uses other legal measures. Within the scope of resolving family cases the Act No. 36/2005 Coll. On Family and on amendments to certain laws is very important. Laws pertinent to the above mentioned are Civil Code, Act No. 40/1964 Coll. on amendments to certain laws and also the Act. No. 99/1963 Coll. On Civil Procedure Code as amended.

1.2 Forms of mediation

In principle, we distinguish three basic forms of mediation:

1. legal (by law, so-called compulsory) – legislation restricts some types of disputes to mediation, in order to provide easier, faster, more efficient or economic solution,
2. judicial – a judge suggests or orders mediation in order to investigate the dispute, and
3. voluntary - (according to the will of the parties involved) – parties voluntarily decide to resolve their dispute by mediation. They may demonstrate their decision in two ways:
 - by word
 - by stipulation (Holá 2011)

To resolve a dispute, mediation aims to create the most acceptable environment possible. Clients, i.e. participants in a conflict, voluntarily decide on the way they are going to resolve their dispute. Apart from the above formats, mediation also includes the following specific forms of problem solving:

Crisis mediation – a conflict which can result in destabilization, where mediation is therefore carried out in the shortest possible time. This type of mediation usually solves only the aspects of a conflict directly connected with the crisis.

Mediation without the presence of the parties - participants never come in contact with each other and the mediator works as an agent who meets both parties individually and mediates information on the progress and solutions. This form is applicable in case of deep emotional conflicts and is often used at the beginning of a family mediation process.

On-line mediation – unlike “classical” mediation, this type lacks personal communication and personal meetings between the parties involved in the dispute. This element is replaced by on-line methods such as teleconference, videoconference, chat, e-mail communication and so on. In the case of “personal mediation”, the mediator pays attention to mimicry, gesticulation and body language. This is not possible in on-line mediation and the mediator must focus on participants’ voices, tone and sound of the speech, or even on the text and wording in an e-mail. On-line mediation is therefore more demanding than its “classical” form.

Mediation on behalf of a participant – is used in cases when one (or both) parties are not able to attend sessions in person and they agree to be represented by other person – a representative. The representative must be sufficiently informed about the case, opinions, attitudes and interests of the party they represent. In practice, it is used in cases when a child is represented e.g. by a curator.

A specific form of mediation is a family group conference. It is mainly used in extrajudicial proceedings with young delinquents, in their presence. At first, the offender explains and describes

their doings, motivations and the course of the affair. Then, the victim may speak, but of course, only if they wish to. Other family members also express their opinions on the given case and particularly on the offender. In favourable circumstances the conference can result in a collective assurance, that the offender repairs the damage they caused (Holá, 2003). A family group conference is also a model of social work, which mobilizes distant family, tries to use its potential and strengthens mutual responsibility for resolving family problems. Social work proves the competence and natural right of distant family to be involved in a dispute resolution. Thus it tries to create a safe and mutually respectful environment, coordinates family members and prepares them to seek solutions to a child's problem. It helps them to make sensible decisions and create their own plan to sort out difficult situation.

1.3 Strong and weak points of mediation

Each method of dispute resolution has its strong and weak points. When compared with a legal proceeding, the greatest advantage of mediation is the fact that there is neither a victorious nor defeated party. The result of mediation should be an agreement, which satisfies both parties. So the result should always have the status winner – winner. If advantages of mediation were to be named, we could mention following ones:

- Low financial charges. The costs of mediation services are significantly lower in comparison with the cost of legal proceedings and legal services.
- Speed and flexibility of mediation. Compared with legal proceedings, which can take years, the length of a mediation process stretches to weeks or months in case of more difficult conflicts. In some cases, the agreement can be reached in a few days or even hours. Once both parties come to an agreement, the dispute can be resolved almost immediately.
- Voluntariness – is at the same time the main condition of mediation and accompanies the whole process, from the beginning to the signing of the mediation agreement. In case that one of the parties refuses to sign, mediation cannot be commenced. Voluntariness is obvious throughout the whole process, which can be ended in any of its phases.
- Confidentiality. Information obtained in the course of mediation is confidential; they cannot be published without the consent of both parties. The parties are not authorized to use confidential information obtained during mediation as evidence (Plamínek, 2013).
- Non-publicity. Unless both parties and mediator agree on different form of mediation, the session can be attended only by parties directly involved in the conflict. As compared to a legal proceeding, the process itself is very discreet and personal.

- Preservation of business reputation and credit. Mediation is a proceeding held “behind a closed door”. A public session, e.g. at the court, could result in the loss of reputation and credit, not only in the public eye, but also in respect to possible future business partners. It is not easy to build up a good reputation and its loss can cause more damage than the conflict itself.
- Creative solutions. The parties suggest possible solutions, which suit both of them and are not limited by legal aspects of the conflict.
- Milder psychological shock. Both parties have better chance to re-establish relations disturbed by the conflict easier and faster.
- The final mediation agreement does not pose a difficulty for “res judicata”. Res judicata (a matter already judged) is one of the legal obstacles to any legal proceeding. It forbids dealing with a lawfully resolved matter for a second time. In case of mediation it is possible to begin a legal proceeding even after reaching a successful mediation agreement and it is impossible to make an objection “res judicata”.

Literature usually mentions the advantages of mediation as a form of dispute resolution. However, like any other method it has its disadvantages or drawbacks, which can endanger the whole process. The main disadvantages are:

- Mediation agreements cannot be carried out directly. Before the agreement can be formalized, it must be drawn up in the form of a notary’s record or agreed as a consent decree at the court or other committee. Nonetheless, it is possible to sue on the obligations and duties resulting from such an agreement at the court in the same way as the obligations and duties arising from any other contract.
- The final mediation agreement does not pose an obstruction for “res judicata”. Although this point has been mentioned as an advantage of mediation, in some cases it may also be a disadvantage. Any party can additionally begin a legal proceeding despite the agreement.
- Voluntariness. Even this factor, firstly mentioned as an advantage of mediation, may have its dark side, because each of the parties can cease cooperation and end the process at any of its phases without giving any reason. It can be a one-sided decision, which does not need to be agreed by the other party involved, but can have a negative impact on them.
- Lack of information. The legal institution of mediation is still little known in the countries of Central Europe and its practical usage is “restricted” due to insufficient amount of information.

1.4 Stages of a mediation process

Just as each client is different, every mediation has its specific and peculiar features. Nonetheless, all mediators and their clients must follow a certain pattern, or structure. This structure is called a mediation process and comprises several stages. Some authors also include a zero phase or a zero stage of the process, which includes all actions taking place before the mediation itself. According to Potočková (2013), pre-mediation stage includes: assessment as to whether the dispute is appropriate for mediation, decision on starting the process of mediation, agreement on conditions, appointing a competent mediator, signing a mediation contract, preparation for mediation. Other stages follow as Holá (2003, 2011) describes them in detail.

Stage One – initiation of a mediation. The mediator begins with a brief introduction and emphasises the basic principles, the role of a mediator and voluntary involvement of both parties. The mediator then repeats the regulations of the process and/or, if necessary, creates new rules for the participants. The mediator informs both parties on the option of agreeing on individual sessions (e.g. especially in cases where both parties disturb rules of communication, do not speak openly in the presence of the other party or conceal facts because they are either ashamed or frightened).

Stage Two – gathering facts and information on the dispute. This stage is also called “an uninterrupted time” – both parties describe the conflict situation, how they see it from their point of view, without being interrupted. It is usually a part of the first session, when both parties can hear what the other party thinks and feels. They may or may not present evidence for their version of the conflict. Information can be brought by witnesses, legal representatives, teachers, and so on. If the parties cannot agree on who would speak first, a mediator can suggest a coin toss, which randomly determines turns. The mediator’s task in this stage is to make sure that the parties follow the rules of politeness and balance their speaking time. The mediator also listens to the parties and raises explicatory questions which help to gather as much useful information on the situation as possible. However, the aim is not to define the motive or the offender in the conflict, but to become familiar with the situation (Holá 2003).

Stage Three – focusing on the interests. In this stage, parties communicate together in order to abandon their original competitive positions and little by little discover mutual values, opinions and needs. The mediator’s task is to supervise the whole process, make sure that the parties follow the rules and to encourage communication among participants. The mediator uses methods such as paraphrasing, mirroring, reformulation, asking questions and concluding. At the end of this stage, the mediator and both parties define disputable points of the conflict.

Stage Four – seeking solutions and formulating suggestions. Based on the needs and interests they recognized before, the main aim in this stage is to find agreeable solutions to disputed points which would satisfy both parties. The main task of the mediator is to encourage the parties in a creative search. It is possible to use various methods of creative thinking, e.g. brainstorming, analysis of strong and weak points, development diagrams and so on. Parties start seeking solutions from the simplest disputed points and carry on to the more complex problems but do not evaluate suggestions during this phase. Once the searching is finished, the parties set criteria, according to which they evaluate all suggestions. The final agreement as well as each partial solution should satisfy interests of both parties. At the end of this stage, parties make a list of agreed solutions and create a so-called general agreement.

Stage Five – creating and drawing up a final agreement. The final agreement is based on the general agreement created in the previous stage. It does not have to be drawn up solely by the mediator. Parties may invite their own solicitors. The mediator must keep the agreement balanced, concrete, realistic, achievable and performable. The mediator also ascertains that the points of the agreement further implemented by the parties are measurable and terminable. However, the final agreement is not a legally binding decision and cannot be enforced directly. Nonetheless, it is possible to conclude an agreement in form of a notarial record, which makes it directly enforceable. Pursuant to the record, which is a legal document, it is possible to begin an execution proceeding, in case that parties do not follow any obligations arising from the agreement. Both parties may ask the court for the approval of the final agreement as a settlement in the case that mediation is carried out simultaneously during a legal proceeding or arbitration which has already been in progress.

Stage Six – Completing the mediation (conclusion). In the last stage the mediator summarizes the whole process, appreciates the result, efforts and willingness of both parties, sets conditions for the implementation of the final agreement and potential review (e.g. in the form of a meeting, where the mediator finds out how the agreement does or does not work and why) (Holá 2011).

1.5 Mediation and social work

As we have mentioned before, the relationship between mediation and social work will be discussed in detail in this chapter. There are several similarities between mediation and social work. Both fields use comparable methodology when working with a client and communication skills are equally important for both mediator and social worker. This chapter therefore not only mentions theoretical inputs, but also deals with the overlaps in both fields.

Mediation is one of the modern methods of social work. It is an approach or a form of working with clients which respects individuals, works with alternatives and creates future rules of proceedings. It is the client who forms the rules and suggestions, who is aware of the consequences and is able to implement them (Šišková 2012). Social workers should be equipped in “the art of mediation”, because above all, this process intermediates and intervenes among systems. The main task of social work is to help clients cope with their problems, reconcile or erase problems which can be sorted or regulated, and to improve the situation where the modification of the social environment is possible. One of the unifying factors of social work is therefore the ability to communicate. It is necessary for any practical work with the client (Holá 2003). Social workers in their work enable an individual, groups and communities to identify, eliminate, resolve or at least moderate personal or group social problems or negative environmental influences (Žilová 2000). Social work as an activity aspires to improve mutual conformity of individuals, groups and social environment, in which they live. It also helps to develop self-respect and responsibility by using one’s potential, skills, interpersonal relations and sources provided by the society (Tokárová 2003). Consequently, an interconnection with social work is mainly to be seen in using and including knowledge from this field into the process of mediation. The work of the mediator is related to individual (case) work. It is very specific work with an individual. In social practice, when a social diagnosis results from client’s disturbed relations toward themselves or disturbed outer relations towards social environment, a psychological approach is the most widely used. In the process of mediation, it is important to encourage the sense that the problem can be managed by its participants. There is an obvious effort to encourage clients and bring them some hope in respect of their abilities to resolve the dispute. Such help can be considered as a form of social aid and assistance (Oláh – Schavel – Ondrušová 2008). It is a demanding task to make communication easier, gather information, analyse them and mediate an agreement. As in many other methods of social work, active listening followed by diverting client’s attention from the complaint is very important in mediation. Knowing that mediation is confidential, the mediator creates an atmosphere of confidence for both parties. Trust, esteem and professionalism build a positive atmosphere which gives them an opportunity to make an agreement. The code of ethics in Article 1 paragraph 2 letter h) commits a social worker to the same goals. It states: “Social workers should respect clients privacy and confidentiality of information acquired in the course of their work.”(Kováč 2010). As in the field of social work, mediators in their practice should have knowledge of the society where they work; they must be familiar with legislation and the network of institutions providing social services and also professionally manage communication not only with an individual but also with a group. In

practice, there is a relationship between social work and mediation, whereas mediation is financially more feasible. In the case of a client, who is financially dependent on the state and therefore uses social work services, it is probable that legal charges would create a greater burden. For such people mediators often provide services pro bono.

In the scope of family social work the connection with mediation is mainly seen in cases of divorcing couples, because the function of a social curator is mainly carried out by social workers. The difference between a social curator and a mediator dealing with a divorce is not significant. Of course, this is not to say, that a mediator should substitute the role of a social curator. We only point at the similarity between these professions. In the conversations with a juvenile, both professionals have to learn about their needs, interests and, most important, who they would like to live with after the divorce, or whether or not a joint custody would be an appropriate option for the child. During family social work, mediation could also be suggested to divorcing couples as a problem solving method, because compared with legal proceedings, it uses the methods and techniques of social work.

The most important connection between mediation and social work is to be seen in using identical methods and techniques while working with a client. The main methods for both professions are conversation and communication techniques. A mediator and a social worker must both be able to assess client's verbal and non-verbal communication.

1.6 Family mediation

Sooner or later, various critical situations can occur in any family. How the family members cope with such a crisis is only a question of their competence. If they are able to resolve difficult situations or conflicts, it may often bring the family closer together. In case that a family is not ready to solve such situations, they seek the help of legal institutions or a mediator. (Kováč 2011) Mediation as an alternative dispute resolution gives parents an ideal opportunity to find a decent, constructive and discreet solution which would suit both parties and respect their children. It also gives them an opportunity to clear many of the previously unsolved matters, to teach them how to communicate, to respect and listen to each other. It helps them realize their mutual responsibility for the divorce and the solution they decide. It shows them how to undertake and share responsibility for their children's upbringing and future. A mediation agreement is the result of cooperation among parties previously involved in conflict. Going through the mediation and drawing up an agreement is the first step and prerequisite towards reconciliation. It eliminates conflicts, corrects communication and creates a new scope for cooperation.

There are many reasons to meet a mediator. However, according to mediators themselves, the most appropriate time to do it is when a family is being helped by social and legal protection of children and social guardianship, or when one of the partners files the divorce petition and asks the court to regulate rights and responsibilities toward the under-aged children. (www.fcm.sk)

1. 6. 1 Specifications of family mediation

The fact that parties involved in a dispute are related not only legally, but also has a private and very intimate relationship, makes family mediation specific. It is necessary to realize, that family mediation can be implemented not only in case of a divorce or separation of a partnership, but also as a resolution for all disputes and conflicts occurring after the divorce. Those may arise from parental rights amendment and enforcement, entrustment of an under-aged child to a personal care of a parent followed by a community property settlement and many others.

A mediation during and after a divorce is a part of a wider family mediation focused on resolving disputes arising from relationships among parents, their grown-up children, among siblings or within the scope of distant family. The process leading to the divorce is often very closely related to wider family relationships which can cause various disputes. Before agreement can be achieved, it is necessary to resolve them. Regarding their duration, the character of such disputes supports mediation as a simpler and more gentle option than traditional authoritative ways of resolution. The core of mediation is often to discover that most divorcing partners wish to remain good parents. Step by step, the conflicting part of the relationship can be separated from the parental one. (Holá 2011) Family mediation is one of the most widespread types of this process. Looking at different approaches, we distinguish family and divorce mediation. Family mediation resolves disputes arising from coexistence with other family members. Divorce mediation sorts out conflicts within a divorce proceeding. In most cases it is concerned with the entrustment of a child to parental custody and with property division (Holá 2003). In practice and theory, the term family mediation is used chiefly because when parents are to decide on the upbringing and support of under-age children after the separation, it is not important whether or not they had a contractual marriage. Mediation can deal with everything related to a partnership breaking-up. That is another reason, why the term family mediation is more appropriate than the divorce mediation. The latter is perceived as a part of family mediation which aims to preserve the best possible relationship among partners and thus support the functionality of the family in the future (Casals 2005). The basic principle of family mediation is parental cooperation with a mediator and their aim to find the most convenient family arrangement. The parents with the help of a mediator make it clear how they feel about their children's and their own needs. They also acquire knowledge of legal

matters and become familiar with them. The negative emotional experience with conflicts between partners is often so deep, that in the initial phases of the process they do not come into direct contact with each other. Family mediation always borders with family consulting services and psychotherapy (Holá 2003).

1. 6. 2 Advantages and restriction of mediation in family disputes

For most families, mediation represents the best option in resolving difficult problems related to a divorce. In case of a dispute solved by legal action, feelings of hostility and mistrust accumulate among parents. As mentioned, apart from emotional benefits for parents and the children, mediation is less expensive than a legal dispute. Agreements concluded with the help of a mediator are usually more flexible than legal decisions, because they can be altered after a mutual agreement and it is not necessary to ask the court for permission (Treybner 2007). Honesty and fairness are important elements of the process, because the mediator in family mediation asks the parties involved to show various documents providing evidence, so that written evidences are not filed. Mediators do not even need an authorized expert's opinion and official resolutions from institutions (Kováč 2011). Other advantages of mediation include preserving privacy in personal and family matters, eliminating hostile feelings between partners and supporting cooperation on agreements related to entrustment of children into personal care, deciding on alimony, defining the form of children's upbringing and education or even of financial and property divisions (Mandová –Vinařová, 2004).

Nonetheless, family mediation has its limits and does not necessarily have to be the best solution for all couples. That is to say, that partners have to be willing to cooperate and seek the most appropriate solutions for all family members. An unsuccessful mediation usually occurs if one of the parents is physically violent or is addicted to alcohol or other drugs. The success of a mediation also depends on the content of the dispute (Teyber 2011).

In family mediation, specifics of family conflicts have to be taken into consideration. As it often deals with emotionally overloaded relationships with a significant impact on all family members, it is inevitable for a mediator to try to separate the conflicting part of the relationship from the parental one. However, the most important mission of the mediator is to support divorcing adversaries in their ability to communicate and to be competent parents despite mutual conflicts (Mandová – Vinařová 2004). The aim of family mediation is to stabilize relationships among parents and their children and not to expose them to parental conflicts and quarrels more than necessary and thus avoid traumas to the greatest possible extent. That is the best way in which parents can avoid any psychological problems in their children (Kováč 2011).

1. 6. 3 Involving children in family mediation process

The basic principle of family mediation stems from the fact, that most divorcing partners still preserves an ability and willingness to remain a competent parent. Mediation thus builds upon parental responsibility for decisions with impact on the children (Holá 2011). One of the basic principles of family mediation as well as family law and social work with families and children is to promote children's interests. From the psycho-social point of view, their interests could be characterized as needs which must be fulfilled for healthy child development. From the psychosocial point of view the involvement of children into the decision-making process as a form of education is inevitable. Firstly, parents must inform children about their divorce, which is usually painful for everyone. It is important to familiarize them with the situation as gently as possible, because children are closely related to parents and their problems. It is important to recognize the child's individual needs quickly. As discussed, the basic and fundamental condition for resolving family break-up and divorce is to find out what the children want. In cases where a mediator does not have the necessary competency or does not wish to act in two different roles, both as a mediator and as a professional child psychologist, a professional consultant assists with the process.

Children must be sure that their opinions will be heard and respected. A professional uses appropriate methods and techniques, e.g. role play, drawing, or a PEI method. If the child wishes to participate in the mediation, it is important to find out the reason why. The main mediator's task at a meeting with a child is to get to know them and win their trust. The aim is to find out how parents can help them in the new situation. Children will provide some information and to keep their trust, the mediator must make an agreement with them on how the information is going to be dealt with. At the same time, children need to be reminded of the importance of this information.

1. 6. 4 A mediator in a divorce proceeding

Mediation represents a peaceful way by which parents can resolve disputes at the end of their relationship and even later. An experienced mediator is an impartial professional with knowledge on family law, psychology and negotiation techniques. Defining the disputed questions helps a family in the middle of divorce to achieve an agreement which should be in the best interests of all participants. A mediator does not take anyone's side and neither blames anyone nor decides upon anything. They try to help parents understand their children's needs, achieve an optimal agreement and strengthen parental relationship (Teyber 2007). The aim of a mediator is to come to a mutual and friendly agreement suitable for both disputing parties. A mediation

agreement enables parents to protect their children even when they cease to be spouses, so they have an influence on their education and thus fulfil the children's need and right to be with both parents even after the divorce. Mediation can resolve all disputes, which have disturbed communications and increased tension within the family (Trélaun 2005). As we have mentioned several times, family mediation is based on the fact that most divorcing partners want to remain as competent parents. The process of mediation during the divorce accentuates parental responsibility for decisions which will influence their children. Most mediators in the divorce proceeding act as children's defenders and inform parents on their psychological wellbeing and needs. Their main point is to assure the children's interests, therefore they would never approve a suggestion which could be harmful for them (Holá 2003). A mediator who wants to specialize in family mediation must among other things go through training in the protection of children's rights, as it directly interacts with mediation. Slovak Republic is bound by the Convention on the Rights of the Child where Article 3 states: "In all actions concerning children, whether undertaken by public or private social welfare institutions, courts of law, administrative authorities or legislative bodies, the best interests of the child shall be of primary consideration." In this respect family mediation also aims at prevention of divorce and family break-up. It also tries to prevent any negative impact of the divorce on a child or children. Apart from professional knowledge, a good mediator must have some personal qualities. The most important are:

Moral qualities – the relationship between a mediator and clients is determined by professional ethics represented at a micro-level (as mediator's individual behaviour, e.g. ethical responsibility, honesty in relations with clients, unprejudiced attitude towards clients), as well as at a macro-level (rules pertaining to social responsibility, lawfulness).

Communication skills – the mediators' main working tool is conversation, therefore they should be "masters" of this art. In cooperation with clients they build a picture which should be useful and suitable for everyone.

Emotional intelligence – emotional intelligence is an inner capacity to accept, process and respond to impulses from social environment. It enables the mediator to perceive what clients are experiencing, when they feel unhappy, what they think about their partner and so on.

Empathy – thanks to this capacity the mediator is able to work with the client's thoughts, feelings and behaviour for their benefit. The mediator is thus required to meet high professional and ethical standards.

Positive thinking – a positive state of mind underlies quality of life and a level of self-confidence together with professional standards.

Respect towards the client – respecting the client’s personal dignity, overcoming prejudices and control of the mediator’s own emotional expressions.

Openness – is one of the main conditions for the development of a relationship between the mediator and the client (Holá – Kováčová – Westphalová – Spáčil 2014).

1. 6. 5 Process of mediation in a divorce proceeding

A successful divorce as laid out in the legislation of Slovak Republic comprises several phases. The person who intends to file a divorce petition seeks the advice of a solicitor, who is familiar with divorce proceedings or contacts a mediator. Before the petition is filed, it would be convenient if both partners tried to agree on several basic facts. Problem analysis with the help of the mediator should be the first to seek fundamental issues of mutual agreement. Through the mediator, spouses also should communicate their points of view on the divorce and set out their reasons why and why not to divorce.

This process is based on the ordinary mediation proceeding in the law on mediation and Family Law Act, in which both parents agree on the entrustment of a child into parental custody, on the childcare after the divorce, the amount of alimony or whether joint custody would be an option. Within this introductory part it is possible for spouses to conclude that their reasons for the divorce could be reversed. In such a case, the mediator working as a dispute manager in cooperation with a psychotherapist advances spouses to the stage of therapeutic care. Sometimes there are long-term misunderstandings in communication, when one of the parties cannot or is not able to communicate their needs, will and desires. In such cases an overwhelming majority of families cease to be functional and become seemingly broken. At this stage it is possible to intervene professionally and reverse the family break-up. The therapist works with the family in order to save it. If this situation does not occur and both spouses conclude that their reasons for a divorce are well-founded, the mediator can begin a mediation proceeding based on the terms of the Family Law Act on agreement on the enforcement of parental needs and rights as stated in Section 24, Article 3.

This agreement is drawn up in the form of a binding and valid mediation agreement. It mainly concerns and regulates contact with a minor child and any alimony agreement (Act No. 36/2005 Coll. On Family). Before a divorce petition becomes effective, the mediator asks the court to approve the agreement as a reconciliation within a divorce proceeding. If the mediator does not have a law degree, a solicitor is appointed for assistance. He draws up the petition in terms of the mediation agreement on the divorce. Then the court, in cooperation with social workers, examines the document and if both spouses agree with the divorce, the marriage is dissolved. The mediator

then draws up a final mediation agreement on the enforcement of parental rights and duties towards children and if the age of the children permits, he cooperates with the family as a whole. It is quite possible, that the agreement of spouses – parents – would stem from the wishes and ideas of their minor children. Thus cooperation with the family therapist makes it possible to work with the family in a way which minimizes the impact of the stressful situation upon all family members as far as possible. The effectiveness of this method is obvious mainly in under-age children, because through the work of the mediator and other professionals they can understand the basic and fundamental reasons for the divorce. At the same time it is declared that the parents remain parents. Thus the negative feelings of losing one of them after the divorce are reduced.

The aim of this chapter was to highlight mediation as a relatively new way of resolving disputes. Further we focused on mediation in general, its relationship to social work and particularly on its implementation in work with families. Mediation really is a far more sensitive, faster and effective means of problem solving. Those are characteristics which eliminate tension during the process and in cases where minor children are involved in the dispute; they should be of the greatest importance.

Summary and Conclusions

Monography “Social communication in multiculturalism: Competences, areas, opportunities and threats in social activities“ offers an up-to-date look at opportunities but also threatens the application of social communication in a wide range of social activities nowadays. Megatrend of Multiculturalism is a significant determinant of the theory and practice of social communication, which influences not only its extent and choice of options but also its quality and overall mission. To get an overview of the current determinants of social communication as well as to identify the competencies, areas and possibilities of social communication in solving the social problems associated with the postmodern era of multiculturalism was the aim of this monograph.

An important area of social communication is an educational process that does not interfere with the education of children and young people in the modern world, but is a broad transgenerational, transnational and transteritorial domain. The authors' team of scientific monographs focused on topics that characterize this area from aspects of adult education, socio-political contexts, teachers' communication competences, development of a specific service learning strategy in the educational process, and the current topic of modern migrant education. The socio-political context of adult education in the age of multiculturalism represents the penetration of social and educational aspects of social communication that increasingly affect the life of the current adult population. Equally important is to pay attention to the development of the communication competences of current teachers, which must reflect the need for teachers and consequently pupils to orient themselves in the modern world. One of the new strategies for linking the learning process to the community service is service learning. The contextual need for social communication is also a subject of modern migration affecting the entire Euro-Atlantic civilization. All these topics create the educational context of social communication in the multicultural world presented in this monograph.

Social communication is a key professional attribute represented in a number of helping professions, particularly in the social worker's and the social client relationship in solving various social problems. The focus of the scientific monograph reflects the importance of this theme from various aspects. There are the theory and practice of social communication in the preparation of future social workers for work in a multicultural environment, the importance of motivational interview in social worker practice, the use of family mediation in social practice, the importance of social communication in the prevention of radicalization and violent extremism and the social worker's communication competencies in a virtual environment. The undergraduate preparation of

future social workers must include the theoretical and methodological context of their professional work in a multicultural environment. One of the important components of the social work methodology is a motivational interview with broad possibilities of use in social practice. Social work with the family as an important part of social work throughout its history implies family mediation as a new element. A new area of application of social workers as well as other assisting professions is the issue of deradicalization and prevention of violent extremism especially among young people. Children and youth also have a need for social interventions to address social issues related to the use of social networks.

The text of the scientific monograph “Social communication in multiculturalism: Competences, areas, opportunities and threats in social activities“ brings a comprehensive picture not only about the meaning of social communication in contemporary society, but also points to the possibilities and risks that its use in various fields of education and social practice brings. The authors' efforts to contribute to the knowledge, understanding, and use of social communication as a tool for helping professionals is constituted primarily in the analytic-synthetic and descriptive context, but in the less important way of transferring scientific knowledge directly into social and educational practice.

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