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prevention interventions

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PUBLISHING

IMPORTANCE OF INTERDISCIPLINARITY IN RESEARCH AND TEACHING IN SOCIAL WORK: AN INTERNATIONAL OUTLOOK

Antoine de Saint Exupéry wrote in his book *The Little Prince*:

“Your planet is very beautiful,” he said. “Has it any oceans?” “I couldn’t tell you,” said the geographer. “But you are a geographer!” “Exactly,” the geographer said. “But I am not an explorer. I haven’t a single explorer on my planet. The geographer is much too important to go loafing about. He does not leave his desk. (Wisemes & Karanika-Murray, 2009, p. 1)

This short anecdote shows us in a very simple way the limitations associated with academic specialization and compartmentalization of disciplines. Regardless of the competence of a scholar, this professional will always be restricted by parameters imposed by the discipline. Our respective academic disciplines indicate what is important, what we should search for and what we should study. Apart from the limitations associated with the parameters of our discipline, the interest in what happens outside our discipline is considered beyond our responsibilities. This attitude can be problematic and limiting, given that social problems are not generated in sciences, and therefore they do not belong or correspond with any discipline (Wisemes & Karanika-Murray, 2009, p. 2).

According to the CFI (Canada Foundation for Innovation), innovation is a process starting with the generation of knowledge through research (Phillips & Shaw, 2011). The implementation of such knowledge is expected to eventually provide benefits for society in general. In other words,

innovative research must offer applications and practical benefits. Some methods for innovative research include: ethnography of the implementation, spatial methods, development of models for the assessment of interventions, research methods for the study of hidden and hard-to-reach populations, and *interdisciplinary research projects* (Phillips & Shaw, 2011).

The history of interdisciplinarity in USA has gone through three stages. The first extends from the First to the Second World War, the second from the Second World War to 1960 and the third from the 1960 to the present day (Salter & Hearn, 1997). Interdisciplinarity in USA focused on a movement of educational reform during its first historical stage. That approach in research was considered the antidote against fragmentation of sciences and knowledge. In turn, the stage after the Second World War was marked by a debate on interdisciplinarity in social sciences. Some suggested that interdisciplinarity should mainly focus on methodological and instrumental aspects of research without trespassing the boundaries of each discipline. This kind of interdisciplinarity aimed at solving problems associated with post-war economy. Others insisted in the conceptual integration of knowledge, which led to the creation of academic areas of study. This second approach initiated an epistemological challenge towards the parochialism of theories and isolation of disciplines. The third historical stage extends from 1960 to the present day and is characterized by the professionalization of the interdisciplinarity movement,

which has been possible thanks to the creation of two organizations. The first one, INTERSTUDY, is an entity founded in 1980 which gathered scholars and government and industry representatives. The second one is the Association for Integrative Studies, which was mainly constituted by scholars interested in epistemological aspects of interdisciplinarity (Salter & Hearn, 1997, pp. 27-28).

Many will question which conditions tend to promote interdisciplinarity. According to Cheng, et al, (2014), interdisciplinary research teams are usually created in an attempt to better understand a new phenomenon, formulate new and better research questions, provide better answers to the existing research questions and contribute to the body of knowledge of certain disciplines.

The interdisciplinarity efforts that arise in response to such conditions can be instrumental or conceptual (Salter & Hearn, 1997, p. 29). The former type is a pragmatic approach mainly interested in solving problems. This approach claims that interdisciplinarity must have a solid background in diverse disciplines, further recognizing the need to investigate outside the parameters of such disciplines.

On the other hand, conceptual interdisciplinarity is more interested in theoretical, epistemological and pedagogical aspects of research. The supporters of this kind of interdisciplinarity claim that the circumscription to a single discipline obstructs and delays the pursuit of truth and knowledge accumulation (Salter & Hearn, 1997). They assert that the limitations imposed by diverse disciplines create a fragmentation of knowledge and, as a result, produce valueless units of knowledge.

In an effort to identify and document the advantages linked to interdisciplinarity, a group of Italian researchers conducted a study aimed at discovering whether the interdisciplinarity research projects produce more publications with a broader success among the academic community in comparison to projects and researches performed by a single discipline (Abramo, D'Angelo & Di Costa, 2017). The results of the study suggest that the studies and publications conducted by interdisciplinarity teams tend to enlarge the number of future interdisciplinarity collaborations and the number of readers and quotes from these publications. This is the particular case when the researchers belong to different but related disciplines. On the other hand, Cheng, et. al, (2014, p. 643) maintains that interdisciplinarity investigations hold the ability to produce inclusive theories with greater validity or explanatory power than any other discipline by itself.

Likewise, Wisemes and Karanika-Murray (2009, p. 2), identify several benefits associated with the interdisciplinarity research studies.

These advantages include that interdisciplinarity studies can lead to great discoveries, enable to obtain more objective perspective from researchers outside our academic circle, identify gaps or omissions in the body of knowledge of our discipline, solve complex applied type problems, promote the ideal of unity of knowledge, conduct more flexible research projects, enhance communication and resource mobilization and facilitate the defense of our academic freedom. Our efforts to integrate knowledge belonging to different disciplines will lead us to expand the boundaries of our respective disciplines. This process will turn us in mediators of knowledge and enablers of dialogue and synthesis (Lyll, et al, 2011).

Other benefits associated with interdisciplinarity research include the chance to perform a more interesting and exciting work, which generates greater satisfaction, flexibility and the power to develop a bigger and more diversified repertoire of research methodologies, produce more creative approaches to respond to a problem, develop new perspective which can enable the elimination of myths, help the development of the ability to successfully communicate with diverse audiences, conduct researches with greater relevance for real life, acquire a higher understanding of complex phenomena, and achieve groundbreaking advances and a bigger complementarity (Lyll, et al, 2011). Among other things, these authors suggest that the interdisciplinarity research projects are more beneficial regarding its cost and efficiency in the long term given the synergy produced by the collaboration.

Finally, we would like to refer some of the success indicators in interdisciplinarity research. According to Morss (2018, p. 1-3), successful interdisciplinarity projects enable the complete intellectual participation of every discipline represented in the study creating this way a multidirectional collaboration. The successful projects also have the ability to formulate new questions for research, develop new methodologies, produce a deeper knowledge, respond to more complex questions and innovate in the intersection of diverse disciplines.

We trust that these lines will encourage the envisioning and tackling of topics from different perspectives, which will hopefully lead to a better understanding of the social problems that we deal with, which are becoming progressively more complex.

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INTRODUCTION

EFFECTIVE FAMILY-BASED PREVENTION INTERVENTIONS

ORTE, C., BALLESTER, LL., PASCUAL, B

This monograph on effective family-based prevention interventions is a collection of papers on socio-educational prevention programmes concerning behavioural problems, drug abuse, and other problem behaviour that can compromise evolutionary development in childhood and in adolescence. These are interventions based on evidence from research, in relation to the practice of positive parenting, fundamentally within the family context. And also in other contexts in which the family is not present in the everyday life of children and adolescents temporarily, as is the case of the professional parenting practised in children's homes. The importance of taking into account the family as an objective in drug prevention programmes began to gain significant support in the 90s, as explained by Israelashvil in this monograph.

The development and implementation of the contents of positive parenting programmes has gone hand in hand with other important matters that have contributed to the development of current family-based prevention programmes. The incorporation of both children and parents – in the same programme – is one of the most important ones. Both learn and practise together the parenting skills and skills for adolescents provided for in the prevention programme, within the natural framework of the family relationship. In this respect, it is important to highlight the contributions of professor K.L. Kumpfer, whose programme, the

Strengthening Families Programme (SFP) (Kumpfer & Alvarado, 2003), is an international benchmark in the field of family-based drug prevention. It is a programme dating back over thirty years with versions for different age groups (childhood and adolescence) and was designed in the modalities of selective prevention and universal prevention. Empirical evidence regarding the selective modality identifies it as a programme of undeniable reference due to its effectiveness (Kumpfer & Magalhaes, 2018). In the universal prevention modality, developed from the original SFP (Molgaard & Spoth, 2001), there are meta-analyses that confirm it as the most effective family-based programme in terms of drug prevention (Foxcroft & Tsertsvadze, 2011). The Social and Educational Training and Research Group (GIFES) carried out the Spanish validation of the selective modality, developed and tested in Spain between 2003 and 2005, namely the Family Competence Program (PCF). The appraisal of the assessment of the process and results (including longitudinal assessment at 24 months) over fifteen years of implementation of the PCF, in both its version for children (7-12) and for adolescents (12-16), can be seen in Orte and Ballester (2018).

The family is, therefore, a priority context for abuse prevention from a socio-educational perspective. This approach is developed, on the understanding that problem consumption of alcohol and other drugs, as well as addictive behaviours

in childhood and adolescence, can also be considered a family problem and, as such, the goal must be family empowerment (Kumpfer, Alvarado & Whiteside, 2003; Orte, Ballester, March, 2013). Specifically, family relationships, positive parenting, emotional communication skills, focus on the future, parental supervision, positive affective interactions, and training in parenting skills appear to be important components in effective family-based prevention interventions (Fosco, et al.; 2012; Foxcroft & Tsertsvadze, 2011; Wyatt Kaminski, Valle, Filene & Boyle, 2008; Van-Ryzin et al.; 2016; Vermeulen-Smit et al.; 2015; Valero et al.; 2017).

It is along these lines that institutions of international reference in the field of prevention such as the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) recommend the implementation of recruitment programmes aimed at the family for the prevention of drug abuse¹. With regard to this matter, in the implementation of family competence programs it is important for interventions to provide a detailed list of the contents and procedures, to perform a systematic assessment of the processes and results, and to ensure specific, adequate training of the trainers (Kumpfer & Alvarado, 2003; Orte, Ballester & March, 2013). The first paper in this monograph explains a universal prevention programme and its effects. In the article entitled, *Prevención universal. Evaluación de los efectos del programa de competencia familiar universal en centros educativos de primaria y secundaria (PCF-U, 11-14)* [Universal prevention. Assessment of the effects of the universal family competence program in primary and secondary schools], a presentation is made of the process and results of the validation phase of the Universal Family Competence Program (PCF-U 11-14), which is evidence-based and applicable in educational contexts (primary and secondary schools).

Throughout these years of research and implementation of evidence-based family-based drug prevention programmes, different issues have arisen that must be taken into account in order to improve their effectiveness and efficiency. Some of the most important ones can be found in this monograph and one of them is train-the-trainers as a basic resource that enables recruitment and motivation of families, their active participation, and retention in the programme.

Training of professionals is a necessary condition for the application of a family-based prevention programme. We refer to both specialised training in issues related to the prevention of substance abuse², and to prior training in the contents of the specific programme to be applied. This training is fundamental in order to grasp and apply the

preventive programme in the family context. The second article in the monograph explores the following component of prevention programmes: the professional profiles and competences of the trainers. In the paper entitled, *La formación para la prevención en el ámbito socioeducativo: un análisis de los perfiles profesionales* [Training for prevention in the socio-educational field: an analysis of professional profiles], a presentation is made of a research study that aims to define the professional profiles of trainers in the Family Competence Program (PCF). Since it is an Evidence-Based Programme (EBP), professionals need to address the components and apply them adequately, maintain motivation, and encourage the participation of the families. The aim of the study is to assess what levels of competences the professionals who apply the (PCF) have, especially with regard to intrapersonal and interpersonal areas.

Other questions that we propose for the improvement of the effectiveness of the intervention are the following: How to improve family participation? How to achieve a balance between the generic principles of positive parenting and the forms of adaptation and implementation? What is the most appropriate time for the participation of parents in the drug abuse preventive process in young boys, girls, and youths? These are some of the issues dealt with in the third article in the monograph entitled, *Parentalidad y prevención de consumo de drogas: Estado de la cuestión y retos de future* [Parenting and prevention of drug abuse: current status and future challenges].

The challenge of family engagement leads us to propose the most appropriate strategies in order to foment parents' participation. In fact, one of the main difficulties in evidence-based family interventions is that of achieving participation. The two next papers in the monograph go further into this difficulty, one of them in relation to family-based prevention programmes, and the other from the perspective of educational centres. In the article entitled, *Una revisión sistemática de la participación en los programas de prevención familia* [A systematic review of participation in family-based prevention programmes], an analysis is conducted of the predictive factors of parental participation and the strategies for improving participation in parental prevention programmes. The most effective strategies identified include the use of different extrinsic incentives, adjustment of the expectations and motivations of parents during the intervention, as well as the role of the trainer. Meanwhile, the next article, *El entorno del proceso de implicación familiar: bases empíricas para el diseño de un programa de intervención* [The setting of the family involvement process:

empirical bases for the design of an intervention programme], presents a research study addressing the effects of family involvement on the motivation of pupils, the influence of teaching staff on family involvement, the pupil's perception of the styles of involvement, and the relationship of these styles to the pupil's motivation. The study is carried out with teaching staff, families, and pupils in 5th and 6th grade of Primary Education.

Lastly, the sixth article provides a necessary reflexion on the difficulties of children and teenagers under guardianship (in care in children's homes) and the potential professionals offer as a professional parental figure and their functions of

protection, stimulation of development, as a restorative affective bond, and guide in processes of resilience. The article entitled, *Parentalidad profesional en el acogimiento institucional: propuesta para mejorar la atención a los niños acogidos en centros de protección* [Professional parenting in institutional care: proposal to improve the care of children looked after in children's homes] poses a reconceptualisation of the role of social educator as a professional parental figure in order to overcome some of the limitations associated with institutional care. Through a narrative review, the most relevant contributions supporting this proposal are reviewed.

Notes

¹ <https://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/prevention/familyskillstraining.html>

² Nowadays it is beginning to be an important strategic issue to be able to have evidence-based curricular contents, in the field of training professionals in substance abuse prevention.

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MONOGRAPH

**EFFECTIVE FAMILY-BASED
PREVENTION INTERVENTIONS**

UNIVERSAL PREVENTION. EVALUATION OF THE EFFECTS OF THE UNIVERSAL SPANISH STRENGTHENING FAMILIES PROGRAM IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS AND HIGH SCHOOLS (SFP-U 11-14)¹

PREVENCIÓN UNIVERSAL. EVALUACIÓN DE LOS EFECTOS DEL PROGRAMA DE COMPETENCIA FAMILIAR UNIVERSAL

EN CENTROS EDUCATIVOS DE PRIMARIA Y SECUNDARIA (PCF-U, 11-14)

PREVENÇÃO UNIVERSAL. AVALIAÇÃO DOS EFEITOS DO PROGRAMA DE COMPETÊNCIA FAMILIAR UNIVERSAL EM ESCOLAS PRIMÁRIAS E SECUNDÁRIAS (PFF-U, 11-14)

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ABSTRACT: Introduction. To evaluate the process and the results of the validation phase of the Strengthening Families Program-Universal (SFP-U 11-14), evidence-based program applicable in educational contexts (elementary schools and high schools). In the state of the art, the absence of socio-educational work programs with families based on evidence, for universal population, is noted.

Method: Pre-post quasi-experimental design with a control group for the evaluation of the pilot stage of the SFP-U 12-16 validation phase (2018) carried in Balearic Islands and Castilla y León. 16 experimental groups and 17 control groups were established with the participation of 353 fathers and mothers and 289 adolescents. The intervention consisted of 6 sessions. Information was collected with validated questionnaires.

Results. The analysis of the effects on the parents and children confirms the good results obtained. The number of participants was reduced to 305 parents (retention of 86.40%) and to 262 children (retention of 90.66%). Participants showed a high level of satisfaction with different dimensions of the program. Key aspects and areas of improvement for the future of the intervention were identified. Improvements were observed in most of the dimensions evaluated.

Discussion: The results of the validation stage of SFP-U 11-14 indicate that this is a universal socio-educational intervention with relevant effects of parental improvement in fathers and mothers.

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<p>PALABRAS CLAVE: educación familiar competencia familiar prevención universal adolescentes</p>	<p>RESUMEN: Introducción. Evaluar el proceso y los resultados de la fase de validación del Programa de Competencia Familiar Universal (PCF-U 11-14), basado en la evidencia y aplicable en contextos educativos (centros de primaria y secundaria). En la revisión del marco teórico se constata la ausencia de programas de trabajo socioeducativo con familias basados en la evidencia, de carácter universal.</p> <p>Método. Diseño quasi-experimental antes-después con grupo de control para la evaluación de la fase de validación del PCF (2018) en Baleares y Castilla y León. Se desarrollaron 16 grupos experimentales y 17 grupos de control, en los que participaron 353 padres y 289 adolescentes. La intervención consistió en 6 sesiones. La información se recogió con cuestionarios validados.</p> <p>Resultado. El análisis de los efectos sobre los padres y los hijos confirma los buenos resultados obtenidos. El número de participantes se redujo a 305 padres y madres (retención del 86,40%) y a 262 hijos (retención del 90,66%). El grado de satisfacción de los participantes con diversos aspectos del programa fue muy alto. Se identificaron aspectos clave y áreas de mejora para el futuro de la intervención. Se observaron mejoras en la mayoría de las dimensiones evaluadas.</p> <p>Discusión: Los resultados de la fase de validación del PCF-U 11-14 indican que se trata de una intervención socioeducativa universal con efectos relevantes de mejora parental en padres y madres.</p>
<p>PALAVRAS-CHAVE: educação familiar competência familiar prevenção universal adolescentes</p>	<p>RESUMO: Introdução. Avaliar o processo e os resultados da fase de validação do Programa de Competência Familiar Universal (PCF-U 11-14), com base em evidências e aplicáveis em contextos educacionais (escolas primárias e secundárias). Na revisão do referencial teórico, observa-se a ausência de programas de trabalho socioeducativo com famílias baseadas em evidências, de caráter universal.</p> <p>Método. Desenho quase experimental pre-post com um grupo de controle para a avaliação da fase de validação do PCF (2018) nas Ilhas Baleares e Castela e Leão. Dezanove grupos experimentais e 17 grupos controle foram desenvolvidos, envolvendo 353 pais e 289 adolescentes. A intervenção consistiu em 6 sessões. As informações foram coletadas com questionários validados.</p> <p>Resultado A análise dos efeitos sobre pais e filhos confirma os bons resultados obtidos. O número de participantes foi 305 pais (retenção de 86,40%) e 262 crianças (retenção de 90,66%). O grau de satisfação dos participantes com vários aspetos do programa foi muito alto. Os principais aspetos e áreas para melhoria foram identificados para o futuro da intervenção. Melhorias foram observadas na maioria das dimensões avaliadas.</p> <p>Discussão: Os resultados da fase de validação do PCF-U 11-14 indicam que é uma intervenção socioeducativa universal com efeitos relevantes de melhoria em pais e mães.</p>

1. Introduction

One of the main challenges to be tackled in Spain is how to improve family dynamics in order to strengthen protective factors in childhood and adolescence. Over the last 20 years, different programmes have been developed aimed at reinforcing parenting skills or at selective prevention (Orte, Ballester & March, 2013; Quintana & López, 2013). What are lacking, however, are universal evidence-based family prevention programmes for use in differing family-related preventive frameworks, whether they are formal ones run by schools or the social services or non-formal contexts, organized by community centres or third-sector bodies. Evidence-based prevention programmes are directed at strengthening the protective factors and preventing the risk factors relating to a wide variety of behaviours and situations that occur during childhood and adolescence. International experience shows that these programmes have proven to be efficient in interventions. This has been confirmed through rigorous duly evaluated validated studies, generally based on quasi

experimental designs or randomized controlled tests, demonstrating the programmes' positive identifiable outcomes (Small & Huser, 2015; Spoth, Gyll & Shin, 2009).

One very important feature of these programmes is their broad dissemination so as to facilitate access to them by other professionals for appraisal and application purposes. They have clearly-identified documented curriculums to ensure their dissemination and use by public and private services and other organizations, offering guidance for future interventions and encouraging publication of the results, hence fostering good practices. Proven efficiency is demanded by the public authorities and by financial institutions before public funding is awarded to programmes in order to guarantee high standards and, by extension, the achievement of expected outcomes (Orte, Ballester & March, 2013). The Spanish Universal Family Competence programme was developed and tested in such a way (Orte and GIFES 2017a, 2017b, 2017c, 2017d).

The Family Competence Programme (PCF-U) is an adaptation of the universal preventive

version of the Strengthening Families Program (SFP) (Kumpfer & DeMarsh, 1985; Kumpfer, DeMarsh & Child, 1989; Spoth, Gyll & Shin, 2009). This is a multi-component prevention programme (for parents, children and the family as a whole), whose original design was aimed at strengthening families' protective factors so as to boost their resilience (Walsh, 2016). It is considered to be a model programme in the classification by the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA), whose quality criteria contemplate fidelity in the intervention, assessments of the process, measurements of changes in behaviours, and the validity of measurement procedures. The applications conducted by the University of the Balearic Islands' Research & Socio-Educational Training Group (GIFES-UIB according to its Spanish acronym) have focused on prevention in Spain and on interventions by primary-care social services, child protection services and education centres (Ballester, Valero, Orte & Amer, 2018; Orte, Ballester, Pozo & Vives, 2017; Orte, Ballester, Vives & Amer, 2016). On this occasion, the universal preventive version of the programme (aimed at families generally) was run at primary and secondary schools.

In the adaptation by GIFES (Orte, Ballester & March, 2013; Orte & GIFES, 2017), efforts were made to ensure optimum quality standards and so a pre-test/post-test assessment design was used with control groups, complemented by measurements of the process through assessments of the procedures and outcomes.

The programme was made up of six two-hour sessions, scheduled on consecutive weeks. These sessions included a first hour of separate work with the parents and children in different rooms, followed by a second joint session with both groups. The basic contents of the programme were tailored to suit each target group (the parents, children or whole family), and a series of key themes was worked on in order to influence their attitudes and foster preventive family dynamics, based on different factors associated with improvements in family skills.

At various different sessions, the following topics were worked on with the parents and families as a whole: closer ties between parents and children and improved family relations; improved communication (active listening, less criticism etc.); supervision of the adolescents, in particular control over their friends, free time, attitudes and risk behaviours (with special emphasis on tobacco, alcohol and other drug use); improved parental skills (attention, praising positive behaviour, withdrawing attention in response to negative behaviours, realistic expectations of the adolescent's

development and behaviour); efficient coherent discipline (setting rules on acceptable and unacceptable behaviour, including drug use); eliminating or reducing physical punishment and using time-out and time to calm down; attitudes, myths and co-parenting rules on tobacco, alcohol and drug use; improved child-rearing skills (suitable behaviour models, particularly in terms of drugs); conflict prevention; and improved quality time as a family.

Meanwhile, in the sessions with the adolescents, the following topics were tackled: closer ties between parents and children and improved family relations; improved communication (active listening, less criticism etc.); attitudes to tobacco, alcohol and other drugs; improved skills on the adolescents' part (i.e. social, resistance-related and coping skills); and conflict prevention.

The joint family sessions acted as a link between the individual parent and child ones. These joint sessions were more dynamic, based on the topics dealt with at the separate sessions so that the families could practise the skills they had learnt during the programme before transferring them to the home.

2. Justification & objectives

This paper presents the tests of hypotheses concerning the sample mothers and fathers and children, using data from a study of the PCF-U 11-14 run at primary and secondary schools in 2018 in the Balearic Islands and Castilla & León. The paper aims to assess the programme's efficiency in fostering parental and family skills able to boost the families' preventive competencies by reducing possible risk factors and increasing protective ones.

One recommended way of encouraging positive parenting is to use effective socio-educational programmes like the PCF-U 11-14. (Whittaker & Cowley, 2012). The PCF was targeted at families with adolescents aged between 11 and 14 in order to work on family skill, in particular, positive parenting by mothers and fathers.

In the case of the mothers and fathers, the following hypothesis was tested: effective participation in the 6 sessions of the Family Competence Programme significantly improves key aspects of parenting: a reduction in family conflicts, improved positive parenting, improved family supervision, higher resilience, closer involvement with the family and a better family atmosphere.

In the case of the adolescents, the following hypothesis was tested: effective participation in the 6 sessions of the Family Competence Programme significantly improves key factors in pro-social behaviour and wellbeing in adolescents: a reduction

in stress, depression and helplessness; more self-confidence; and better interpersonal relations and relations with parents. Lastly, a reduction in attitudes conducive to drug use (risk) was expected, such as their readiness to take drugs, in addition to a reduction in mistaken beliefs and an improvement in positive protective attitudes based on the acquisition of correct beliefs regarding the effects of drug use.

3. Methodology

The research study took the form of a validation process, based on a broad representative sample of the population aged between 11 and 14 from two Spanish regions of differing yet complementary characteristics: Castilla & León and the Balearic Islands. Key phases in the research process included:

1. The design of the programme, based on a systematic review of accredited sources and on consultations with expert interlocutors. Thanks to these consultations, a new clearly improved version of the initial design was developed. This second version is the one that was put to the test with our broad sample (Orte and GIFES 2017a, 2017b, 2017c, 2017d).
2. A comprehensive test of the improved version of the programme, testing the implementation process, the management of the programme, the teaching materials, assessment systems, and short and mid-term outcomes (6 months).

This part of the study had a quasi-experimental design with pre-test and post-test measurements, using 8 experimental groups and 8 control groups in each of the two regions taking part in the validation test.

Rigorous controls were made of the experimental conditions during the applications of the programme (the elimination of disturbance factors, the constancy of the experimental conditions) (Ballester, Nadal, Amer, 2017). More specifically, three main controls were applied:

- Disturbance factors of differing kinds were eliminated (by overcoming transport problems and providing a crèche for younger children and timetables to suit the participants). The creation of conditions conducive to participation in the programme is a fundamental factor in high retention rates, particularly in the case of adolescents.

- The experimental conditions were held constant through direct supervision by the members of the research team. That is, the same programme and sessions were given to the different experimental groups. The fidelity of the sessions and the process the participants followed were assessed using different procedures, such as self-reports and evaluations by independent observers. The fidelity of applications of family prevention programmes is essential in the transfer and dissemination of evidence-based interventions.
- The same instruments were used-validated for the Spanish population-at the three data-gathering points (pre, post 1 and post 2 at the 6-month stage), using the same procedure and encompassing all the participants.

The programme consisted of 6 socio-educational work sessions, using an interactive group-based design. The aim was to boost relevant protective factors and to reduce relevant risk factors among families with children aged 11 to 14 in the 5th and 6th years of primary school and the 1st and 2nd years of secondary school.

3.1. The Sample

The sample was made up of two sub-samples from Castilla & León and the Balearic Islands respectively, following the application of a selection process of primary and secondary schools. Half the sample was from the 5th and 6th years of primary education and the other was from the 1st and 2nd years of secondary education. In all the families, only one child was used in the analysis, with an equal number of adolescents and families taking part. In total there were 275 families, 249 of whom completed the programme (90.55% retention rate).

The experimental group was made up of 16 groups, with 165 families beginning the programme and 154 completing the six sessions. 11 families abandoned the programme for various different reasons (93.33% retention rate).

The control group was made up of 17 groups, with 110 families at the beginning and 95 who completed the process and provided data (86.36% retention rate). The experimental group took part in the application, while the control group was informed of possible future applications.

Table 1 summarizes salient data relating to the analysed sample.

Table 1. Sample used for the PCF-U 11-14, 2018 application

	No. of people		No. of people		No. of families	
	Mothers & fathers		Sons & daughters		Families	
	BEGINNING	END	BEGINNING	END	BEGINNING	END
Primary schools						
EXPERIMENTAL	151	139	116	111	110	106
		92.05%		95.69%		96.36%
CONTROL	74	64	63	58	64	59
		86.49%		92.06%		92.19%
Secondary schools						
EXPERIMENTAL	73	59	59	53	55	48
		80.82%		89.83%		87.27%
CONTROL	55	43	51	40	46	36
		78.18%		78.43%		78.26%
WHOLE SAMPLE						
EXPERIMENTAL	224	198	175	164	165	154
		88.39%		93.71%		93.33%
CONTROL	129	107	114	98	110	95
		82.95%		85.96%		86.36%
TOTAL EXPERIMENTAL & CONTROL	353	305	289	262	275	249
		86.40%		90.66%		90.55%
Source: Analysis based on data from the GIFES-UIB applications.						

As mentioned earlier and as Table 1 shows, the retention rates are quite high for both the experimental and control groups. In the case of the experimental groups, rates of more than 90% were achieved for the parents and adolescents from the primary schools and rates of 80 to 90% in the case of the secondary schools. These retention rates are good indicators of the quality of the programme's activities, in particular the teaching materials, organization of the sessions and work by the trainers, creating positive relations that kept these participation levels up.

3.2. Instruments

To gather data from each family, a single instrument was used for the parents and a single one

for the adolescents, both based on the following instruments and sources of information:

For the analysis, the parent and child questionnaires developed by Kumpfer were taken (Orte and GIFES, 2017a). These were validated for the Spanish population and their factorization was used to build the analysed scales.

The Behaviour Assessment System for Children (BASC) questionnaires were also used (BASC) (Reynolds and Kamphaus, 2004), working exclusively with the scales provided by this assessment system, validated specifically for the Spanish population.

A questionnaire was also used on substance use and attitudes to drugs, based on international standards adopted in the Spanish National Drugs Plan, together with a questionnaire to evaluate

the programme and various different associated aspects (the trainers, materials, sessions, and changes that were achieved). This questionnaire included open-ended questions administered at a face-to-face interview with the trainer at each centre.

The basic selection criteria for the instruments were: i) their suitability for the factors to be assessed; ii) their validation for the Spanish population; iii) their adaptability for joint use with the other instruments (internal validity); and iv) their possible more widespread use in applications of the programme under non-experimental conditions. It is important to bear in mind that they measure changes in the participants' subjective perceptions (improvements/worsened situations).

3.3. Procedure

The outcomes that were achieved by the parents and adolescents were measured by comparing the experimental group's initial (pre-test) situation with the final one (the post-test at the end of the PCF and current situation). A comparison

with the control group was made for each of the factors, using an analysis of variance.

To establish the significance of the results, the differences between the initial pre-test situation and the post-test situation four months later at the end of the PCF were considered.

The analysed data must necessarily be presented in summarized form, highlighting the main factors that were identified. The analyses are based on comparisons of the data gathered at the two points, using the following types of tests in this particular study: t-tests for a comparison of the pre and post-test measurements.

4. Results

The first set of analysed factors relates to the family as a whole or to the parents. Six factors were considered from the factorization of the questionnaire for parents. Table 2 shows the dimensions of the assessed sub-samples. In this presentation, data is only shown for the parents from the experimental groups who provided all the necessary information. The factor values are not dimensional.

Table 2. Group dimensions and the descriptive statistics of the factors relating to the parents and families (PCF-U 11-14, 2018)

Group: EXPERIMENTAL		N	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error of mean
Factor 1-Family conflicts	PRE	223	0.228	1.057	0.071
	POST	196	0.016	0.948	0.068
Factor 2-Positive parenting	PRE	223	-0.333	1.024	0.069
	POST	196	-0.082	0.921	0.066
Factor 3-Family supervision	PRE	223	-0.073	1.019	0.068
	POST	196	-0.049	0.976	0.070
Factor 4-Resilience	PRE	215	-0.405	1.013	0.069
	POST	191	0.06	0.9	0.065
Factor 5-Family involvement, quality time	PRE	217	-0.094	0.974	0.066
	POST	192	0.162	0.962	0.069
Factor 6-Family atmosphere	PRE	207	-0.197	1.036	0.072
	POST	185	-0.023	1.059	0.078
Source: Analysis based on data from the GIFES-UIB applications					

As for the main results, Table 3 shows the data from the analysis of the comparison of means.

The first factor provides information on family conflicts. In the questionnaire for parents, it seeks to identify whether there is a shift toward fewer conflicts and better relations (respect, family cohesion). The results show a significant moderate drop in the values by the end of the PCF ($t=2.153$; $p=0.032$).

The second factor provides information on positive parenting, assessed through positive discipline and the capacity to provide efficient guidance, to set limits, to motivate the adolescents and through other aspects of parenting. The results show a significant improvement when the initial situation is compared with the final one after taking part in the PCF 11-14 ($t=-2.619$; $p=0.009$).

The third factor deals with family supervision. This factor takes into account a wide range of important information, in particular information

about the adolescents' activities and friendships. The results show a slight increase in the values by the end of the PCF, and so the level is not statistically significant ($t=-0.251$; $p=0.802$).

The fourth factor provides information about the family's resilience, construed as its capacity to tackle any challenges that arise (health, emotional relations, family support etc.). There is a noticeable increase in the values at the end of the PCF, with a significant difference between the initial and final situations ($t=-4.861$; $p=0.000$). According to the parents, this represents one of the most consistent improvements.

The fifth factor focuses on family involvement. As with the previous factors, the PCF pays special attention to this through a series of activities aimed at boosting family involvement, in particular quality time between the parents and children. The results show a significant improvement ($t=-2.668$; $p=0.008$) in the values by the end of the PCF.

Table 3. Difference in means tests (PCF-U 11-14, 2018)

	t	DT	Sig. (bilateral)	95% CI for the difference	
				Lower	Higher
Factor 1-Family conflicts	2.153	417	0.032	0.018	0.406
Factor 2-Positive parenting	-2.619	417	0.009	-0.439	-0.063
Factor 3-Family supervision	-0.251	417	0.802	-0.217	0.168
Factor 4-Resilience	-4.861	404	0.000	-0.653	-0.277
Factor 5-Family involvement, quality time	-2.668	407	0.008	0.445	0.067
Factor 6-Family atmosphere	-1.642	390	0.101	-0.382	0.034

Source: Analysis based on data from the GIFES-UIB applications.

Lastly, the sixth factor provides information on one component of the family atmosphere: the capacity to improve the climate of relations between the parents and children and between both parents. This factor includes changes that might be better confirmed in the mid-to-long term as a result of other changes in family dynamics (Orte et al., 2015). There is no significant difference between the initial and final situation on conclusion of the PCF 11-14 but changes are made in the right direction ($t=-1.642$; $p=0.101$).

As for the factors relating to the adolescents, 9 factors were selected. The first six coincide with the scales of the BASC questionnaire and the last three with the attitude scales of the questionnaire on drug-related knowledge and attitudes. Tests

were made to see whether the changes were sufficiently big to be statistically significant. To do so, the difference in means was calculated between the situation at the beginning of the programme and at the end, using a t-test. When the differences were confirmed, changes could be observed in the different factors. The interpretation outlined below is based on the data shown in Tables 4 and 5.

Table 4 shows the direction of the changes. The samples for the factors can be seen to differ. These variations are due to the fact that it was not always possible to calculate the factors for all the participants, since sometimes they did not answer all the items. From the means, it can be seen that changes in the expected direction occurred. Their significance is shown in the following table.

Table 4. Dimensions and descriptive statistics of the factors for the adolescents (PCF-U 11-14, 2018)

Group: EXPERIMENTAL		No.	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error of mean
1 BASC_Stress	PRE	172	49.25	10.256	0.789
	POST	164	46.90	9.936	0.776
2 BASC_Depression	PRE	170	49.30	10.912	0.842
	POST	164	46.51	9.018	0.704
3 BASC_Helplessness	PRE	170	50.43	9.734	0.751
	POST	163	47.39	8.380	0.656
4 BASC_Interpersonal relations	PRE	170	50.68	10.028	0.774
	POST	163	51.18	8.529	0.668
5 BASC_Relations with parents	PRE	170	50.17	11.435	0.880
	POST	164	52.85	8.810	0.686
6 BASC_Self-esteem	PRE	170	52.47	8.697	0.667
	POST	164	54.21	6.413	0.498
7 ATTITUDES. Readiness to take drugs	PRE	167	8.94	4.170	0.328
	POST	159	8.70	4.227	0.335
8 ATTITUDES. Mistaken beliefs. RISK	PRE	167	13.01	3.624	0.287
	POST	159	12.91	3.752	0.298
9 ATTITUDES. Correct beliefs. PROTECTION	PRE	167	20.66	5.166	0.406
	POST	159	21.25	4.993	0.396

Source: Analysis based on data from the GIFES-UIB applications

Factor 1. Social stress: This scale assesses the level of stress (tension, anxiety etc.) the adolescents experience in interpersonal relations. High scores indicate problems of shyness, introversion, social anxiety and irritability. As expected, there was a drop in the values, with a moderate level of statistical significance ($t=2.130$; $p=0.034$).

Factor 2. Depression: This scale assesses feelings like sadness, loneliness and little enjoyment of life, sometimes due to anxiety and stress. High scores indicate a problem of depression. No high values were observed in the adolescents taking part. The values could be seen to fall by the end of the programme, with a difference that denoted a moderate statistical significance ($t=2.538$; $p=0.012$).

Factor 3. Feelings of helplessness: This scale assesses the adolescents' possible lack of confidence due to their incapacity to achieve certain goals. High scores are representative of an adolescent who believes him or herself to be incapable of achieving certain goals, and this might encourage him or her to look for other alternative challenges outside conventional frameworks. A drop of sufficient statistical significance in the values was observed by the end of the programme (3.049 ; $p=0.002$).

Factor 4. Interpersonal relations: This scale assesses the adolescents' success in and satisfaction with relations with others. Low scores indicate big difficulties in relations with their peers.

The scores improved, although the change was not statistically significant ($t=-0.482$; $p=0.630$).

Factor 5. Relations with parents: This scale assesses the adolescents' relations with their parents and their role in the family. High scores show that they feel at ease in the family, while low scores reveal problems with their parents. An improvement in the scores was observed, with a statistically significant change ($t=-2.405$; $p=0.017$). According to the adolescents, this change was

more relevant and positive than changes in relations with their peers.

Factor 6. Self-esteem: This scale assesses the adolescents' level of satisfaction with themselves. A high score indicates a healthy sense of self-esteem, synonymous with an adolescent who fits in well, both personally and socially. An improvement could be seen in the scores, with a moderate statistical significance ($t=-2.091$; $p=0.037$).

Table 5. Difference in means tests (PCF-U 11-14, 2018)

	t	df	Sig. (bilateral)	95% CI for the difference	
				Lower	Higher
1 BASC_Stress	2.130	331	0.034	0.180	4.536
2 BASC_Depression	2.538	321.3	0.012	0.626	4.945
3 BASC_Helplessness	3.049	329	0.002	1.081	5.015
4 BASC_Interpersonal relations	-0.482	329	0.630	-2.509	1.522
5 BASC_Relations with parents	-2.405	315.1	0.017	-4.877	-0.488
6 BASC_Self-esteem	-2.091	310.9	0.037	-3.378	-0.103
7 ATTITUDES. Readiness to take drugs	0.512	319	0.609	-0.68195	1.16226
8 ATTITUDES. Mistaken beliefs. RISK	0.228	316	0.820	-0.71963	0.90831
9 ATTITUDES. Correct beliefs. PROTECTION	-1.031	319	0.303	-1.70076	0.53118
Source: Analysis based on data from the GIFES-UIB applications.					

As for the three factors concerning attitudes to substance use –and one of the programme's aims was to improve such attitudes–, the changes were not statistically significant but they were positive and coherent with our expectations.

Factor 7. Readiness to take drugs. This scale considers possible acceptance of proffered drugs and the adolescent's own readiness to take them. By the end of the programme, there was a drop in their willingness to take drugs, although the results were not statistically significant ($t=0.512$; $p=0.609$).

Factor 8. In the case of the second attitude scale, which concerns **mistaken beliefs** (risk factor), the values also fall but not to a significant degree ($t=0.228$; $p=0.820$).

Factor 9. In the case of the third attitude scale pertaining to **correct beliefs** or protective ones, a bigger change could be seen, with improved protection, but not to a statistically significant degree ($t=-1.031$; $p=0.303$).

5. Discussion & conclusions

The Family Competence Programme is a universal prevention programme based on scientific evidence, with socio-educational interventions aimed at families as a whole. Important outcomes have been achieved by mothers and fathers taking part in these interventions and also by their children.

The PCF (11-14) for adolescents has been proven to achieve consistent high-quality results with the participation of families not selected on the basis of any specific criteria (universal prevention). In particular, noteworthy outcomes were achieved by the adolescents' parents and the adolescents themselves.

From the factors that were considered, relevant changes were observed among most of the families, with relatively good results for a broad series of factors associated with how the families function and certain factors relating to the

adolescents' subjective perceptions of their well-being and relations.

As for the factors specifically related to the parents or families as a whole, the best outcomes were a reduction in family conflicts, improved positive parenting, a higher resilience and more family involvement.

The factors with the best outcomes for the adolescents were a reduction in stress and symptoms associated with depression and helplessness, an improvement in relations with their parents, and a higher self-esteem.

When the experimental and control groups were compared, conclusive expected differences were found for a wide variety of factors, particularly those reflecting the most positive changes.

One limitation of the study might be its too brief six-session format. In addition, data on the mid-term impacts is still lacking.

From the identified results, a series of points can be considered:

1. The PCF 11-14 has demonstrated its efficiency in maintaining the participants' commitment to the programme, with a very good retention rate for the sample. Most members of the families who took part understood what they were doing, found the process to be a meaningful one, and acknowledged

improvements to have occurred in certain aspects encompassed by the programme.

2. Despite this version of the programme's limitations and its short length (6 sessions), the PCF 11-14 proved its efficiency by achieving positive outcomes in a broad range of factors.
3. In all socio-educational family-based programmes, certain important issues regarding their longer-term effects must await clarification. In the case of the PCF, they are:

What the long-term effects of the programme are and which factors are most influential in the maintenance or loss of the effects;

- How the PCF 11-14 interacts with other developmental changes and with changes that families undergo.
- The outcomes of the Spanish adaptation of the SFP (PCF 11-14) held in the Balearic Islands and Castilla & León are as consistent as those of the SFP in its benchmark applications and in international adaptations (Kumpfer & Alvarado, 2003; Kumpfer, Pinyuchon & Whiteside, 2008), and its efficiency has been demonstrated in accordance with the criteria established in the said studies.

Note

- ¹ EDU2016-79235-R - "VALIDACIÓN DEL PROGRAMA DE COMPETENCIA FAMILIAR UNIVERSAL 10-14, PCF-U", 2017-2019. State Programme of R+D+i Aimed at Societal Challenges: R+D Projects. Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness.

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PREVENTION TRAINING IN THE SOCIO-EDUCATIONAL FIELD: AN ANALYSIS OF PROFESSIONAL PROFILES'

FORMACIÓN PARA LA PREVENCIÓN EN EL ÁMBITO SOCIOEDUCATIVO: UN ANÁLISIS DE LOS PERFILES PROFESIONALES

FORMAÇÃO PARA A PREVENÇÃO NO ÂMBITO SOCIOEDUCATIVO: UMA ANÁLISE DOS PERFIS PROFISSIONAIS

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ABSTRACT: The function of the trainer is key to the development of Evidence-Based Programmes (EBP); they are the people in charge of ensuring that components are rigorously applied, of maintaining motivation, and of promoting adequate relationships between participants. The aim of the study was to assess the levels of competence of professionals applying the Family Competence Program (PCF). In order to achieve the aims of the PCF, competences in the Intrapersonal and Interpersonal areas are especially relevant. The assessment was carried out using the CompeTEA instrument, which is specialised in assessing professional competences. Data analysis was structured in five areas: Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, Task development, Setting, and Management. The results show that the professionals possess "intermediate levels of competence", with the Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, and Setting areas standing out with respect to the others. Associated to these dimensions, professionals obtained higher levels at both the criteria and normative level, in the competences *Self-confidence, Communication, and Result orientation*.

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<p>PALABRAS CLAVE: Prevención familiar formación de formadores programas de prevención práctica basada en evidencia</p>	<p>RESUMEN: La función del formador es clave en el desarrollo de Programas Basados en la Evidencia (PBE); son los encargados de asegurar que los componentes se aplican rigurosamente, de mantener la motivación y de fomentar adecuadas relaciones entre los participantes. El objetivo del estudio es evaluar qué niveles de competencias presentan los profesionales que aplican el Programa de Competencia Familiar (PCF). Para la consecución de los objetivos del PCF son especialmente relevantes las competencias del área Intrapersonal e Interpersonal. La evaluación se realiza a partir del instrumento <i>CompeTEA</i>, especializado en la evaluación de competencias profesionales. El análisis de los datos se estructura en cinco áreas: Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, Desarrollo de tareas, Entorno y Gerencial. Los resultados muestran que los profesionales poseen “niveles medios de competencias”, destacando las áreas Interpersonal, Intrapersonal y Entorno respecto a las demás. Asociadas a estas dimensiones, los profesionales obtienen medias más elevadas, tanto a nivel criterial como normativo, en las competencias <i>Confianza en sí mismo</i>, <i>Comunicación y Orientación a los resultados</i>.</p>
<p>PALAVRAS-CHAVE: Prevenção familiar formação de formadores programas de prevenção prática baseada na evidência</p>	<p>RESUMO: A função do formador é fundamental no desenvolvimento dos Programas Baseados na Evidência (PBE); são os responsáveis por assegurar que os componentes são aplicados rigorosamente, por manter a motivação e por promover relações adequadas entre os participantes. O objetivo do estudo é avaliar os níveis de competências apresentados pelos profissionais que aplicam o Programa de Competência Familiar (PCF). Para a implementação dos objetivos do PCF são particularmente relevantes as competências nas áreas intrapessoal e interpessoal. A avaliação realiza-se a partir do instrumento <i>CompeTEA</i> especializado na avaliação de competências profissionais. A análise dos dados estrutura-se em cinco áreas: Intrapessoal, Interpessoal, Desenvolvimento de tarefas, Ambiente e Gestão. Os resultados mostram que os profissionais detêm “níveis médios de competências”, destacando-se as áreas Interpessoal, Intrapessoal e Ambiente na relação com os outros. Associadas a estas dimensões, os profissionais obtêm médias mais elevadas tanto a nível do critério, como a nível normativo nas competências <i>Confiança em si mesmo</i>, <i>Comunicação e Orientação para os resultados</i>.</p>

1. Introduction

The effectiveness of a prevention programme is related to a development of the implementation that will enable the expected results to be adequately reached. In the last few years, there has been a proliferation of highly structured programmes - based on scientific evidence - that include specific training processes for the professionals that are going to implement them (Sloboda & Petras, 2014; Israelashvili & Romano, 2016). These professionals (trainers) need knowledge concerning the programme to be applied - contents, operation, and application process - as well as competences and generic pedagogical strategies that will enable them to manage learning dynamics (EMCDDA, 2018). Besides, the trainers must have an attitude of fidelity towards the structure and components of the programme to be implemented, and possess group management strategies (Orte, Ballester, Vives & Amer, 2015).

Indeed, effectiveness in the development of a programme is also linked to fidelity towards it, that is, respect towards the components of the programme and fulfilment of the criteria that ensure results (Borntrager, Chorpita, Higa-McMillan & Weisz, 2009; Forehand, Dorsey, Jones, Long & McMahon, 2010). Hence, it is necessary for trainers to know the content of the programme, have competences for its application, and show a favourable attitude towards the intervention model.

Trainers must be predisposed to the application of a programme of these characteristics and be aware of the need to respect its structure, that is, they must have a positive attitude towards evidence-based practice (Aarons, Cafri, Lugo, & Sawitzky, 2012; Beidas & Kendall, 2010). This favourable attitude may have been acquired previously due to the training received, implementation of other programmes, or, it can be instilled based on the specific training process.

The characteristics and profile of the professionals who implement the programme are variables that can influence its results (Asgary-Eden & Lee, 2011). Together with a favourable ability and attitude towards the application of a structured programme, the generic competences, skills, and personality traits of trainers can affect the success of actions (Eames et al., 2010; Turner, Nicholson & Sanders, 2011). In fact, the bond between professional and participants works as a key element that regulates the components that ensure the effectiveness of the intervention.

At the methodological level, the training process of a prevention programme must promote active learning and interaction between participants through teaching dynamics and methodologies that favour the acquirement of competences (Turner & Sanders, 2006), as well as building knowledge based on reflexion on the experience (Ormrod, 2003; Bonwel & Eison, 1991). This type of learning includes active participation techniques

that encourage direct intervention of participants in their training, such as role-playing, discussion, and reflexive questions (Beidas et al., 2012; Forehand et al., 2010; Scudder & Herschell, 2015; Turner, Nicholson & Sanders, 2011).

In accordance with this methodological and teaching model, the necessary competences are the skills of communication and empathy, the ability to explain the contents, group management, and participant motivation, confidence in their own skills, handling of participants with difficulties, personal responsibility in learning, and conflict resolution strategies (Orte et al., 2015). These factors can be considered and assessed as relevant variables in the development of prevention programmes. At the same time, these factors could be considered in the selection of trainers in order to refine and have the most adequate profiles (Forehand et al., 2010) or also to analyse the training needs of professionals so as to improve these skills, values, and favourable attitudes towards learning and change (Orte et al., 2016; Small et al., 2009).

The professional who participates in structured prevention programmes receives specific training in relation to the characteristics and techniques of the programme to be implemented, but it is necessary to consider the fact that their training and work experience guarantees a series of competences, skills, and attitudes that will facilitate the implementation, the relationship with participants, and group management. Precisely, this study involves an approach to professional competences based on the experience of the Family Competence Program (PCF).

The PCF is a multicomponent, family-focused prevention programme. Its aim is to promote protection factors and decrease the risk factors associated to young people through good family functioning. From a cognitive-emotional and socio-educational perspective, the PCF is aimed at strengthening family competence, family cohesion and organisation, communication, and cooperative problem resolution (Orte & Ballester, 2018). This programme involves a training process aimed at the professionals implementing it that includes the following thematic blocks:

A. Specific knowledge concerning the PCF: theoretical and experimental bases.

- B. Structure and contents of the PCF: components and factors involved.
- C. Operation of the sessions.
- D. Representation of the sessions and development of group dynamics.
- E. Evaluation of the programme.

Thus, the aim of the study presented herein was to analyse the general competences of the professionals going to implement the Family Competence Program. The goals set were the following: (1) Define the levels of competences of the trainers; (2) Specifically analyse the levels of competence according to five dimensions: intrapersonal, interpersonal, setting, task development, and management; (3) Analyse the differences existing between dimensions and in relation to levels of competence; and (4) Assess the goodness of fit of the competences analysed to the training needs of professionals implementing the PCF. With regard to the last goal, it would be especially relevant for them to have competences in the intrapersonal and interpersonal areas.

2. Methodology

A quantitative study based on a test was implemented. The evaluation was carried out prior to the implementation of the PCF in order to establish the profile of the professionals, by finding out their competences and their skills.

2.1. Sample

Non-probabilistic, accidental sampling was performed. Hence, the target sample corresponded to the study population – professionals who were going to implement the PCF, who had enrolled for specific training in the programme, and who worked in institutions or organisations that intervened with families or with minors. There were a total of 133 professionals who met these requirements and who were contacted to take part in the study. In the end, the data-producing sample comprised of 74.

Competences of the 74 professionals, with a clear female predominance (79.7%), were evaluated (see *Table 1*). Mean age of women was 38.53 years (SD=8.728) while that of men was 40.40 years (SD=5.779).

Table 1. Socio-demographic profile of the sample

	N	%
Professionals		
Men	15	20.3
Women	59	79.7
Age		
Under 30 years	8	10.8
Between 30 and 39 years	30	40.5
Between 40 and 49 years	30	40.5
Between 50 and 59 years	5	6.8
60 years or over	1	1.4
Training		
Secondary education	1	1.4
University degree	48	64.9
Postgraduate studies	25	33.8

Most professionals had a university degree (98.6%), and a third (33.8%) indicated that they also had postgraduate training. As can be observed in Table 2, the sample revealed very heterogeneous profiles, in both the area of training and work. 73% worked in fields related to social intervention with families, specifically, in Social Services (Balearic Islands) or in third social sector organisations, such as *Proyecto Hombre* (Balearic Islands and Castile and León), *Fundación Natzaret* (Balearic Islands), *Igaxes* (Galicia), and *Agintzari* (Basque Country). The rest – 20 participants – came from primary and secondary education centres in the Balearic Islands.

Table 2. Academic and work profile

Type of studies	N	%
Social education	22	29.7
Psychology	19	25.7
Pedagogy	14	18.9
Primary education	6	8.1
Social work	6	8.1
Arts and humanities	6	8.1
Sciences	1	1.4
Field in which they work		
Socio-educational field	54	73
School setting	20	27
Years spent working with families		
I have never worked	12	16.2
Less than 1 year	3	4.1
Between 1 year and less than 5 years	14	18.9
Between 5 years and less than 10 years	17	23.0
Between 10 years and less than 15 years	14	18.9
Over 15 years	14	18.9

One aspect to take into account is prior experience: 18.9% claimed to have more than 15 years' experience working with families (see Table 2). Likewise, there was also a wide range of functions carried out, with professionals specialised in programme application (8.1%), in therapeutic intervention (10.8%), and in providing educational support to families (18.9%) (see Table 3).

Table 3. Experience of socio-educational intervention with families

	N	%
Informative assistance and orientation	14	18.9
Educational support to families	14	18.9
(Family educator programme)	11	14.9
School centre tutoring	8	10.8
Therapeutic intervention	6	8.1
Programme application	5	6.8
Conflict resolution	3	4.1
Group dynamics	2	2.7
Training aimed at fathers and mothers	1	1.4
Administrative or documentary management	10	13.5
Others	74	100.0

2.2. Instrument

In order to assess participants, the CompeTEA test (Arribas & Pereña, 2009; 2015), which is specialised in assessing professional competences, was used. This is a self-administered test and, in this case, completed on-line, aimed at assessing 20 professional competences. The CompeTEA test comprises 170 items, grouped in the 20 competences and 5 thematic areas. The competences making up each area are presented below, together with one item by way of example (Arribas & Pereña, 2015):

- A. Intrapersonal Area. Referring to the way in which they relate to themselves.
- Emotional stability - *"I usually show a stable mood, with very few ups and downs"*.
 - Self-confidence - *"I feel good about myself"*.
 - Resistance to adversity - *"When difficult situations arise I face them as challenges to be overcome"*.
- B. Interpersonal Area. Relating to the way to relate to other people in the workplace.
- Negotiation - *"In a context of negotiation, it is difficult to understand some of the benefits that others want to achieve"*.
 - Communication - *"My co-workers find it hard to understand some of the things I communicate to them"*.

- Establishment of relationships - *"I enjoy a close relationship with each of my co-workers"*.
- Influence - *"I am a reference in the performance of the activities of other teams"*.
- Teamwork - *"People like working with me when forming a team"*.

C. Task development Area. Relating to the way in which their work tasks are tackled.

- Results orientation - *"I usually achieve the goals I set myself"*.
- Decision-making - *"I find it hard to make decisions when faced with a difficult problem"*.
- Analytical ability - *"Before making decisions I carefully analyse the information available"*.
- Initiative - *"I achieve goals better if I am left to myself as regards the way of doing it"*.

D. Setting Area. Relating to the way in which they relate to organisations or other agents in the profession.

- Knowledge of the company - *"I am aware of the weak points of my company compared to other companies"*.
- Customer orientation - *"I prefer not to deal directly with customers"*.
- Vision - *"I am able to anticipate the effects certain current events will have on my organisation or workplace"*.
- Openness - *"I am very interested in the technical innovations produced in my profession"*.
- Identification with the company - *"I like the values and style of management practised in my company"*.

E. Management Area. Relating to the way in which they manage, direct, or lead other people.

- Management - *"I prefer others to take charge of the management of and responsibility for a group of people"*.
- Leadership - *"My colleagues consider me the ideal person to carry out public communications"*.
- Organisation and planning - *"The structure and organisation of my company seem very complex to me"*.

Items follow a Likert scale, with four response options; with A) *always*, and D) *Hardly ever or never*.

Alpha coefficients of internal consistency of the questionnaire ranged between 0.58 and 0.77. These can be established as satisfactory values if the nature of the variables assessed and test

length are taken into account. Alpha coefficients in psychometric instruments with the same aim are similar: BIP (0.63 and 0.86), and 16PF-5 (0.61 and 0.85) (Arribas, 2009; Arribas & Pereña, 2015). With respect to the validity of the construct, confirmatory factorial analysis verified that the theoretical model of CompeTEA fits the empirical data. A high Goodness of Fit Index was achieved (GFI=0.972), which could indicate that it has adequate validity (Ibid). Besides, the instrument incorporates a sincerity factor that acts as a control variable (Ibid).

The duration for its administration is approximately 30 minutes.

2.3. Data analysis

Data analysis was divided into two differentiated levels:

A) *Normative level*: this level makes it possible to position the results with respect to

the representative normative sample of the population to be measured (Arribas, 2009). Specifically, it refers to the standardised scores based on the general scale used for the Spanish population (see *Table 4*).

B) *Criteria level*: this level refers to the behaviours the subject performs or might perform based on their test responses as the criterion. Scores are associated to the levels of competence obtained according to the direct scores. In this category 4 levels are identified:

- Level 0: Very low degree of competence
- Level 1: Low degree of competence
- Level 2: Intermediate degree of competence
- Level 3: High degree of competence
- Level 4: Very high degree of competence

Correspondence between scores and levels of competence can be observed in *Table 4*.

Table 4. Percentage of the general sample (N=18,036) in each level of competence of CompeTEA (Arribas & Pereña, 2015, p. 72)

	Levels				
	0	1	2	3	4
Emotional stability	1.2	7.5	48.3	32.4	10.5
Self-confidence	0.9	4.6	39.1	39.7	15.7
Resistance to adversity	1.2	8.5	45.1	32.3	12.8
Negotiation	0.5	2.7	29.6	41.3	25.9
Communication	1.3	9.1	36.7	41.0	11.8
Establishment of relationships	1.3	9.7	51.0	27.4	10.6
Influence	0.3	3.8	42.1	40.5	13.3
Teamwork	0.1	0.8	11.2	51.1	36.8
Results orientation	6.6	41.4	46.7	5.0	0.3
Decision-making	0.3	4.7	32.0	46.4	16.6
Analytical ability	0.2	1.3	15.8	50.5	32.2
Initiative	0.4	4.4	48.4	36.9	9.9
Knowledge of the company	0.4	3.4	23.8	42.7	29.7
Customer orientation	4.4	14.5	43.2	26.4	11.6
Vision	0.2	1.8	23.6	40.6	33.7

	Levels				
Openness	0.4	4.1	36.2	41.1	18.2
Identification with the company	0.4	3.7	23.8	45.1	26.9
Management	0.7	7.7	32.5	42.6	16.6
Leadership	2.4	14.5	38.6	35.2	9.3
Organisation and planning	0.6	6.4	31.0	45.1	16.9

3. Results

The sample studied revealed “*intermediate levels*” in the competences analysed. Namely, the five areas had mean standardised scores that ranged between 36.75 and 51.63 points.

Firstly, in the *Intrapersonal area*, according to the normative level, similarly weighted means were recorded on the global scale. Means ranged

between 41.09 ($SD=16.60$) for *Self-confidence* and 41.90 ($SD=12.74$) for *Emotional stability* (see Table 5). At the criteria level, participants obtained levels of competence of an “intermediate degree”. In this sense, they recorded a higher level of competence in the *Self-confidence* competence, referring to how professionals feel in relation to themselves.

Table 5. Descriptive statistics concerning the scores obtained in the Intrapersonal area

Scales	Means (Standard deviation) direct score	Means (Standard deviation) S score	Level of competence
Emotional stability	19.72 (1.80)	41.90 (12.74)	2.13 (0.53)
Self-confidence	20.57 (2.23)	41.09 (16.60)	2.27 (0.66)
Resistance to adversity	19.90 (2.14)	41.36 (14.92)	2.09 (14.92)
	Means (Standard deviation) direct score	Means (Standard deviation) S score	
Intrapersonal Area	87.72 (24.52)	35.42 (11.27)	

With respect to the normative level, referring to the *Interpersonal area*, professionals obtained higher standardised mean scores in *Communication* ($M=47.4$; $SD=61.92$) and in *Stability in relationships* ($M=45.22$; $SD=17.43$) (see Table 6). Nevertheless, at the criteria level, the sample had higher mean scores in the competences of *Teamwork* ($M=2.88$; $SD=0.64$) and also in *Communication*

($M=2.4$; $SD=0.77$). Meanwhile, the mean score in the *Negotiation* competence was lower ($M=2$; $SD=0.49$) (see Table 6). Therefore, if both levels are taken into account (normative and criteria), the sample revealed “*intermediate levels of competence*”, with *Communication* particularly standing out.

Table 6. Descriptive statistics concerning the scores obtained in the Interpersonal area

Scales	Means (Standard deviation) direct score	Means (Standard deviation) S score	Level of competence
Stability in relationships	23.81 (2.879)	45.22 (17.43)	2.36 (0.71)
Influence	20.48 (2.565)	41.45 (12.86)	2.25 (0.70)
Negotiation	19.42 (1.78)	41.82 (12.86)	2 (0.49)
Communication	21.16 (2.32)	47.46 (61.92)	2.4 (0.77)
Teamwork	26.16 (2.25)	40.16 (17.02)	2.88 (0.64)
	Means (Standard deviation) direct score	Means (Standard deviation) S score	
Interpersonal Area	87.72 (24.52)	35.42 (12.98)	

In the area of *Task development*, the *Initiative* competence obtained a mean of 50.77 ($SD=18.80$) in the standardised scores (that is, with respect to the normative population); however, at the criteria level, it was categorised as a “low level” ($M=1.54$; $SD=0.64$) (see Table 7). Of all the levels of competence evaluated, the lowest mean score was recorded in the *Initiative* competence (with mean scores lower than 48.4 considered as “low level”)

(see Table 4). Nonetheless, the highest mean in this dimension was recorded for *Results orientation*, which produced a mean standard score of 43.51 ($SD=13.89$), with an “intermediate level” of 2.75. Intermediate-high scores in the *Results orientation* competence indicated that professionals preferred to work in accordance with demanding goals, by managing resources in order to achieve established goals.

Table 7. Descriptive statistics concerning the scores obtained in the Task Development area

Scales	Means (Standard deviation) direct score	Means (Standard deviation) S score	Level of competence
Results orientation	22.28 (1.91)	43.51 (13.89)	2.75 (0.63)
Decision-making	19.70 (2.64)	37.90 (20.90)	2.11 (0.75)
Analytical ability	25.15 (2.59)	36.72 (17.46)	2.65 (0.67)
Initiative	27.78 (3.26)	50.77 (18.80)	1.54 (0.64)
	Means (Standard deviation) direct score	Means (Standard deviation) S score	
Task development Area	100.88 (34.58)	30.21 (16.34)	

The *Setting* area referred to the way in which examinees related to organisations and the participants they worked with. With regard to the criteria level, the competence of *Customer orientation* stood out as the one with a greater

competence mean ($M=2.75$; $SD=0.64$). Meanwhile, as for the population – normative interpretation – the highest mean in standardised scores was the one awarded to *Vision and anticipation* ($M=51.63$; $SD=14.96$) (see Table 8).

Table 8. Descriptive statistics concerning the scores obtained in the Setting area

Scales	Means (Standard deviation) direct score	Means (Standard deviation) S score	Level of competence
Knowledge of the workplace	24.65 (2.89)	38.72 (17.73)	2.47 (0.76)
Participant/user orientation	22.28 (1.91)	43.51 (13.89)	2.75 (0.64)
Vision	20.69 (2.51)	51.63 (14.96)	2.30 (0.79)
Openness	21.13 (2.82)	45.66 (21.25)	2.50 (0.92)
Identification with the company	24.89 (2.52)	41.62 (14.78)	2.56 (0.64)
	Means (Standard deviation) direct score	Means (Standard deviation) S score	
Setting Area	147.23 (40.23)	33.43 (15.16)	

Lastly, associated with the *Management* area, the scores showed “intermediate criteria levels”, with means ranging between 2.03 and 2.08 (with a deviation located between 0.69 and 0.75) (see

Table 9). Means of the standardised scores could also be categorised as “intermediate results”, ranging from 36.75 ($SD=16.27$) to 43.65 ($SD=16.16$).

Table 9. Descriptive statistics concerning the scores obtained in the Management area

Scales	Means (Standard deviation) direct score	Means (Standard deviation) S score	Level of competence
Management	22.89 (2.77)	36.75 (16.27)	2.08 (0.75)
Leadership	22.63 (3.07)	43.65 (16.16)	2.03 (0.83)
Organisation and planning	23.85 (2.62)	40.81 (15.94)	2.34 (0.69)
	Means (Standard deviation) direct score	Means (Standard deviation) S score	
Management Area	83.58 (27.05)	29.61 (13.68)	

With respect to the differences between areas in professionals, it is worth highlighting that the *Intrapersonal*, *Interpersonal*, and *Setting* areas stood out as they had higher mean scores than *Task development* and *Management*. Specifically, based on a paired t test, statistically significant differences were identified between the scores obtained between the *Interpersonal* and *Task development* areas ($p<0.01$). Thus, higher mean scores were recorded in the competences referring to the *Interpersonal* area ($M=35.4189$; $SD=12.99$) than

in that of *Task development* ($M=30.22$; $SD=16.34$) (see Tables 6, 7, and 10). Likewise, statistically significant differences appeared between the mean scores of the *Interpersonal* and *Management* areas ($p<0.01$), with the competences associated to the *Interpersonal* area showing higher mean scores ($M=29.61$; $SD=13.68$) (see Table 10). On the other hand, no statistically significant differences were observed between the *Interpersonal* and *Setting* areas.

Table 10. Paired t test

Dimensions	Mean Difference	Dev. Deviation	95% confidence interval of the difference		t	gl	Sig. (bilateral)
			Lower	Higher			
Interpersonal-Intrapersonal	.00000	9.61021	-2.22651	2.22651	.000	73	1.000
Interpersonal-Task development	5.20270	11.82171	2.46383	7.94157	3.786	73	.000**
Interpersonal-Setting	1.98649	12.38923	-.88386	4.85684	1.379	73	.172
Interpersonal-Management	5.81081	9.83658	3.53186	8.08976	5.082	73	.000**
Intrapersonal-Task development	5.20270	14.90332	1.74988	8.65552	3.003	73	.004*
Intrapersonal-Setting	1.98649	14.39034	-1.34749	5.32046	1.187	73	.239
Intrapersonal-Management	5.81081	12.09854	3.00781	8.61382	4.132	73	.000**
Task development-Setting	-3.21622	15.38837	-6.78141	.34898	-1.798	73	.076
Task development-Management	.60811	11.27467	-2.00402	3.22024	.464	73	.644
Setting-Management	3.82432	14.34254	.50143	7.14722	2.294	73	.025*

*p<0.05; **p<0.01

It is worth noting that the *Intrapersonal* and *Interpersonal* dimensions had the same mean score in the normative interpretation ($M=35.42$), although different standard deviations were recorded (SD of the *Interpersonal* area = 12.99 as opposed to the SD of the *Intrapersonal* area = 11.27) (see Table 5 and Table 6).

Similarly, statistically significant differences were also identified between the *Intrapersonal* and *Task development* areas ($p<0.05$), with a mean difference of 5.20 points ($SD=14.90$) in favour of the *Intrapersonal* area. Likewise, statistically significant differences ($p<0.05$) were found between the *Intrapersonal* and *Management* areas, once again in favour of the *Intrapersonal* area (see Table 5 and Table 9).

However, no statistically significant differences were found between the *Intrapersonal* and *Setting* areas.

While greater mean scores were obtained in the area of *Setting*, no statistically significant differences were recorded with respect to the professional competences associated between

this and the area of *Task development* ($p>0.05$). Along the same line, neither were any statistically significant differences recorded between competences in the areas of *Task development* and *Management* ($p=0.644$), with a mean difference of 0.61 ($SD=11.27$) (see Table 10).

Lastly, when comparing the areas of *Setting* and *Management*, statistically significant differences were identified between both mean scores ($p<0.05$), indicating that participants would have a greater level of competence in the area of *Setting* than in that of *Management* ($M=3.82$; $SD=14.34$) (see Table 8, Table 9, and Table 10).

4. Discussion

This study carries out an examination of the professional profile of participating professionals (and future trainers) in a train-the-trainer programme for prevention with adolescents, revealing intermediate levels of competence and some remarkable differences. A first reading of the results makes it possible to confirm that the level

of general competence of the sample analysed conforms to generic competences, applicable in both their reference work setting, and in their intervention as trainers in a prevention programme. Participants recorded “intermediate levels” with respect to how they felt with themselves (Intrapersonal area), related to others (Interpersonal area), approached their intervention in the workplace (Setting area), and were oriented towards professional tasks (Task development area). The competences that obtained the best mean scores were Self-confidence, Communication, Teamwork, Participant orientation, and Results orientation. This is an adequate level of generic competences, as they are skills that can have a considerable influence on an adequate implementation of programmes (Eames et al., 2010; Turner, Nicholson & Sanders, 2011).

The results obtained show that the Intrapersonal, Interpersonal, and Setting areas have higher mean scores in their competences than those related to the areas of Task development and Management. Specifically, the highest mean scores in the test were identified in the Intrapersonal and Interpersonal areas, with these two areas, in fact, making up the main competences the trainer needs for a family prevention programme: communication ability, the ability to work in a team (Orte et al., 2016), and confidence in their own abilities (Orte et al., 2015). It must be remembered that in the Intrapersonal area – related to emotional stability, self-confidence, resilience in adverse situations, and ability to cope – the “highest level” obtained in this study is found in the Self-confidence competence – referring to how professionals feel with themselves. In the Interpersonal area, the Communication competence is the one that has the highest mean scores, followed by Teamwork. Although other competences in this area, such as Negotiation, Establishment of relationships, or Influence, are also relevant for the trainer profile, they recorded lower mean scores, despite still being relatively high.

In the Task development area, the most outstanding competence is that of Results orientation, obtaining an “intermediate-high level”. This competence involves the ability to orient work towards the intended objectives – by managing resources so as to achieve the established goals – and corresponds to the ability to follow the guidelines established by a structured programme, in accordance with the components and in compliance with the criteria that will ensure the results,

aspects that are considered relevant in the impartation of highly structured programmes (Borntrager et al. 2009; Forehand et al., 2010).

5. Conclusion

The present study was aimed at analysing the generic competences of professionals who implement the Family Competence Program and their goodness of fit to the training needs of this prevention programme. The results show an intermediate level of competence, which ensures a correct implementation, but also indicate room for improvement in certain competences.

One limitation of the study lies in the size of the sample, which, on the one hand, does not allow for a generalisation of the results; and on the other hand, has prevented an analysis of the differences in level of competence according to the different personal and professional characteristics of the participants. Even taking these limitations into consideration, on the one hand, this study offers a view of the skills the professionals have; and, on the other hand, opens up new paths for research.

In this sense, it is worth noting that it would be interesting to go further into an analysis with respect to the potential differences existing between professionals in terms of their academic training and the fields of intervention of reference. Professionals with diverse training and roles participated in the study depending on their specialisation in the school setting, the field of socio-educational intervention with early childhood, youths and families, or the field of intervention specialising in the prevention of drug addiction. Hence, the analysis of the competences associated to the different professional profiles and corresponding academic profiles entail lines of future research. Further, a differentiated analysis of the competences will make it possible to design specific training actions for learning group management skills through strategies to improve communication, empathy, the ability to create a positive climate, motivation, and conflict resolution.

Other lines of research could, also, include the analysis of the level of competence of professionals before training in a preventive programme and after experience in the progressive application of said programme, in order to analyse the level of successive gain, if there is any, on the basis of training and first-hand experience.

Note

- ¹ EDU2016-79235-R - "VALIDACIÓN DEL PROGRAMA DE COMPETENCIA FAMILIAR UNIVERSAL 10-14, PCF-U", 2017-2019. State Programme of R+D+i Aimed at Societal Challenges: R+D Projects. Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness.

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PARENTS AND SUBSTANCE ABUSE PREVENTION: CURRENT STATE AND FUTURE CHALLENGES

PADRES Y PREVENCIÓN DE CONSUMO DE DROGAS: ESTADO DE LA CUESTIÓN Y RETOS DE FUTURO

OS PAIS E A PREVENÇÃO DO ABUSO DE SUBSTÂNCIAS: ESTADO ATUAL E DESAFIOS FUTUROS

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<p>KEY WORDS: substance abuse prevention parents family.</p>	<p>ABSTRACT: The purpose of the current review is to provide an updated portrayal of current knowledge concerning the role of the family in children and youth's substance abuse prevention. A review of the literature highlights the notion that incorporating parental involvement in youth's substance abuse prevention is highly accepted. Accordingly, many programs have been developed incorporating parental involvement, some of which are internationally popular. While there is evidence that these parent-focused programs have significant utility, several topics still need further elaboration including: What is the best timing (in terms of children's age) for parental engagement in the process of preventing children's substance abuse? What new paths can be identified for intervention? How can family' participation be fostered? And especially, how can a balance be reached between generic principals of positive parenting and appropriate, local and sensitive, ways to implement them among non-western populations?</p>
<p>PALABRAS CLAVE: consumo de drogas prevención padres familia</p>	<p>RESUMEN: El objetivo del artículo es proporcionar una descripción actualizada del conocimiento sobre el papel de la familia en la prevención del consumo de drogas en niños y jóvenes. La revisión de la literatura parte de la premisa que la incorporación de los padres a la prevención en los jóvenes es altamente aceptada. Se han desarrollado diferentes programas que incorporan la participación de los padres, algunos de los cuales reconocidos internacionalmente. Si bien hay evidencia que estos programas parentales son eficaces, varios temas aún necesitan mayor elaboración, incluyendo: ¿cuál es el mejor momento (en términos de la edad de los niños) para la participación de los padres en el proceso preventivo de los niños? ¿Qué nuevos caminos se pueden identificar para intervenir? ¿Cómo se puede fomentar la participación de la familia? Y especialmente, ¿cómo se puede alcanzar un equilibrio entre los principios genéricos de parentalidad positiva y las formas apropiadas, locales y sensibles de implementarlos entre las poblaciones no occidentales?</p>

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PALAVRAS-CHAVE: Abuso de substâncias Prevenção Pais Família	RESUMO: O propósito desta revisão é fornecer um retrato atualizado do conhecimento atual sobre o papel da família na prevenção do abuso de substâncias por crianças e jovens. Uma revisão da literatura destaca a noção que incorporar o envolvimento dos pais na prevenção do abuso de substâncias pelos jovens é altamente aceito. Da mesma forma, muitos programas foram desenvolvidos incorporando envolvimento parental, alguns dos quais são internacionalmente populares. Enquanto há provas de que esses programas focados nos pais têm uma utilidade significativa, vários tópicos ainda precisam de mais elaboração incluindo: Qual é o melhor momento (em termos de idade da criança) para o envolvimento dos pais no processo de prevenção de abuso infantil de substâncias? O que novos caminhos podem ser identificados para intervenção? Como a participação da família pode ser promovida? E, especialmente, como pode ser alcançado um equilíbrio entre princípios genéricos da parentalidade positiva e formas apropriadas, locais e sensíveis, de implementá-las entre as populações não ocidentais?
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1. Introduction

The important role that the family plays in both the emergence and the prevention of problem behavior is repeatedly highlighted (e.g., Romano & Israelashvili, 2017). Yet, the increasing number of suggested interventions, in this context, call for even more awareness to the danger of expanding from solid to rather unjustifiable incorporation of the family in prevention activities (Israelashvili, 2017). Such an awareness is further needed in light of the new challenges that enforce restatement of substance prevention efforts, goals and best procedures (e.g., marijuana legalization; Shover & Humphreys, 2019).

In pursuit of improving future explorations and interventions in this context, the purpose of this review is to provide an updated portrayal of current knowledge on the role of the family in children and youth's substance abuse prevention. The review starts with advocating the increasing attention to family role in substance abuse prevention. Following this, a review of existing parents-focused interventions is supplied. Then, special attention will be given to the global state of parents-focused interventions efforts that have been administered outside of North-America, and limits of current knowledge. Based on the various models, goals and practices reviewed the programs review and analysis, several conclusions and generalizations are drawn, indicating the limited utility of existing parents-focused substance prevention programs while addressing non-western populations. Finally, several challenges to the international community of prevention scientists and practitioners, once addressing the family role and incorporation in substance abuse prevention efforts, will be outlined.

2. The increasing role of parents-focused prevention in substance abuse

According to the recent United Nations World Drug Report (UNODC, 2018), among people aged

15-64 years in the world: 11-21 million inject drugs; 16-38 million are "problematic drug users"; and 155-250 million "have used drugs at least once in the past year", mostly cannabis. Internationally, these numbers represent a rate of 5.6% among people aged 15-64 in the world that are involved (in various levels) of drug consumption. Clearly, when the use of other substances is taken into account (e.g., alcohol; pills) the scope of reference for substance abuse prevention efforts becomes much larger.

Interestingly, moving beyond the global rate of substance abuse, major differences are found between various parts of the world, both in the general annual rate of drug consumption and in the relative use of different kinds of drugs (e.g., cocaine). These international differences exist for comparisons between continents (e.g., USA vs. Europe) as well as between different nations within the same continent (e.g., Greece, Germany, Hungary vs. Spain, Italy, UK).and In light of these findings, unsurprisingly, substance abuse prevention is a major issue in many nations' ministries of health and education, with the United Nations Office on Drug and Crime (UNODC) making active efforts to promote international collaboration in the establishment of anti-drug policy and effective activities (e.g., ADLOMIC, 2010). Notably, while a gradual change in many governments' anti-drug policy is occurring - i.e., the current trend of cannabis/marihuana legalization - universal prevention of children and youth's substance abuse remains a major mission for many nations. For example, the Australian Ministerial Drug and Alcohol Forum (2017) declared that one of the nation drug strategies in 2017-2026 is to "prevent uptake and delay first use" (p. 13). Another example is the *Japanese Council for Promoting Measures to Prevent Drug Abuse's* (2010) statement that its first objective is "to eradicate drug abuse by young people and boost normative consciousness to deny drug abuse" (p. 3), a statement that was later (2013) updated saying "...it remains essential to provide students in elementary, junior high and high schools

with complete guidance and enhanced education for preventing drug abuse..." (p. 10).

Parallel to educational and health systems' efforts, at an early point in the journey to prevent youth's substance abuse, researchers (e.g., Lochman, & van den Steenhoven, 2002; Nelson, 1989) noted the importance of incorporating the family in prevention efforts. Furthermore, substance abuse was described as a disease that includes "both genetic and family environmental causes" (Kumpfer, Alvarado, & Whiteside, 2003). In line with this notion, the UNODC published several items regarding the importance of working with parents (<https://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/prevention/familyskillstraining.html>), such as guidelines to implement family skills training programs for drug abuse prevention (2009) and a recent publication (2018) on "The role of parents in preventing drug use".

From a scientific point of view, an indication of the growing importance that is attributed to the family in substance abuse prevention efforts is represented by the number of scientific publications that have been published on this topic. An analysis of the annual average number of publications that deal with the terms "substance abuse prevention" and "family" – as cited by *PsycINFO*, *Google Scholar* and *ERIC* databases – has gradually increased from 35 in 1969-1982, to 256 in 1988-1990, to 555 in 2000-2003 and up to 850 in 2015-2018. The increasing shift from prevention efforts that address youth alone to prevention efforts that incorporate the family is global. For example, Ortega et al.'s (2016) description of substance abuse prevention programs in Italy demonstrates this trend. According to Ortega et al. (2016), recent surveys among youth have indicated that cannabis use is slightly more common among Italian youth in comparison to youth from other European nations, with 1 out of 5 Italian school students having used cannabis at least once (EMCDDA, 2018). However, most prevention programs that has been implemented in Italy were either not theory-driven or lacked a solid evaluation of their effectiveness and efficacy. In response, Ortega et al. carefully adapted the Strengthening Families Program 10-14 (10-14 SFP) for administration among Italian families (see below).

Several reasons can be suggested to explain the growing attention to the role of the family in substance abuse prevention, including:

1. Counter-preventive family circumstances: Sometimes one of the family members uses drugs of different kinds (e.g., drugs, alcohol, cigarettes; Catalano, 1997). In addition, family members may be addicted to various unhealthy materials (e.g., soft drinks; sweets)

or other addictive behavior (e.g., work). Hence, in these families the child has a negative role model that might foster, rather than prevent, the tendency to explore drugs. Naturally, preventive interventions that address these at-risk children have to focus on both the child and his/her family (e.g., Catalano, 1997; Haggerty, 2008).

2. Problems within the family: Problems within the family may sometimes lead a child to abuse drugs in an attempt to achieve a sense of calmness and relief from the problem. A major example of this is parental conflicts that (are about to) lead to divorce (Kelly, Weier, & Hall, 2019). Another example would be a mental health problem, such as depression among one of the family members (Hahn, 1998). Thus, it is essential to guide the family members in how to deal with the problem they are encountering while not putting/shifting too much pressure on to the child (e.g., Sandler, 2017); otherwise the child may escape this pressure through drug use.
3. Parents monitoring of the child: Many virtues of proper parental monitoring of the child are outlined in the literature (e.g., Darling, & Tilton-Weaver, 2019; Lv, Lv, Yan, & Luo, 2019; Willoughby, & Hamza, 2011). One of them is the parents' ability to identify early use of drugs, by inspecting changes in the child's regular behavior (Dishion, & McMahon, 1998; Haas, Zamboanga, Bersamin, & Hyke, 2018). Accordingly, incorporating the parents in efforts to prevent children's substance abuse would help parents (or other family members) acquire better knowledge of how to identify and cope with children's preliminary experience with drugs.
4. Support in implementing the prevention program: Naturally, prevention programs always have a limited number of sessions (or activities). Moreover, frequently the program developers rely on the program participants' explorative implementation of the various component being suggested to them (i.e., as an alternative to drug use). This would be the case especially if the program is based on cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT; e.g., Salvo, Bennett, Cheung, & Bowlby, 2012). Hence, incorporating the parents in substance abuse prevention programs actually recruits them as an aid to ensure that the child will keep up with the program's requirements. In addition, parental involvement in the program has the potential to enlist them as a valuable source of

support for the child when coping with daily hassles, especially those circumstances that might lead to substance use.

5. There is some evidence showing that the value of intervention among adolescents is greater when the adolescents know that a parallel substance abuse prevention intervention is being implemented among their parents (e.g., Madon et al., 2013 Nash, McQueen, & Bray, 2005).
6. Accumulation of evidence: Accumulating findings from various evaluation studies indicate the positive impact of parents-focused intervention on the prevention of child's and adolescent's substance abuse prevention (e.g., Allen et al., 2016; Bates et al., 2017; Brody et al., 2012; Jensen et al., 2014; Kumpfer & Alvarado, 2003; Lochman, & van den Steenhoven, 2002; Lohrmann, Alter, Greene, & Younoszai, 2005; Pilgrim, Abbey, Hendrickson, & Lorenz, 1998; Skeer et al., 2016). Moreover, it has been suggested that the effect of familial approaches to substance abuse prevention is up to 2-9 time larger than prevention approaches for

children alone (Kumpfer, Alvarado, & Whiteside, 2003).

3. Programs that address the parents

The increasing evidence on the utility of implementing parents-focused preventive interventions has served as a buffer for the development of additional ones. Thus, the literature reports a relatively large number of prevention programs that address the parents. For the current review, based on the selection criteria of “substance abuse prevention” and “family”, family-focused preventive interventions for substance abuse were searched for on major databases. The search in the data files was conducted for the combination of the words “Drug abuse” AND “intervention” AND “parents”. The search of these words was performed twice: firstly, as “Everywhere in the articles; secondly, as Keywords. As presented in Table 1, results of these searches yielded more than 6,000 references (some of them overlapping) out of them 446 papers in which these search words appeared as Keywords.

TABLE 1. Search words and number of manuscripts found (everywhere) and reviewed (by keywords) on the topic of: parent-focused interventions in reducing or preventing adolescent tobacco, alcohol, and illicit substance use			
Date File	Search words	Identified	
		Everywhere	In Keywords and Reviewed
PsychNET	Drug abuse AND intervention AND parents	128	128
Psychiatry Online	Substance abuse AND intervention AND parents	89	89
	Drugs abuse AND intervention AND Parents	2200	140
PubMed	Substance abuse AND intervention AND parents	2332	54
ProQuest	(Subject) drug abuse AND (subject) intervention AND (subject) parents	353	24
Eric	Drugs abuse AND (mainsubject) intervention AND (subject) parents	122	4
Scopus	Drugs AND abuse AND intervention AND parents	80	7
Total			446

For the purpose of the current review, we checked the abstract of these 446 papers in search of either a comprehensive description or an evaluation of a documented (elsewhere)

program to prevent substance abuse by addressing (sometimes - also) the parents.
Based on this review, the following (alphabetically) list of programs were identified:

1. *ADF*: Alcohol, Drugs and the Family (Velleman & Templeton, 2003)
2. *ATP*: The Adolescent Transitions Program (Connellet al., 2007; Dishion, & Kavanagh, 2000)
3. *BABES*: Beginning Alcohol and Addictions Basic Education Studies (Hahn, Hall, Rayens, Myers, & Bonnel, 2007)
4. Celebrating Families (Celebrando Familias; Sparks, Tisch, & Gardner, 2013).
5. *DTBY*: DARE to be You (Miller-Heyl, MacPhee, & Fritz, 1998).
6. eHealth Familias Unidas Primary Care (Perrino et al., 2018; Prado et al., 2019)
7. *FPNG*: Families Preparing the New Generation (Nagoshi et al., 2018; Familias Preparando la Nueva Generación; Marsiglia et al., 2018)
8. Family Circles Program (Van Stelle, Allen, & Moberg, 1998)
9. Family Matters (Bauman, Foshee, Ennett, Hicks, & Pemberton, 2001)
10. *FET*: Family Effectiveness Training (Szapocznik et al, 1989)
11. Focus on Families Project (Catalano, et al., 1999; Haggarty, 2008)
12. Going Places program (Simons-Morton, Haynie, Saylor, Crump, & Chen, 2005)
13. Health-Related Information and Dissemination Among Youth (HRIDAY;) intervention (Perry, Stigler, Arora, & Reddy, 2008)
14. Home Based (Winters, Botzet, Dittel, Fahnhorst, & Nicholson, 2015)
15. *HSD*: Healthy School and Drugs program (Malmberg et al., 2014)
16. *ISFP*: Iowa Strengthening Families Program (Kumpfer, Molgaard, & Spoth, 1996; Spoth, Goldberg, & Redmond, 1999;) + Strengthening Families Program for Parents and Youths ages 10-14 (SFP10-14) (Riesch et al., 2012)
17. *IY*: The Incredible Years (Webster-Stratton, & Reid, 2007).
18. *MBI*: Media-based intervention (Jason, Pokorny, Kohner, & Bennetto, 1994).
19. Media Detective Family Program (Scull, Kuipersmidt, & Weatherholt, 2017)
20. *OPP*: Orbero prevention program (Bodin & Strandberg, 2011)
21. *PAS*: Prevention of Alcohol Use in Students program (Koning et al. 2009)
22. *PDFY*: Preparing for the Drug Free Years (Kosterman, Hawkins, Spoth, Haggerty, & Zhu, 1997)
23. *PMTO*: Parent Management Training - Oregon Model (Forgatch, & DeGarmo, 1999; Forgatch, & Kjøbli, 2016)
24. Project *ECOS* - Estratégias Comunitárias de Observação Social (Martinho et al. 2017)
25. Project Northlands (Perry et al., 2002)
26. *PACE*: Parenting Adolescents: A Creative Experience (Jenkin & Bretherton, 1994)
27. *SAAF*: The Strong African American Family (Beach, Lei, Gene., & Philibert, 2018)
28. Safe Haven Program (Aktan, 1998)
29. *SAFE*: Project for a Substance Abuse-Free Environment (Van Hasselt et al., 1993)
30. Staying Connected with Your Teen (Haggerty, Skinner, Catalano, Abbott, & Crutchfield, 2015)
31. *SUPER II* program (Bruce, & Emshoff, 1992)
32. Triple-P (Sanders, 2012)

Generally speaking, models of intervention among parents focus on the reduction of coercive parenting through the teaching of positive parenting strategies (Gewirtz, & Youssef, 2017). In relation to substance abuse prevention, previous research has suggested that parents' importance in drug use prevention programs stems from their potential positive impact on the protective and risk factors that might lead to substance abuse (Horigian, Anderson, & Szapocznik, 2016). However, it should be noted that the variance among the various substance abuse prevention programs is large in terms of their major goal (i.e., some of them are universal prevention programs, while others declare that they focus on selective prevention, indicative prevention, or even comprehensive family therapy), their secondary goals (i.e., talking with children, eating family meals, using specific criteria for success, etc.), their frame of reference, their ways of intervening, etc.

In their 2003 review of the Family-Strengthening Program for the Prevention of Youth Problem Behaviors, Kumpfer and Alvarado (2003) identified 13 principles that should be embedded in an effective parents-focused intervention, as follows:

1. Comprehensive multicomponent interventions, rather than a single component
2. Emphasis on family strengths, resilience, and protective processes rather than deficits
3. Addressing strategies for improving family relations, communication, and parental monitoring
4. Producing cognitive, affective, and behavioral changes in the ongoing family dynamics and environment
5. Increased dosage or intensity among higher risk families
6. Adaptation to the child's age
7. Beginning early in life if the parents are very dysfunctional

8. Addressing developmentally appropriate risk and protective factors when participants are receptive to change
9. Cultural adaptation to the family's traditions
10. Using incentive to encourage parents' participation
11. Using trained personnel
12. Using more interactive and less didactic sessions
13. Encouraging participant's initiation of possible solutions

Review of the more recent family-focused programs in the area of substance abuse prevention indicates that they fit most of these principles, and highlights additional principles, including:

Fostering parents to be more involved in the child's life

- Encouraging communication between family members
- Fostering parents' – sometimes as well as children's – social skills
- Instructing parents regarding ways of identifying their child's substance abuse
- Reducing risk factors and promoting protective factors within the family; e.g., providing a sense of security; keeping-up with home regulations; reducing chaotic family climate; encouraging children's adaptive coping behavior; stopping parental maltreatment (if it exists); being highly responsive to the child(ren); supplying warmth, consistency, age-appropriate expectations and praise for accomplishments; encouraging children's positive social interaction with peers; supplying and encouraging opportunities for physical exercise. In addition the parents are guided to monitor the possible emergence of individual (i.e., in the child) risk factors, such as bullying, deviant peer relationships and depression (Whitesell, Bachand, Peel, & Brown, 2013).

Generally speaking, interventions among families aim to achieve these goals through the use of one or several of the following components (see, for example, Allen et al., 2016): Booklets; Sessions (for either the parents alone; the children alone; and/or parents+children; or a combination of the various types of sessions); Newsletters/leaflets; Online sessions; Videos; Telephone calls; Notebook exercises; Audio CDs; Family visits; Individual motivational interviews; Consultation; Recess games; and, last but not least, payment for participation in the program (e.g., Haggerty, Skinner, Catalano et al., 2015). Naturally, most of the parent-focused prevention programs target several of the

above mentioned goals and use a combination of components to change parental behavior and, as a result, the child's inclination to substance abuse. Below are three examples.

eHealth Familias Unidas Primary Care (Prado et al., 2019) is an Internet-based, parents-centered, Hispanic-specific, evidence-based prevention intervention that has been implemented and evaluated in South Florida (USA). The intervention is implemented by trained interns, clinic volunteers, social workers, mental health counselors, students, and nurses. *eHealth Familias Unidas Primary Care* targets the parent (only), uses the Internet as a vehicle for intervention delivery, and is delivered by professionals (i.e., nurses, social workers, mental health counselors), students (i.e., master's and doctoral level psychology, social work, and public health students) and trained volunteers. The program is an Internet adaptation of the *Familias Unidas* face-to-face intervention (Prado & Pantin, 2011). The intervention consists of 4 parents sessions, delivered in Spanish or English via web conferencing software and 8 e-parent group video sessions in Spanish that are accessed via a website.

With reference to the syntonic telenovela/soap opera episodes, the 8 e-parent video group sessions deal with the following contents: encouragement of parental engagement in the prevention program; acquaintance with adolescent risk factors in the family, peer, and schools. enhancement of communication skills; supplying support alongside effective discipline; parental monitoring of adolescents' peer activities; strategies to prevent adolescent drug use; teaching the child effective management of peer pressure to engage in drug use; involvement in the adolescent's school world; fostering adolescent's safe sexual practices; communicating the dangers and consequences of risky sexual behavior; and review of the intervention program, highlighting the importance of parental involvement, family communication, family support, and parental monitoring in combating these risks. Finally, the e-parent group discussions provide the parents with the opportunity to practice the skills learned in the 8 e-parent group sessions with their adolescent.

Another example, is the *Staying Connected with Your Teen*® prevention program. *Staying Connected with Your Teen*® is a family-centered intervention that is offered to parents and their eighth-grade child, that aims to reduce family stressors and conflicts, and increase parental communication and involvement in the child's life. The program tries to make a change in parental behavior and family management, by drawing their attention to proper guidelines, monitoring

and consequences in their interactions with the child. The program uses a seven-chapter (108 pages) parents workbook and a video (117 minutes), divided into 18 sections, that is used in conjunction with each of the workbook's chapters. The program addresses risk factors, such as family conflict and parental attitudes toward drug use, alongside the development of protective factors, such as taking advantage of opportunities and rewarding strategies (Catalano and Hawkins 1996). Notably, the participating families receive up to \$100 for their participation in the program activities. Recent evaluations (Haggerty et al., 2015) have demonstrated the utility of the Staying Connected with Your Teen® program among US families. Accordingly, exploration of the program among children in foster families has indicated the positive impact of the Staying Connected with Your Teen® program, in terms of stronger family management, better communication between the caregivers and adolescent child, more teen participation in setting family rules, and a decline in positive teen attitudes toward antisocial behavior (Haggerty, Barkan, Skinner, Packard, & Cole, 2016).

Another and last example is *The Strengthening Families Program (SFP)*. SFP is a highly structured, evidence-based parents skills training preventive intervention. While originally the program was developed to help families of juvenile offenders and prevent these children from using drugs (Kumpfer, Molgaard, & Spoth, 1996), in their recent publications, the program developers (Kumpfer, Magalhães, & Greene, 2016) describe their major goal in more general terms; i.e., "to improve the happiness and quality of life of families".

A later version of the SEP is the Strengthening Families Program for Parents and Youths ages 10-14 (SFP10-14). The program focuses on the advancement of good parenting skills and positive family relationships, the reduction of aggressive, hostile behavior, and substance abuse in adolescence and improvement of family relationships. The program is taught in the evenings, with about 7-10 families over seven weeks, and uses narrated videos portraying typical youth and parent situations with diverse families. The program is composed of three major blocks: (1) parent effectiveness training, (2) child skills-building, and (3) parents sessions. Parents and youth meet in separate groups for the first hour and together as families during the second hour to practice skills, play games, and do family projects. The parent sessions consist of parental skill-building activities; The youth sessions include social bonding activities; and the following parents sessions address topics like: family bonding, positive communication, and family problem solving. Evaluation

studies have indicated that the program provides solid support for American families (e.g., Gest, Osgood, Feinberg, Bierman, & Moody, 2011; Spoth, Redmond, Mason, Schainker, & Borduin, 2015). Interestingly, there is evidence that administration of the SFP10-14 has positive impact beyond the participants themselves, and has also contributed to the participants' peers (Rulison, Feinberg, Gest, & Osgood, 2015).

Further explorations of the SFP10-14 program's contribution (LoBraico et al., 2019) have highlighted three components: parental monitoring and behavior, management strategies, and positive family relationships as the most essential for achieving a reduction in children's substance abuse.

5. An international perspective on parents-based prevention

Several substance prevention programs have been developed for youth of the various ethnic groups within the USA and their families. For example, *The Strong African American Families Program* (Broday et al., 2006) is a 7-week family skills training program that aims to prevent substance and alcohol use through the promotion of protective factors among rural African-American 11-year-olds and their primary caregivers. Referring to Asian-American families, Fang and Schinke (2013) suggested a prevention program that is directed to adolescent girls and aimed to strengthen the girls' positive relationships with their mothers, as well as increasing the girls' self-efficacy and resilience to resist substance use. Notably, Fang and Schinke (2014) mention the existing differences within the Asian-American population, in terms of cultural backgrounds, native languages, nationalities and acculturation levels. Yet, they believe that their program is relevant to all Asian-American families in the USA.

Importantly, most of the parents-oriented substance prevention interventions that have been implemented in other nations, outside of the USA, have used adapted versions of programs that were originally developed for populations in the USA. One example is the US *Family Matters* program (Bauman, Foshee, Ennett, Hicks, & Pemberton, 2001; Bauman et al., 2002), which has been adapted for the Thai population and been implemented in Thailand (Byrnes et al., 2011; Chamratrithirong, 2010). Another example is *Project Northlands* that has been adapted to Croatia (West et al., 2008).

However, it seems that the most prominent example of using a US-originated family-focused substance abuse prevention program is the above described *Strengthening Families Program*. The

SFP, especially in its revised form (SFP10-14), has been adapted and implemented in 25 nations across the globe (<https://www.extension.iastate.edu/sfp10-14/>), such as Poland (Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2015), the UK (Allen, Coombes, & Foxcroft, 2006). Germany (Stolle, Stappenbeck, Wendell, & Thomasius, 2011), Ireland (Kumpfer, Xie, & O'Driscoll, 2012), Spain (Pérez et al., 2009; Orte et al., 2015), Sweden (Skärstrand, Larsson, & Andréasson, 2008), Panama (Mejia, Ulph, & Calam, 2016), Peru (Pérez-Gómez, & Mejía-Trujillo, 2017; Kumpfer & Alvarado, 2003), Portugal (Magalhães, & Kumpfer, 2015), Puerto Rico (Chartier, Negroni, & Hesselbrock, 2010), Italy (Ortega, Giannotta, Latina, & Ciairano, 2012) and more. Notably, when adapting the program for the German population, Stolle, Stappenbeck, Wendell and Thomasius (2011) concluded that the adaptation – later on entitled *Familien stärken* – could not lean solely on its US and UK versions, but required attention to the following four aspects: (1) taking into account the specific regional social structures (e.g., risk population; migration background; socioeconomic status; family structure) (2) adaptation to the German language (colloquial language, idiomatic expressions, non-verbal language), (3) considering the local (German and newcomers) norms concerning parents' and children's expected behavior, and (4) findings proper ways to incorporate the program into the local support system. In some ways, these notions challenge the validity of the wide international dissemination of the SPP and SFP10-14. Namely, while the basic utility of these programs seems to be unquestionable, it is unclear whether their adaptation to each and every nation was gradual enough, and evidence-based, in order to achieve the best local/cultural version.

The need for prevention programs that are tailored specifically to the local (e.g., national) group of parents is especially important when dealing with countries in which the populations which inhabit it share a partially similar ethnicity, but are different in many other terms, such as nations in South America and the Middle-East.

Hispanic youth demonstrate higher levels of drug use and sexual risk behaviors than their non-Hispanic counterparts (Cervantes, Goldbach, & Santos, 2011; Johnston, O'Malley, Miech, Bachman, & Schulenberg, 2017). Hence, prevention efforts among youth and parents whose origin is in South-American countries should be more cautious in adopting prevention programs that have not been developed with regard to the antecedents of this (above) notion (Pérez-Gómez, & Mejía-Trujillo, 2017). Moreover, even within the Latino population there is considerable variance. For example, US Latino youth

include at least two separate groups: (1) those who were born, raised and currently live in the USA and (b) those whose origin, and maybe even birthplace, is from Latino nations (e.g., Mexico; Argentina) but are currently living in the USA. Thus, it could be expected that a large variety of differential programs should be suggested. Unfortunately, in practice, most of the existing programs for Latino families have been developed in the USA and address mainly those parents who live in the USA (e.g., Marsiglia, Ayers, Han, & Weide, 2018; Marsiglia, et al., 2018).

Importantly, there is literature on studies that have demonstrated the differences in the determinants of American vs. non-American youth's inclination to abuse drugs (e.g., Venezuela; Cox, Blow, Maier, & Cardona, 2010). Moreover, there are already indications that the parents' origin plays a role in shaping the impact of substance abuse prevention programs, such as in the case of the cultural adaptation of the Parent Management Training - Oregon Model (PMTO; Forgatch, & Kjøbli, 2016).

Originally, the PMTO program was directed toward parents of children who exhibit antisocial behavior. Later on, it was adopted as a general model for developing parental skills, including in the case of substance abuse prevention. The core components of the program are: teaching through encouragement, positive involvement with children, effective family problem solving, monitoring and supervision, and setting boundaries effectively. Martinez and Eddy (2005) adapted this program for Spanish-speaking Latino parents with middle-school-aged youth at risk of problem behaviors. The evaluation results indicated a positive impact on both the parents and the children, including reduced likelihood of smoking and use of alcohol, marijuana, and other drugs. Yet, the researchers indicated that differential effects of the intervention were based on youth's nativity status.

Hence, it seems that even though reports on interventions among Latino parents indicate a positive impact, it seems that much more can be done to improve the programs' effectiveness. An example of a unique characteristic that may be essential in making a change in Latino parents' behavior is the "que son madres" component – i.e., perception of the facilitators as "mothers". This characteristic, that may be unrelated to parents' different origin, has been identified as one of the major features that has led Latino parents to be more engaged in substance prevention program (Ayón, Peña, & Naddy, 2014). This rather small example represents the general need to develop a differential set of evidence-based prevention programs that would be better tailored to the various

sub-groups of Latino families, as well as to other fragments of international society.

Several exceptional projects do exist, in which a theory-driven substance abuse prevention program was developed specifically for non-US parents. Below are several examples: The Portuguese project ECOS (Estratégias Comunitárias de Observação Social; Martinho et al. 2017) that used US-originated models as its theoretical basis but established a new multi-group intervention (i.e., individual and family support; parental training; Diversification of Cultural Experiences Programme; children's group intervention; and youngsters' group intervention) that has been directed especially for Portuguese families of complex social circumstances. Additional examples are the Swedish Örebro Prevention Programme (ÖPP; Bodin, & Strandberg, 2011), which was developed in the late 1990s in response to a governmental call for universal alcohol prevention programs that could be administered at low cost within the limitations of existing community resources (see also its adapted version to the Netherlands – PAS; Koning et al. 2009); or the *Health-Related Information and Dissemination Among Youth* in India (HRIDAY; Reddy et al., 2002), a part of the MYTRI Project (Mobilizing Youth for Tobacco Related Initiatives in India) that gradually (e.g., Harrell Stigler et al., 2011; Mishra et al. 2005) identified the role of parents and parental collaboration in shaping Indian youth's cigarette smoking. Both of these projects (and several others) consider generic knowledge on positive parenting but implement them only after exploration of the specific nation's circumstances, mentality and youth characteristics.

6. The future of parents-based interventions for substance abuse prevention

The above literature review highlights that (1) It is highly accepted that substance abuse prevention should address youth's parents; (2) Accordingly, there are many programs that have been developed to address this need, some of which are internationally popular; (3) There is evidence of these parent-focused programs' utility. (4) Nevertheless, the question of cultural and national adaptation seems to be partially resolved.

While paying homage to the current parent-focused prevention programs and their positive impact, it seems that there are still several challenges that prevention efforts among parents should (re)consider, in pursuit of achieving higher contribution to substance abuse prevention. Below are listed several of these challenges:

6.1. Further exploration of proper parent-child incorporation

Developers of the SFP program perceive its effectiveness as stemming from the co-participation of parents and children in two-hour weekly family group sessions (Kumpfer, Magalhães, & Greene, 2016). Accordingly, Allen et al. (2016) suggest that effective interventions with parents should include at least 12 contact hours and must be implemented through sessions that include parents and youth. Indeed, following a review of the literature on combined student-parent interventions, Newton and colleagues (Newton et al., 2017) concluded that combined student-parent-based programs exist they yield promising results. Notably, there are other prevention programs that highlight the benefits of either partially separated sessions for parents and children or even parent-only participation (e.g., Sandler). Thus, a question arises as to the proper design of intervention sessions and whom they should address. This question is rather a complicated one, as there is evidence to indicate that it is likely that both parental characteristics and the child's problems shape the parents' preferences for the type of prevention program they would benefit from, with parents with lower education levels and children with more severe problems preferring face-to-face sessions (Miller, Aalborg, Byrnes, Bauman, & Spoth, 2012). Thus, these findings indicate the emerging need for comprehensive design of the "best practice" (or differential practices) for parental involvement in substance abuse prevention. Needless to say that once such best practices are suggested, other prominent problems will need to be addressed, such as the common problem of proper implementation and program fidelity (i.e., ensuring that the intervention was implemented as designed; Byrnes, Miller, Aalborg, Plasencia, & Keagy, 2010). Indeed, the topic of program fidelity has already been raised with regard to parents-focused substance abuse prevention interventions (e.g., Hogue, Liddle, Singer, & Leckrone, 2005).

6.2. Timing of family intervention in terms of children's age

While most family-focused programs have been directed toward either secondary or high school students (Lohrmann, Alter, Greene, & Younsozai, 2005), other programs address elementary school students, such as the Mexican program *Leaving Marks in your Life* (Dejando Huellitas en tu vida - http://www.uade.inpsiquiatria.edu.mx/pagina_contenidos/libros/huellitas.pdf), designed for elementary school students between 2nd and

5th grades. The general goal of the program is to prevent addiction and promote mental health. The program includes parents, teachers and health professionals and highlights skill promotion (Gutiérrez, Villatoro, Gaytán & Álamo, 2009). Finally, there are programs that address parents of younger ages, including preschoolers, such as the Incredible Years Program (Webster-Stratton, & Reid, 2004) and others (e.g., Kaminski, Stormshak, Good & Goodman, 2000; Miller-Heyl, MacPhee, & Fritz, 1998).

Hence, a major question, that the current literature on preventive interventions among parents doesn't supply a comprehensive answer to, is what is the best timing for parental engagement in the process of preventing children's substance abuse. Even though the intuitive answer would be ASAP, i.e., already in early childhood (Dusenbury, 2000; Hahn, Hall, & Simpson, 1998), some programs have already demonstrated their utility with a certain age cohort, such as Project Northland that proved to be most successful when the students were young adolescents (Perry et al., 2002). Moreover, in light of the possibility (Kirk et al., 2013) that parents may be unable to transfer knowledge gained with reference to a given circumstance (e.g., infancy) to other circumstances (e.g., adolescence), a debate concerning the effectiveness and utility of such early intervention is warranted.

6.3. Finding new paths for intervention

A major and long-standing problem in intervention targeting parents is the low rate of positive cooperation with invitations to collaborate with school staff or with health agencies (e.g., Felner et al., 1994; Spoth, & Redmond, 1994). Moreover, frequently those parents who are especially in-need of further guidance – due to either their child's problematic condition or due to their (physical and/or psychological) abusive behavior – are especially reluctant to attend meetings and sessions with the school staff. Hence, new ways of engaging parents in efforts to prevent their child's involvement in substance abuse should be explored. For example, Prado et al. (2019) suggested providing mental and behavioral prevention services in primary care settings. Primary care settings are an example of infrastructures that supply a rich professional, and easily accessible, environment in which evidence-based interventions could be presented to various populations, leading to recruitment of future participants into prevention programs, such as drug abuse prevention. The same goes for emergency rooms in hospitals and family courts (see Sandler et al., 2017). Another example is the possible incorporation of the component

of mindfulness and mindful parenting (Duncan, Coatsworth, & Greenberg, 2009). Finally, attention should be drawn to reframing the context of parents' enrollment in prevention efforts, such as the Australian program "PACE: Parenting Adolescents: A Creative Experience" that basically deals with the same components of parent-adolescent relationship but title it and present it in a more "creative – i.e., challenging – way (Jenkin & Bretherton, 1994/2015; Shortt, Toumbourou, Power, & Chapman, 2006).

6.4. Fostering parents' participation

The rate of parents who participate in prevention programs is, generally speaking, unsatisfactory; the same goes for substance abuse prevention (e.g., Cohen, & Rice, 1995). Moreover, there is a reason to believe that those parents who attend substance abuse prevention programs do not represent the whole spectrum of families that may be in need for such intervention (Hill, Goates, & Rosenman, 2010). Several explanations have been suggested to explain parents' recruitment and participation, such as the parents' preliminary (realistic) expectations (Fox & Gottfredson, 2003) and the community characteristics (Byrnes, Miller, Aalborg, & Keagy, 2012). Thus, currently, little is still known about cultural and community differences. Notably, it is not the lack of general knowledge about ways to incorporate parents in preventions efforts but rather more differential ways of doing so, as applied to each culture, as well as subgroups within each culture. While small financial incentives can always be useful (Al-Halabí & Pérez, 2009) and use of the "Tupperware technique", in which programs begin with a party in order to recruit and maintain parental participation in an intervention (Riper, Bolier, & Elling, 2005), it seem more advisable to conduct a preliminary study of the parents' and children's characteristics, in order to identify the most suitable program to offer parents, as the parents' willingness to participate is determined by the type of program offered to them (Miller, Aalborg, Byrnes, Bauman, & Spoth, 2012).

6.5. Finding the balance between generic principals and local implementation

Referring to youth's substance abuse prevention, it is generally agreed that effective prevention interventions should take characteristics of the family, the child and the environmental context into account (e.g., Ghayour-Minaie, King, Skvarc, Satyen, & Toumbourou, 2019). Yet, the distance between this notion and its practice seems to be large and

challenging. Following their review on the cultural adaptation of substance abuse prevention programs that incorporate parents, Kumpfer, Alvarado, Smith and Bellamy (2002) note that very few family interventions have been adapted to be culturally sensitive to different ethnic groups. Unfortunately, in spite of the many years that have passed, Baumann and colleagues (2015) came to a similar conclusion. After reviewing a total number of 610 articles, including four of the more prominent prevention programs, Baumann et al. (2015) revealed that only 8 of the studies documented a rigorous cultural adaptation process, and only 2 examined the intervention's effectiveness through the use of rigorous research designs. In light of these findings, the researchers emphasize the "urgent need for better cultural adaptation". Haslam and Mejia (2018) join this call and demonstrate how such an adaptation could be done, while referring to the case of adaptation of the Triple P program. Notably, the long distance between a proper analysis of the problem to be prevented, the characteristics of the (local) youth and their parents, the best practices to deliver the prevention messages and a comprehensive evaluation of the prevention program efficacy and effectiveness is an expensive and highly demanding process.

Thus, establishing a rigorous prevention program is extremely difficult. Hence, the alternative option - i.e., using a program that has been developed and validated by someone else (who lives and works in a different nation) - is tempting (for both the "provider" and the "customer"). Some organizations (e.g., UNODC) even recommend not developing new programs, but rather, using well-established one. This, however, might lead to unjustifiable shortcuts and mistakes that would raise questions regarding the adapted program's fidelity; i.e., ensuring that the intervention was implemented as designed (Byrnes, Miller, Aalborg, Plasencia, & Keagy, 2010). This possible problem

has already been mentioned with regard to the case of parent-focused interventions (e.g., Hogue, Liddle, Singer, & Leckrone, 2005).

Naturally, the golden path would be to rely on existing theoretical approaches and practical applications, and yet to seriously explore what changes must be made in order to meet the local (national, etc.) group of participants' needs and circumstances, alongside careful evaluation of the suggested program before implementation. However, even the act of cultural adaption is relatively long, as attention should be given to many aspects, such as those listed by Navsaria and Hong (2017) in their discussion of parenting interventions among immigrants: translation of written materials into the native language; use of bilingual and bicultural staff and clinicians; use of translators when content is presented in English; cultural competency training which is specific to the particular ethnicity for staff and clinicians; introduction of a motivational/supportive phase to increase potential for engagement before evidenced-based intervention begins; grounding key components of intervention in cultural values, beliefs and constructs by using culture-specific examples, vignettes and visuals; building trust among the families, schools and community through involvement of respected community agencies and trusted cultural brokers; and providing extra booster sessions, phone consultations and home visits to provide support, reinforce information learned and clarify any misunderstandings. An additional and much neglected aspect is the need for adaptation of evaluation measurements to the target (ethnic and national) group. Namely, to be highly cautious in using western-composed scales and measurements, as often, the ways (e.g., expressions) in which people express their attitudes, feelings and behavioral intentions differ (slightly or to a great extent) according to their nationality and culture (Cervantes, Goldbach, & Santos, 2011; Tein, 2017).

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**A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW OF PARTICIPATION
IN PREVENTION FAMILY PROGRAMS**
**UNA REVISIÓN SISTEMÁTICA DE LA PARTICIPACIÓN
EN LOS PROGRAMAS DE PREVENCIÓN FAMILIAR**
**UMA REVISÃO SISTEMÁTICA DA PARTICIPAÇÃO NOS PROGRAMAS
DE PREVENÇÃO FAMILIAR**

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ABSTRACT: One of the main reasons for the failure of family interventions is related to the low participation and retention of families. Difficulty in promoting adequate engagement and retention of participants is one of the most powerful obstacles and challenges to the implementation and dissemination of evidence-based family interventions. Although a wide range of strategies to involve parents in interventions is described in the literature, little is known as to what strategies are most effective in improving parental involvement. We conducted a systematic review of the predictors of parent participation and enhancement strategies in preventive parenting programs. Key inclusion criteria included: 1) evidence-based studies with a family intervention component, theoretical and empirical reviews of the literature, and systematic reviews; 2) articles published in Portuguese, English, and Spanish; 3) published between 2000 to 2018. Thirty-nine articles reported a variety of predictors of family participation and effective methods to engage families in preventive activities. Four basic dimensions emerged: 1) predictors of participation; 2) characteristics associated with the program; 3) obstacles to participation; and 4) strategies to minimize barriers to participation. Four distinct groups of participation predictors were identified: 1) patterns of family interaction; 2) parents' cognitions and attributions regarding their child's behavioral problems; 3) psychological variables related to parents; and 4) parental perception of intervention. A variety of intrinsic and extrinsic intervention attributes were associated with involvement in family programs. Some obstacles to participation included several logistical issues and circumstances within the family's social environment. Strategies to minimize barriers to participation included the use of different extrinsic incentives, the role of the trainer, and adjusting parental expectations and motivations throughout the intervention.

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<p>PALABRAS CLAVE: participación retención implicación parental prevención programas familiares</p>	<p>RESUMEN: Una de las principales razones del fracaso de las intervenciones familiares está relacionada con baja participación y retención de las familias. Las dificultades para promover participación y retención adecuadas es uno de los obstáculos más importantes en la implementación y disseminación de las intervenciones familiares basadas en la evidencia. Aunque en la literatura se describe una amplia gama de estrategias para involucrar a los padres, se sabe poco sobre qué estrategias son más efectivas para mejorar la participación. Por ello, se ha llevado a cabo una revisión sistemática de factores predictivos de la participación de los padres y las estrategias de mejora en los programas parentales de prevención. Los criterios de inclusión fueron: 1) estudios basados en evidencias con componente de intervención familiar, revisiones teóricas y empíricas de la literatura, y revisiones sistemáticas; 2) artículos publicados en Portugués, Inglés y Español; 3) publicados entre 2000 y 2018. Se encontraron 39 artículos que informaron sobre una variedad de factores predictivos de la participación familiar y métodos efectivos para involucrar a las familias en actividades preventivas. Surgieron cuatro dimensiones básicas: 1) predictores de participación; 2) características asociadas al programa; 3) obstáculos para la participación; 4) estrategias para minimizar las barreras de participación. Se identificaron cuatro grupos distintos de predictores de participación: patrones de interacción familiar; cogniciones y atribuciones de los padres sobre los problemas de conducta del niño; variables psicológicas relacionadas con los padres; percepción parental de la intervención. Varios atributos intrínsecos y extrínsecos de la intervención se asociaron con la participación en programas familiares. Algunos obstáculos para la participación incluían problemas o circunstancias logísticas del entorno social de la familia. Las estrategias para minimizar las barreras incluyeron el uso de diferentes incentivos extrínsecos, el rol del capacitador y el ajuste de las expectativas y motivaciones de los padres durante la intervención.</p>
<p>PALAVRAS-CHAVE: participação retenção envolvimento dos pais prevenção programas familiares</p>	<p>RESUMO: Uma das principais razões para o insucesso das intervenções familiares relaciona-se com as dificuldades de envolvimento e retenção das famílias. As dificuldades de promover uma adequada participação e retenção dos participantes é um dos obstáculos mais poderosos e desafiadores à implementação e disseminação de intervenções familiares baseadas em evidências. Embora uma ampla gama de estratégias para envolver os pais em intervenções seja descrita na literatura, pouco se sabe sobre quais estratégias são mais eficazes para melhorar o envolvimento dos pais. Realizamos uma revisão sistemática sobre preditores da participação dos pais e estratégias que potenciam a participação nos programas parentais preventivos. Os principais critérios de inclusão foram: 1) estudos baseados em evidências com componente de intervenção familiar, revisões teóricas e empíricas da literatura e revisões sistemáticas; 2) artigos publicados em português, inglês e espanhol; 3) publicados entre 2000 a 2018. Trinta e nove artigos relataram uma variedade de preditores da participação da família e métodos eficazes para envolver as famílias em atividades preventivas. Quatro dimensões básicas emergiram: 1) preditores de participação; 2) características associadas ao programa; 3) obstáculos à participação; 4) estratégias para minimizar as barreiras à participação. Quatro grupos distintos de preditores de participação foram identificados: padrões de interação familiar; cognições e atribuições dos pais acerca dos problemas comportamentais do filho; variáveis psicológicas relacionadas com os pais; percepção dos pais a respeito da intervenção parental. A variedade de atributos de intervenção intrínsecos e extrínsecos foi associada ao envolvimento em programas familiares. Alguns obstáculos à participação incluíam vários problemas logísticos ou circunstâncias dentro do ambiente social da família. As estratégias para minimizar as barreiras à participação incluíam o uso de diferentes incentivos extrínsecos, o papel do formador e o ajuste das expectativas e motivações dos pais ao longo da intervenção.</p>

1. Introduction

Difficulty in promoting adequate participation and retention of participants represents one of the most powerful obstacles to the implementation and dissemination of evidence-based family interventions. The effectiveness of a particular intervention program is recognized to depend on factors such as its intensity and, therefore, participants should be exposed to the appropriate dosage so that the results of the intervention can achieve the objectives (Spath & Redmond, 2000; Henrichs, Bertram, Kuschel, & Hahlweg, 2005; Carman et al., 2013). Furthermore, low parental involvement is an obstacle that threatens the external validity of family interventions, once

participants cease to represent the target population (Perrino, Coatsworth, Briones, Pantin, & Szapocznik, 2001).

Attention to parental involvement has increased over the last decade. It is understood that one of the main reasons for failure of family interventions is related to difficulties regarding family involvement and retention (Axford, Lehtonen, Kaoukji, Tobin, & Berry, 2012). Some studies (e.g. Baker, Arnold, & Meagher, 2011) show that only a third of invited families participate in family intervention programs, finding that approximately 40-60% drop out of the intervention despite receiving financial or other incentives.

Besides, research has shown that the positive effects of family intervention programs are related

to the use of effective methods to engage families in preventive activities (Cornell, Dishion, Yasui, & Kavanagh, 2007). In order to overcome obstacles to involvement, a large number of studies have identified different dimensions of participation in socio-educational family programs (Nix, Bierman, & McMahon, 2009; Ryan, Boxmeyer, & Lochman, 2009; Barrera, Berkel, & Castro, 2017; Perrino et al., 2018).

Although it is consensual to admit that participation is a complex and multi-determinate phenomenon, a significant share of the research has often focused on the analysis of socio-demographic variables and risk factors. Some of the results accumulated on this topic indicate that families with parents with low participation have specific characteristics, such as a low level of schooling and low socioeconomic level, are single-parent families, or there is an absence of the biological father in the home (Heinrichs, Bertram, Kuschel, & Hahlweg, 2005; Coatsworth, Duncan, Pantin, & Szapocznik, 2006; Connell et al., 2007). According to McCurdy & Daro (2001) these factors provide a very incomplete, static explanation of the reasons why participants may be involved in socio-family prevention programs.

It is important to emphasize that the theoretical and research questions explored regarding the participation of families in prevention programs have evolved recently. First, there is the emergence of more comprehensive, elaborate ways of conceptualizing participation (see Negreiros, 2013; Barrera, Berkel, & Castro, 2016). Second, research on participation has raised awareness of the perspectives that interrelate participation determinants with other dimensions of the implementation of socio-educational family interventions.

It is currently clear that participation is a multidimensional concept, encompassing different components related to several predictors. One distinction that has most recently been established is one that considers three essential types of participation: a) initial involvement, also called recruitment; b) continuous participation, or retention; and c) quality of participation. In this sense, the strategies to promote participation described in point a) seek to have parents register and participate in a program; while the participation described in point b) implies that participants continue to participate; and participation, as defined in point c), requires participants to derive the greatest possible benefit from intervention program activities. Research has mainly focused on retention, while initial involvement and quality of participation have received less attention (Chacko et al., 2016).

Understanding the individual, contextual, and intervention factors that determine the participation of subjects in family programs represents the necessary condition for the development of strategies that promote the participation of parents and children in socio-educational family programs.

2. Justification and objectives

Involving families at the beginning and during the intervention process is one of the main challenges of family programs (Axford et al., 2012; Ingoldsby, 2010). Existing evidence on the subject is scarce and dispersed. Therefore, the aim of this study was a systematic review of the literature seeking to identify, systematize, and gain insight into the state of knowledge concerning factors that predict parent participation in family programs, and strategies designed to enhance and improve parental involvement interventions.

3. Methodology

3.1. Literature sampling

The literature search was developed based on two key concepts: Participation and Retention in Family-Based Drug Prevention Programs, and not adjusted and Risk Behaviors. Thus, the following electronic databases were used: *PsycInfo*, *Psychology and Behavioral Sciences Collection*, and *Scopus*.

The scientific review process of the literature was carried out during the months of August to October 2018 by the present study investigators. Research terms were integrated in the expressions: participation; initial participation; ongoing participation; retention; family-based; family programs; family intervention. Search criteria were delimited to articles published in Portuguese, English, and Spanish between 2000 and 2018. Inclusion criteria were evidence-based studies, with a family intervention component, theoretical and empirical reviews of the literature, and systematic reviews of quality. Exclusion criteria were dissertations, only qualitative evaluations, repeated studies, case studies, and a sample of fewer than 10 participants.

3.2. Procedure

According to the methodology of systematic reviews, the procedure has two phases. The first phase consists of the search in the databases, reviewing title and abstract, and the second phase, the application of the inclusion and exclusion criteria after reading in-depth review. Figure 1 shows

both the results of the search procedure (phase 1) and the selection of studies after the application of criteria (phase 2). Finally, from this total of reading articles, 1185 were excluded and 39 were selected for analysis. Exclusion reasons for analysis were articles that contained incomplete or

repeated information, no family component, and focused only on qualitative research. Data were summarized and analyzed according to predictors of participation and characteristics of the family programs, as well as obstacles to participation and strategies used.

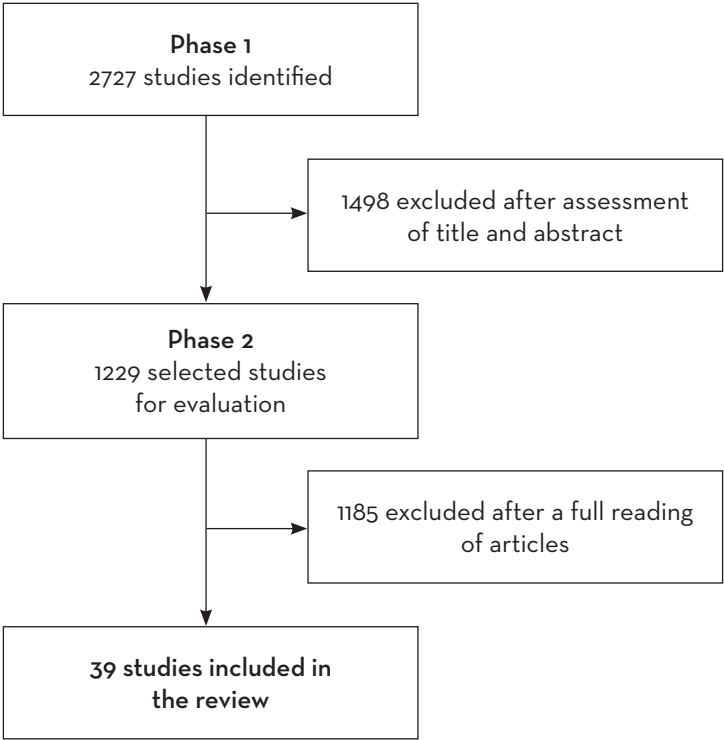


Figure 1. Search process and selection of studies.

4. Results

After conducting a search of the literature, studies were selected, organized, and analyzed in accordance with the four research domains: participation predictors, characteristics associated

with the program, obstacles to participation, and strategies to minimize barriers to participation. Table 1 shows the family programs referred to by the studies analyzed and that have been examined in the present study.

Table 1. Resum of different family programs analysed and revised references
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Streghtening Families Program, SFP (Kumpfer & Johnson, 2007)• Programa de Competencia Familiar: Versión Española del SFP (Orte et al., 2018, 2016, 2014)• Strengthening Families Program: For Parents and Youth 10-14 (Aalborg et al., 2010; Byrnes et al., 2012; Coatsworth et al., 2018)• Mindfulness-Enhanced Strengthening Families Program 10-14 (MSFP 10-14) (Coatsworth et al., 2018)• Family Matters (FM) (Aalborg et al., 2010; Byrnes et al., 2012)• Incredible Years (Axford et al., 2012; Baker et al., 2011)• Early Risers Conduct Problems Prevention Program (Bloomquist et al., 2012)• Behavioral Parent Training Program (Chacko et al., 2009, 2012, 2016)• Strategies to Enhance Positive Parenting [STEPP] program (Chacko et al., 2009, 2012, 2016)• Adolescent Transitions Program (ATP) eb The Family Check-Up (Connell et al., 2007)• Triple P (Eisner y Meidert, 2011; Heinrichs et al., 2005)• Preventive Parent (PT) Training (Garvey et al., 2006)• Bridges to High School Program (Mauricio et al., 2014)

- **Healthy Families America (HFA)** (McCurdy et al., 2006)
- **Women, Infants and Children (WIC)** (Mian et al., 2015)
- **eHealth Familias Unidas** (Perrino et al., 2018)
- **Early Alliance** (Prinz et al., 2001)
- **Families Program of the Multisite Violence Prevention Project (MVPP)** (Quinn et al., 2010)
- **FRAME— Fatherhood Relationship And Marriage Education** (Rienks et al., 2011)
- **Strong Families program** (Ross & DeVoe, 2014)
- **Coping Power Program** (Ryan et al., 2009)

Source: own elaboration.

4.1. Participation predictors

The four basic components examined that seem to be useful to understand family participation and retention in family-based interventions were: patterns of family interaction; parents' cognitions and attributions regarding their child's behavioral problems; psychological variables related to parents; and parental perception of intervention.

Patterns of family interaction

The evidence available suggests that high parental involvement in parental programs is associated with high levels of parental alliance (Rienks, Wadsworth, Markman, Einhorn, & Etter, 2011), lower levels of negative communication, and positive parenting (Perino et al., 2001). High family conflict appears as a powerful indicator of parent involvement (Rienks et al., 2011), since it affects parents and children and helps the family to recognize the need for intervention (Connell et al., 2007). On the other hand, family cohesion and strong parent-child relationships are related to low parental involvement, insofar as parents might consider that high family cohesion may seem sufficient to cope with the inappropriate behavior of their children (Quinn, Hall, Smith, & Rabiner, 2010). Meanwhile, parents experiencing higher levels of frustration in the parent-child relationship are also more likely to participate (Bloomquist, August, Lee, Piehler, & Jensen, 2012).

At the level of parenting practices, the data evidence that the parents more likely to participate in parental programs are more consistent in terms of discipline, encourage positive parenting practices, see themselves more involved in the lives of their children, and accompany them more closely (Bloomquist et al., 2012; Coatsworth, Hemady, & George, 2018).

Parents' cognitions and attributions regarding their child's behavioral problems

Parental involvement can also be influenced by their perceptions regarding their child's behavioral

problems. The results indicated a strong relationship between parents' perceptions of the severity of child risk and participation in prevention programs (Negreiros, 2013). In this sense, it was verified that parents with high levels of participation are more likely to perceive their children as more vulnerable, with serious problem behaviors (Garvey, Julion, Fogg, Kratovil, & Gross, 2006; Winslow, Bonds, Wolchik, Sandler, & Braver, 2009), and with an increase in childhood psychopathology (Mauricio et al., 2014).

Beliefs and attributions of parents regarding the cause of their children's behavioral problems represent another predictor of involvement. The results suggest that participation is less probable when parents are more likely to attribute their child's problem behaviors to external factors rather than their own parenting practices (Miller & Prinz, 2003).

Psychological variables related to parents

The results were inconclusive regarding the relationship between levels of parental participation and psychological problems. According to Negreiros (2013), parental psychopathology, such as depression, drug abuse, antisocial behavior or limited resources, is associated with low levels of participation. Some studies reported that parents' stress and depression were not related to family involvement (Garvey et al., 2006; Quinn et al., 2010). Other studies pointed out that low parental participation was associated with depressed mood, anxiety, and stressful events (Perrino et al., 2018). Rienks and collaborators (2011) reported that parents who defined themselves as more effective in dealing with stress were more likely to participate than those who experienced more stressors, more anxiety, or a more depressed emotional state. However, some studies showed that parents with greater levels of psychological stress are more likely to participate than parents with lower levels (Bloomquist et al., 2012).

Parental perception of intervention

A strong predictor of family involvement was the expectation that the program should focus on parents (Bloomquist et al., 2012). Parents who had the expectation that the intervention focused on their children were more likely to abandon parental intervention (Miller & Prinz, 2003), as opposed to parents who perceived a greater need to improve their parental skills (Miller & Prinz, 2003; Perrino et al., 2001). These observations match with other results indicating that the parents who present a high level of participation in preventive programs are the ones who seek help in relation to their own parenting issues (eg, Garvey et al., 2006). However, parents who recognize that they have more effective parenting skills show lower participation rates (Perrino et al., 2018). Additionally, attitudes and positive beliefs about intervention also influence involvement in parental programs. In this sense, the perceived benefits that parents attribute to a family program are associated with higher participation rates (McCurdy & Daro, 2001; Spoth & Redmond, 2000).

According to the Health Belief Model, parents are more likely to participate in prevention programs when they are able to clearly identify the benefits to themselves, their children, and their families (McCurdy et al., 2006). It is expected that after a cost-benefit analysis, if the needs related to the intervention can make up for the perceived barriers, it is expected that individuals will be involved in the intervention. On the other hand, if perceived barriers are high, people will participate less, even if they recognize their own need (Winslow et al., 2009). Bloomquist and colleagues (2012) concluded that parents with higher levels of participation were those who were highly motivated. In terms of self-efficacy, it was observed that parents with low parental self-efficacy participated in a larger number of preventive intervention sessions (Garvey et al., 2006).

4.2. Characteristics associated with the program

From this field of research, we sought to understand the intrinsic and extrinsic intervention attributes associated with involvement in family programs.

Different delivery modalities and intervention intensity are able to promote parental involvement through better adjustment between the needs of parents and family and the interventions (Morawska & Sanders, 2006). Retention is greater when parents can select the program they are trying to commit to (Aalborg et al., 2010), while

non-voluntary interventions are associated with lower levels of involvement (Coatsworth et al., 2018). Programs can be implemented in groups or individually. Group formats allow the benefits of peer support and information sharing (Chacko et al., 2009); however, groups follow a fixed schedule, content and rhythm. As such, there is a lower flexibility in the conduction of a group, which may hinder the involvement of some families (Chacko et al., 2016). In turn, individual formats, while not providing social support, allow the trainer and family to carry out the program in a more adapted and individualized way. Collectively, the format may represent a significant moderator for parental involvement (Chacko et al., 2016). According to Byrnes Miller, Aalborg and Keagy (2012), retention is higher when parents can select different delivery modalities (e.g., individual or group sessions, online methods, and videos).

In order to improve parental involvement, programs must be both attractive and relevant (Baker, Arnold, & Meagher, 2011) and explore content that enhances positive interactions between parents and children, emotional communication skills, and the importance of parents' consistency in educational action (Kaminski, Valle, Filene & Boyle, 2008). The evidence also suggests that the different activities performed during the sessions should be well planned and conducted. Among the various techniques, speeches, more detailed and comprehensive group discussions, and group activities were seen to lead to higher levels of parent attendance (Orte, Ballester, Vives, & Amer, 2016).

Another attribute of the program that is able to contribute to family involvement decisions relates to the characteristics and abilities of the trainer. A good emotional and professional bond is an important predictor of involvement and retention in preventive interventions (Prinz et al., 2001). In this sense, high participation and retention of parents has been positively associated with the facilitator's level of experience, training, competence, and cultural diversity (Bloomquist et al., 2012; Negreiros, 2013; Orte, Ballester, Amer, & Vives, 2014); their personal characteristics, such as high extroversion and low neuroticism (Bloomquist et al., 2012; Negreiros, 2013); aptitude to express empathy and validate the parents' feelings concerning the intervention; capacity to express respect for cultural and religious beliefs; and competence to meet the needs and expectations of the family (Negreiros, 2013). According to Prinz and colleagues (2001), a good trainer has a good ability to listen, easily relates to others, adopts a nonjudgmental approach, pays close attention to detail, and is persistent in the face of frustrating

or disturbing obstacles. However, negative interactions with trainers are associated with weaker parental involvement (Coatsworth et al., 2018).

4.3. Obstacles to participation

Families face many challenges related to their involvement in prevention programs. According to Perrino and collaborators (2001), these obstacles may include logistical issues or circumstances within the family's social environment that might interfere with participation.

Structural and logistical barriers, such as time and schedule constraints, high costs, and difficulty in securing and accessing transportation and childcare services (Eisner & Meidert, 2011; Garvey et al., 2006; Gonzalez, Morawska, & Haslam, 2018; Ingoldsby, 2010; Morawska & Sanders, 2006; Ross & DeVoe, 2014; Spoth & Redmond, 2000), are key factors that hamper or prevent parents engaging in family programs.

The demands placed on parents makes it difficult to reconcile participation in the program with other family or professional activities. What is more, studies suggest that time constraints, particularly in families where both parents work and with a large number of children, may compromise the early phases of parental involvement (Eisner & Meidert, 2011). Additionally, a greater distance from clinical services has been associated with non-completion of the intervention (Morawska & Sanders, 2006). Cultural and linguistic barriers also contribute to the reticence of families to seek help (Eisner & Meidert, 2011; Ross & DeVoe, 2014).

When families are questioned as to why they did not get involved or left the intervention, they also raise issues related to the program. One concerns the lack of perceived need: when a perceived problem does not exist or the service is considered irrelevant in terms of the needs of the family (Axford et al., 2012; Coatsworth et al., 2018; Ingoldsby, 2010; Ross & DeVoe, 2014). Another common problem is that services may cause parents to feel that their parenting is questioned (Axford et al., 2012). Further, stigma-related issues may arise associated with mental health and social services (Gonzalez et al., 2018; Ross & DeVoe, 2014).

An obvious issue is lack of knowledge: parents do not know the existence of a service or do not understand what it entails, usually due to a lack of appropriate information. Very often, although parents are knowledgeable about programs, they have negative cognitions and beliefs about mental health treatment and/or service delivery systems (Ross & DeVoe, 2014); they do not feel supported by group members or by the trainer (Coatsworth

et al., 2018) who may be perceived as critical or non-empathic (Ingoldsby, 2010); they fear that the program may be overly demanding in terms of content or duration, or that it may have negative consequences for the child or family, including possibly having their children taken away (Axford et al., 2012); and perceive that the goals and activities in some cases are not aligned with the needs of their family (Ingoldsby, 2010).

4.4. Strategies to minimize barriers to participation

Use of extrinsic incentives is related to an increase in parental engagement (Ingoldsby, 2010). Programs that feature a convenient location as well as an informal and welcoming environment make it easier to recruit parents (Spoth & Redmond, 2000). Increased participation in family programs is also achieved through a set of extrinsic rewards: providing childcare, transportation, food, scheduling flexibility, and monetary incentives (Ingoldsby, 2010; Kumpfer & Johnson, 2007; Spoth & Redmond, 2000). Incentives that involve money may increase the initial interest of households, but might have little or no influence on retention (Henrichs, 2006; Ingoldsby, 2010).

The literature reviewed reveals strategies that focus specifically on the role of the trainer. The families that have a good bond with the trainer are more likely to participate and stay longer in the intervention (Thompson, Bender, Lantry, & Flynn, 2007). As such, the building of a relationship between the mentor and the possible users of the service (Axford et al., 2012) represents a fundamental strategy to increase parental attendance. The trainer must also have the skills to engage parents (Axford et al., 2012), thus reinforcing the training and professional practice in a specific way is crucial to retention (Orte et al., 2018).

Personal skills, knowledge of the program, understanding program change theory, and family prevention experience are basic ingredients in the selection and training of the trainer (Orte et al., 2016). However, a trainer cannot be effective without proper program support. It is necessary to establish strong supervision and training programs that furnish service providers with the necessary ongoing care and support to protect them from burnout (McCurdy & Daro, 2001). Trainers should also take parental concerns into account: working with parental cognitions and roles may be a valid strategy to improve their involvement in family prevention interventions (Negreiros, 2013). Additionally, existing research points to an acknowledgement of the importance of adjusting parental expectations and motivations throughout the

intervention (Chacko, Wymbbs, Chimiklis, Wymbbs, & Pelham, 2012; Chacko et al., 2009; Negreiros, 2013).

Programs should allow for some degree of creativity and flexibility on behalf of the trainer, with freedom margin to shape program objectives around the needs of families. On the other hand, those who follow a well-structured curriculum will have fewer opportunities for flexible adaptations (McCurdy & Daro, 2001). These data demonstrate the need to adapt the content or delivery of the program to address specific characteristics of the culture of the families (Axford et al., 2012; Kumpfer & Johnson, 2007).

Strategies that enhance parental involvement in prevention programs may vary in accordance with the phase of involvement. The use of brief strategies implemented early in the program that effectively address and assess family barriers to intervention may increase early involvement (Ingoldsby, 2010; Nock & Kazdin, 2005; Sterrett, Jones, Zalot, & Shook, 2010). Another way to reduce rejection and increase recruitment is to prepare parents for the intervention (Morawska & Sanders, 2006), through personalized recruiting phone calls, individual letters, and reminders (Finan, Swierzbiolek, Priest, Warren, & Yap, 2018). Nonetheless, these procedures appear to be less effective in facilitating participant retention (Mian, Eisenhower, & Carter, 2015).

Delivery of services at home is presumed to increase participation and retention in intervention (Prinz et al., 2001). Home-based programs can circumvent practical barriers to interventions, including geographic distance and child care coverage, as well as psychological barriers related to perceptions of the health care environment (Ross & DeVoe, 2014). However, very few studies report participation between and within the sessions, and very few of them discuss explicit methods to improve this phase of engagement. From among the methods for tackling practical barriers to involvement, the achievement of homework and explicit discussion of the purpose and objectives of this task is able to increase participation between and within the sessions (Chacko et al., 2009). Strategies that work on continuously throughout the intervention, based on motivational interviewing, family systems and family stress management, have shown greater long-term commitment (Ingoldsby, 2010).

5. Discussion and conclusions

This systematic review aimed to synthesize the predictive factors of involvement and investigate the effectiveness of the strategies implemented

to date to increase parental involvement. In order to better understand the research, the discussion will provide a summary of the evidence found, the limitations of this review, and suggestions for future research.

Parental programs are increasingly recognized as interventions with the potential to improve the health and well-being of parents, children, and families. Parental involvement is particularly important for the effectiveness and external validity of interventions (Haine-Schlagel & Walsh, 2015; Perrino et al., 2001), given the critical role parents or other primary caregivers generally play in participation in prevention services (Haine-Schlagel & Walsh, 2015). The various definitions mainly support the conceptualization of participation as a complex, multidimensional construct (Becker et al., 2015). As a dynamic process, it is present before, during, and after the implementation of the program (Nock & Ferriter, 2005). As such, it is important to identify the predictors of participation, in terms of both recruitment and retention.

The literature review sought to explore socio-demographic variables, psychological characteristics, and family dynamics that enable families to be differentiated from those who drop out (Negreiros, 2013). However, it is also essential to take into account the skills of the trainer and specific characteristics of the program (Coatsworth et al., 2018; Orte et al., 2014, 2018). On the other hand, the identification of families at greater risk of abandoning the program provides important information for the development of effective strategies to enhance family participation and retention (Gross, Julion, & Fogg, 2001).

Family participation, therefore, is understood to increase when participants perceive greater benefits and fewer programming obstacles (Nordstrom, Dumas, & Gitter, 2008). Hence, it is necessary to explore and reduce perceived barriers (Finan et al., 2018); provide positive incentives adapted to the needs of children, parents, and families (Ingoldsby, 2010); ensure the specific training of trainers (Moraeska & Sanders, 2006); and implement programs adapted to the group, by satisfying their needs in order to create a better "alignment" between program and family (McCurdy & Daro, 2001; Morawska & Sanders, 2006). Above all, the strategies implemented must seek to ensure an adequate level of motivation for change (Bloomquist et al., 2012).

One of the most important limitations of this study is publication bias, a methodological problem of all systematic reviews. This is difficult to control because it depends on the publication of the results by the authors. For instance, negative results in relation to participation are less likely

to be published, which is why it is not possible to know all the real reasons behind low participation and retention. This may be a problem for the generalization of results and provide a biased interpretation. Therefore, readers should take a critical reading of this review. The small number of bibliographical sources consulted is also a limitation of the present review. Nevertheless, the authors sought to ensure that the databases selected were the most relevant in the study area and included a large quantity and quality of indexed publications and journals, which made it possible to obtain representative information of the field of study. It is recognized that the heterogeneity of the original studies, in spite of providing a broader view of the phenomenon, is in itself a difficulty when attempting to draw conclusions.

Considering that some of the factors that precipitate low participation and retention are static or have a reduced possibility of modification, in future research and intervention practices it would be interesting to highlight modifiable variables. As such, research needs not only to examine the different phases of parent engagement separately

when trying to identify potential predictors, but also to target engagement strategies for each distinct phase.

Additionally, future research should focus on the reasons that favor participation, not only obstacles to participation. Further, strategies to promote participation in family programs should be based on reference theoretical frameworks.

Currently there is no consensus on the definition of participation, and therefore, it would be necessary to clarify this construct and improve reporting of the within-program strategies are used to increase initial participation and retention (Chacko et al., 2016). Likewise, it is important to homogenize the presentation of results obtained so that a better comparison between studies is possible (Valero, Ballester, Orte, & Amer, 2017). Parental recruitment rates for family interventions are generally very low, although they may vary depending on type of prevention (universal, selective, or indicated) or target population (children, parents, teachers). Thus, in future studies one could review the specific characteristics of each intervention.

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THE CONTEXT OF THE FAMILY INVOLVEMENT PROCESS: EMPIRICAL BASES FOR THE DESIGN OF AN INTERVENTION PROGRAM

EL ENTORNO DEL PROCESO DE IMPLICACIÓN FAMILIAR: BASES EMPÍRICAS PARA EL DISEÑO DE UN PROGRAMA DE INTERVENCIÓN'

O MEIO AMBIENTE DO PROCESSO DE ENVOLVIMENTO DA FAMÍLIA: BASES EMPÍRICAS PARA A CONCEPÇÃO DE UM PROGRAMA DE INTERVENÇÃO

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<p>KEY WORDS: Family involvement academic motivation involvement styles teacher practices regulation of motivation</p>	<p>ABSTRACT: Based on the approach developed by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995), and focusing on the homework strategy (Epstein, 2009), we are able to observe the effect of the family involvement on the students' motivation in the context of self-regulate learning (Yotyodying, 2012). With a sample of 60 Primary Education teachers, 630 students enrolled in 5th and 6th Primary Education, and using a cross-sectional approach, we have observed the teacher's influence in the decision that families make to get involved, the students' perception of the styles of involvement and the relationship of these styles with the students' motivation. Our conclusion is there is a remarkable influence of a style based on support (requested by the students) and the promotion of autonomy, in the context of regulation of the academic motivation.</p>
<p>PALABRAS CLAVE: implicación familiar motivación académica estilos de implicación prácticas del profesorado regulación de la motivación</p>	<p>RESUMEN: Tomando como base el modelo de Hoover-Dempsey y Sandler (1995) y centrándose en la estrategia de <i>Homework</i> (Epstein, 2009), es posible observar los efectos de la implicación familiar sobre la motivación del estudiante en el contexto del aprendizaje auto-regulado (Yotyodying, 2012). Con una muestra de 60 profesores de Educación Primaria, 630 familias, 630 estudiantes de 5º y 6º de Primaria, y un planteamiento transversal, se observa la influencia del profesorado en la decisión que toman las familias para implicarse, la percepción del estudiante de los estilos de implicación y la relación de estos estilos con la motivación del estudiante. Se concluye la notable influencia de un estilo basado en el apoyo (a demanda del estudiante) y el fomento de la autonomía, en la regulación de la motivación académica.</p>

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PALAVRAS-CHAVE:

Participação familiar
motivação académica
modelos de
implicação
práticas dos
professores
regulação da
motivação

RESUMO: Tomando como base o modelo de Hoover-Dempsey y Sandler (1995) e centrado-se na estratégia de Homework (Epstein, 2009) é possível observar os efeitos da participação familiar sobre a motivação do aluno no contexto de aprendizagem autorregulado (Yotyodying, 2012). Com uma amostra de 60 professores de educação primária, 630 famílias, 630 estudantes de 5º e 6º do ensino primário, e numa abordagem transversal observamos a influência dos professores na decisão que tomam as famílias para participar, a percepção dos modelos de implicação pelos alunos e a relação destes modelos com a motivação dos alunos. Podemos concluir a notável influência de um modelo baseado no apoio (a procura dos alunos) e o estímulo da autonomia, no controle da motivação académica.

1. Introduction

The topic of educational performance is a classic in Social Science research, but the general public seems to have discovered this based on certain international studies meant to evaluate key competences, such as the PISA report, promoted by the OECD.

When speaking about performance, everyone's gaze (research, public policies, consultants etc.) is fixed on Compulsory Secondary Education and, more specifically on grades 1 and 2. Nevertheless, one agrees with Fernández Enguita, Mena and Riviere's (2010) claim that the first indicators of failure begin to manifest themselves in Primary Education. The parents are also largely voicing this idea, complaining that the family-school working programs are coming in too late in Secondary Education (see Santos Rego and Lorenzo, 2015).

It is certain that the picture of the current situation in Spain – in the light of the data – is not particularly encouraging as far as the first years of education are concerned. For example: in the 2015-16 school year, 4.3% of the students in the 2nd grade of Primary Education were retained, a percentage which went down to 2.1% in fifth grade and went back up in the last one (3.6%). Moreover, 94% of the students aged 8 are enrolled in the 3rd grade of Primary, a grade theoretically corresponding to said age and for the 10 year-olds, the percentage of those enrolled in the 5th grade of this stage is of 90.3 % (see INEE, 2018).

Justifiably, researchers have tried to unravel the factors which influence the academic performance of students at the compulsory levels of education (see Núñez, Vallejo, Rosário, Tuero, & Valle, 2014; Santos Rego, Godás, & Lorenzo, 2012), with the aim of providing a basis for the elaboration and/or modification of the policies or practices likely to improve the academic achievements of all students, regardless of variables such as the ethno-cultural origin or the type of school.

The present-day analysis of factors which influence, or correlate with, the academic performance of students rests on very solid theoretical and empirical bases, resulting from the efforts of educational research. The aspects to which more

attention was – and is – given, refer to the process, i.e. to the study of the ways of functioning of thought or to the indicators of learning efficiency. Winne and Nesbit, in a compilation titled “The Psychology of Academic Achievement” published in the Annual Review of Psychology in 2010, determined that the factors involved in these two aspects (thinking and learning) may be classified in four groups: cognitive, meta-cognitive, contextual and motivational, all focused on the student.

The cognitive elements refer to the neuro-cognitive workload required by a certain learning activity, paying particular attention to the working memory (Anderson, Hattie, & Hamilton, 2005). In order to understand the repercussions of this line of work, a list (synthesizing the results of cutting-edge research) of 25 principles or heuristics was prepared, with a strong empirical backing, indicating thus the best way to achieve an adequate learning (see <http://psy.memphis.edu/learning/whateknow/index.shtml>).

The meta-cognitive factors, whose influence is explained in Hacker, Dunlosky and Graesser's (2009) work, *Handbook of Metacognition in Education* refer to the mechanisms which allow the learner to collect, produce and evaluate information, while at the same time giving him/her the possibility to control and regulate his/her own intellectual functioning. The studies, despite the lack of a complex model of meta-cognition, allow us to state that one is not dealing with “cold” processes, but with ones which interact with variables such as the attributions, the orientations towards a certain target, the epistemological beliefs and the self-efficiency. All of them make up what is usually labeled as “motivating factors” (see Covington, 2000; Fawcett and Garton, 2005; Gutiérrez-Domenech, 2009; Zhang, 2011).

On the other hand, the factors related to the social context encompass four big areas of research: the learning based upon cooperative and collaborative strategies, the specific features of the class, homework and the socio-economic status of the family. Each of these represents a very dense research field which helps explain its impact on academic results. One also has to include among those factors the educational policies, the

evaluation systems of said policies, the resources received by the schools and their teaching projects.

It is precisely here that our research is situated. Its aim is to analyze the role of the families in the children's educational outcomes, including in the scope of our study the analysis of the origin of the decision to get involved, the ways in which families do it, the processes inherent to this commitment, along with the attenuating and mediating variables. All this will make it possible to plan the intervention mechanisms needed for the optimization of this process (Godás, 2015). In any case, family involvement in education affects the variables which research links to improving school performance (Santos Rego, Ferraces, Godás, & Lorenzo, 2018).

According to Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995), the process of family involvement starts at a level in which the variables determining the families' decision to get involved in the study of their children are established; for this reason, they construct their role imagining, planning and taking responsibilities, together with their children, in carrying out activities likely to improve their educational achievements. This stage, necessary, but not sufficient, must correspond with a sense of personal efficiency in helping, stemming from the direct experience of other activities associated with involvement, with persuading other persons, or with vicarious experiences of previous success. By the same token, the requests or invitations of the children or of the school (through verbal persuasion or through the perception of the necessity of help) can also influence this decision.

The decision is followed by the choice of the level or forms of involvement. Using this model, one has recourse to the typology formulated by Epstein (2009): parenting (understanding child/teenager development and generating supporting environments for the student in the home), communication (designing and implementing effective communication between school and family), volunteer work (organizing help in the school, at home or in other contexts, in order to support students' activities); learning at home (training in matters of homework help and in curricular matters); making decisions (including families in school decisions by increasing their representation in associations, councils etc.) and collaboration with the community (identifying and integrating resources and services, community help).

Influencing this decision is the parents' perception of their own abilities and knowledge in regard to the school tasks their children have to perform, but also of the time and energy required in order to achieve such purpose.

Lastly, we establish the way in which the student perceives his/her family's actions in terms of control, communication of expectations, family's interest for the school, their support and fostering of his/her autonomy. In addition, we postulate the effects of the interaction between the students and the families on the student's motivation, taking as a basis the self-determination theory, dominant trend of intrinsic motivation, formulated by Ryan and Deci (2000, 2017) within the context of school homework (Epstein, 2009; Rodríguez, Núñez, Valle, Freire, Ferradás, & Rodríguez-Llorte, 2019).

This perspective explains how intrinsic motivation feeds the direction, the intensity and the persistence of the behavior (Cerasoli, Nicklin, & Ford, 2014). When the individuals find that a task is pleasant or identifiable with oneself, it is more probable that they will support and fully participate in its execution (Patall, Cooper, & Robinson, 2008). The intrinsically motivated students are more actively involved in the learning process, whilst those more extrinsically motivated, become increasingly passive. In this regard, Cerasoli, Nicklin and Ford (2014) recall the fact that, while it is beneficial to help people find intrinsically gratifying tasks, the extrinsic incentives can also play an important role.

Second, those who face an intrinsically motivating task will use a greater degree of intensity or effort to carry it out. Finally, intrinsic motivation levels must also be linked to performance through their impact on persistence. When individuals find a task pleasant or interesting, they spend more time performing such task, beyond the point at which they are rewarded.

The application of the self-determination theory to the field of education concerns the student's interest for learning, as well as the value of education and the development of his/her own competences (Deci, Vallerland, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991). The parents' support as agents of socialization in school activities and their care for the students' homework may be considered an identifier of the quality of involvement (Yotyodying, 2012). This aspect is usually characterized by four dimensions, pertaining to the student's perception of the parents' actions (support, promotion of autonomy, control and communication of expectations) which, from a theoretical point of view, help satisfy the needs for autonomy, sociability and competence. Meeting these needs leads to an increase in self-motivation and well-being, whilst their frustration reduces both aspects.

The motivational processes included in the present study refer to the expression of positive or negative academic emotions and the regulation

thereof (self-reinforcement and self-affirmation), negative academic emotions and the regulation thereof (control of the situation, positive self-instruction and search for social support), motivation of controlled learning in study and tasks (introjected regulation analyzed as a type of extrinsic motivation, in which the behaviors are implemented in order to avoid guilt or anxiety or in order to obtain reinforcements such as pride), the identified regulation (which is yet another form of extrinsic motivation, a more autonomous one, in which the action is identified as one's own, being personally important), the external regulation (in which the behaviors are implemented in order to satisfy an external demand) and, finally, the motivation of autonomous learning (also regulated through identification).

Upon these theoretical bases, a research is devised, with the aim of exploring the connection between all the variables making up the process: the family's decision to get involved, the student's perception of the parents' actions of involvement and the repercussion of this perception on his/her motivation to study (focused on homework and exam preparation at home). Our aim was to obtain an empirical basis which would allow us to design, implement and evaluate a program meant to optimize the families' actions as they get involved in their children's studies and education.

In this respect, the programs aimed at stimulating the families' participation in their children's education are one of the areas where most efforts were deployed (see Allen, 2005; Epstein, 2009; Grolnick & Slowiaczek, 1994; Hill et al., 2004; Hoover-Dempsey & Sandler, 1995, 2005; Lorenzo, Godás, Priegue, & Santos Rego, 2009; Nermeen, Heather, & Votruba-Drzal, 2010; Sektan, McClelland, Acock, & Morrison, 2008; Torío, Peña, & Hernández, 2012). Let us cite as an example the reports presented by Desforjes and Abouchaar (2003) and Halgunseth and Petersen (2009). These two works can be used as basic references to get to understand, from an applied perspective, how one should plan the most appropriate strategies in order to attain the proposed objective which, in our case, is precisely to study

the families' involvement in the school and in the homework, both considered as being the most effective strategies in Primary Education. This is confirmed, among others, by Hill and Tyson (2009) as they performed a meta-analysis of the strategies which promoted the academic achievement of students. On the same vein, Epstein (2009) suggested an active team for partnership as a working group (families and teachers) whose purpose would be to achieve an effective climate in the school, seeking the success of all students.

2. Methodology

2.1. Design

In this study, we used a random group design with only one post-test measure in which the data was collected in a cross-sectional fashion in 12 primary schools in which the teachers, the students and the families of the latter participated. The main selection criterion was that the students belong to the 5th and 6th grades of primary school.

2.2. Participants

There were 60 participating teachers, teaching 4th grade of Primary education (6.3%), 5th (29.8%), 6th (38.6%), 4th and 5th (0.3%), 5th and 6th (8.6%) and 4th, 5th, and 6th (16.4%). Their teaching experience varies between less than 5 years (10.3%), between 5 and 15 years (29.8%), between 16 and 30 years (30.4%) and more than 30 years (29.5%). The seniority in the present school is between 5 and 15 years (50.4%), although there are important numbers of those who have been working in the school for less than 5 (32.7%) and more than 20 years (13.5%).

At the same time, 630 families participated (522 two-parent and 108 single-parent families). Specifically, 60.46% are female and 39.54% male. Table 1 shows their socio-demographic characteristics, taking into consideration only those to which the specialized literature on family involvement ascribes a high level of impact on the process.

Table 1. Socio-demographic characteristics of the families participating in the study

	Two-parent families		Single-parent families		
Number of children	Total		Total	Female	Male
1	13.8		22.2	34.8	32.1
2	6.5		48.2	21.7	32.1
3	15.7		20.9	17.4	7.1
More than 3	5.5		8.1	26.1	28.7
Educational level	Total		Total	Female	Male
Primary Education	21.5		24.4	8.7	21.9
Secondary Education	33.9		41.9	52.2	49.4
Higher Education	43.5		33.7	39.1	28.7
No studies	1.1		0	0	0
Books in the house	Total		Total	Female	Male
Less than 10	0.8		4.7	4.3	0
Between 10 and 30	8.3		18.6	8.7	20.7
Between 31 and 50	12.6		15.1	13	20.7
Between 51 and 100	20.7		18.6	8.7	20.7
Between 101 and 150	14.4		11.6	26.1	10.3
More than 150	43.2		31.4	39.2	27.6
Children's books in the house	Total		Total	Female	Male
Less than 10	4.3		12.9	4.4	3.5
Between 10 and 30	17.6		25.9	30.4	44.8
Between 31 and 50	23.4		22.4	4.4	17.2
Between 51 and 100	30.9		18.8	30.4	13.8
Between 101 and 150	11.7		10.6	13	6.9
More than 150	12.1		9.4	17.4	13.8
Employment status	Male	Female	Total	Female	Male
Temporary contract	9.2	8.8	-	21.9	18.5
Permanent contract	29.5	37	-	30.4	44.5
Freelance	15.9	25	-	8.7	3.7
Civil servant	17.6	16.8	-	4.3	7.4
Household work	11.6	0.3	-	0	3.7
Domestic services	4.3	4	-	4.3	0
Unemployed	10.3	8	-	30.4	11.1
Retired	1.6	0.1	-	0	11.1

As far as the student body is concerned, 630 students participated (51.8% boys and 48.2% girls) enrolled in the 5th (50.4%) and 6th grade (49.5%). 89.2% were never retained, while 10.8% were.

2.3. Measuring instruments

Three *ad hoc* questionnaires were devised for each of the participating groups, whose indices of consistency and reliability are contained in Table 2.

The questionnaire meant for the teachers is made up of 9 categorical items and 29 Likert-type questions, adapted from the studies of Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler, and Brissie (1992), and updated on the basis of the results presented by Epstein (2009). The subsequent transformation into 5 indices (see Table 2) was found satisfactory so as to enable us to treat them as dependent variables

(DVs). The categorical questions (seniority in the present school and general seniority as a teacher, professional situation and grades taught) were used as grouping or independent variables (IVs) in order to observe their professional practice in interacting with the families.

The questionnaire directed to the families is made up of 6 categorical items and 37 Likert-type questions, subsequently transformed into 5 indices for the mothers and 5 for the fathers (see Table 2).

Finally, the questionnaire for the students is made of 4 categorical items and 50 Likert-type questions, also subsequently transformed into 5 (see Table 2).

In these last two cases, the Likert scale were adapted based upon the validation made by Yotyodying (2012) in order to see the motivating elements which determine the academic result.

Table 2. Consistency and reliability indices of the measuring instruments

	Original scales	Exploratory Factor Analysis							
		Factor	Eigenvalue	% Variance	KMO	Indices	No. of items	Alpha	Total Alpha
Teaching staff	Assessment of family involvement (29 scale items, alpha=.852)	1	7.059	41.524	.873	PROF1	4	.743	.901
		2	2.290	13.471		PROF2	2	.872	
		3	2.077	12.219		PROF3	2	.894	
		4	1.201	7.066		PROF4	4	.714	
		5	1.132	6.657		PROF5	3	.716	
	Socio-professional (9 categorical items)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Families	Components of the decision to get involved (37 items, alpha=.816): fathers and mothers	1	5.816	17.625	.802	P1	8	.743	.823
		2	3.869	11.724		P2	7	.810	
		3	2.418	7.328		P3	7	.773	
		4	1.823	5.525		P4	4	.704	
		5	1.458	4.418		P5	4	.714	
		1	5.014	15.193	.801	M1	8	.795	.811
		2	3.697	11.203		M2	5	.823	
		3	2.642	8.006		M3	6	.735	
		4	1.741	5.275		M4	7	.755	
		5	1.467	4.444		M5	3	.831	
	Socio-demographic (6 categorical items)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

	Original scales	Exploratory Factor Analysis							
		Factor	Eigenvalue	% Variance	KMO	Indices	No. of items	Alpha	Total Alpha
Students	Motivating processes which affect academic performance (50 items, alpha= .897)	1	9.762	45.269	.813	AL1	12	.844	.823
		2	4.512	16.270		AL2	12	.858	
		3	3.285	7.520		AL3	10	.811	
		4	2.766	5.475		AL4	7	.806	
		5	1.967	4.610		AL5	5	.777	
	Socio-demographic (4 categorical items)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

2.4. Procedure

The data was collected in 2018 in three stages. In the first, we asked for the permission of the autonomous Galician government; in the second, we contacted the schools to explain the project to them; and, in the last one, in collaboration with the teachers and with the schools' management and counseling teams, we administered the questionnaires to the students in the classrooms and we distributed the questionnaires to the teachers and families, those being subsequently collected by the research team.

The study was carried out in accordance with the recommendations issued by the Bioethics Committee of the University of Santiago de Compostela. All subjects gave their informed written consent in accordance with the Helsinki Declaration.

2.5. Data analysis

Using the IBM SPSS Statistics 24 statistics package with prior codification of the variables, we

first checked the non-existence of lost values and subsequently determined the reliability indices (Table 2), the dimensions and the indices by means of the Exploratory Factor Analysis, the basic descriptors, the correlation analyses (Pearson's *r*), and given that the aim is to compare the various groups, it was fitting to carry out inferential analyses (Student's *t*-test).

3. Results

3.1. Teaching staff

The characteristics that best distinguish their actions or practices related to family involvement refer to their seniority (in the present school and as teacher in general) and their professional status (staff member or temporary employee). On the other hand, the grade or grades in which they teach is a characteristic which establishes a smaller number of differences (see Table 3).

Table 3. Indicators of the differences between the socio-professional variables of the teachers and the indicators of the practices concerning family involvement

VI	VD	Mean 1	Mean 2	SD 1	SD 2	N 1	N 2	t	df	Bilateral Sign.
Seniority in present school 1 = 5-15 years 2 = 16-30 years	PROF1	2.24	1.72	.676	.323	32	28	7.08	58	.000
	PROF2	1.82	2.03	.768	.411	32	28	-2.51	58	.012
	PROF3	2.12	3.16	.650	.364	32	28	-14.63	58	.000
	PROF4	1.42	1.59	.477	.612	32	28	-3.13	58	.002
	PROF5	2.14	2.57	.528	.542	32	28	-7.02	58	.000

VI	VD	Mean 1	Mean 2	SD 1	SD 2	N 1	N 2	t	df	Bilateral Sign.
Seniority as a teacher 1 = 5-15 years 2 = 16-30 years	PROF1	1.82	2.43	.536	.626	15	45	-12.42	58	.000
	PROF2	1.46	2.11	.445	.766	15	45	-12.02	58	.000
	PROF3	2.21	2.34	.665	.742	15	45	-2.13	58	.033
	PROF4	1.24	1.59	.208	.583	15	45	-9.08	58	.000
	PROF5	2.13	2.26	.538	.545	15	45	-2.85	58	.005
Professional status 1 = Staff member 2 = Temporary employee	PROF1	2.29	1.78	.637	.597	29	31	8.12	58	.000
	PROF2	2.03	1.15	.697	.283	29	31	13.91	58	.000
	PROF3	2.36	2.02	.718	.635	29	31	4.80	58	.000
	PROF4	1.57	1.19	.529	.224	29	31	6.78	58	.000
	PROF5	2.31	1.82	.480	.596	29	31	9.63	58	.000
Grades taught 1 = One grade only 2 = Several grades	PROF1	2.31	1.61	.673	.320	32	28	7.40	58	.000
	PROF3	2.31	2.89	.639	.682	32	28	-6.18	58	.000

As shown, the relationship between the 5 dimensions is highly significant ($p \leq 0.01$ in all of them). In any case, the relationships with more weight were registered, with a mean correlation of .52, among the dimension PROF2 (giving enough importance and effectiveness to the act of counseling the families in matters of homework and exams) and the dimensions PROF3 (giving enough importance and effectiveness to the act of asking for volunteer fathers or mothers to help in their classes) and PROF4 (giving high importance to the act of reading with the children at home and stimulating their interest in the school tasks). These last ones also have a close relationship between themselves ($r = .412$, $p \leq 0.01$) just as the dimension PROF1 (giving enough importance and effectiveness to the act of providing materials to the families and instructing them about their usage) and the PROF2 dimension. As for the last dimension (considering it effective and possible enough that the families have recourse to community services, such as “parents’ schools”) has a much weaker, albeit significant, relationship with the other four dimensions ($r = .138$, $r = .171$, $r = .237$ and $r = .109$, $p \leq 0.01$, respectively).

It can be observed in the table that the strategy of providing materials to the family and instructing them about their use (PROF1) is practiced by the teachers with less experience in the given schools but with more years as teachers. Their professional status is stable and they teach only one grade (5th or 6th of Primary Education).

The dimension referring to the counseling of families in matters of homework and exams (PROF2), is assumed by those with more seniority in the given school and also as teachers in general having a stable professional situation. The third one, asking volunteer families to help in the school (PROF3), is used by teachers with the same profile and who teach several grades. The fourth one (PROF4), reading with the children at home and stimulating their interest in the school tasks, is used by those who have greater experience in the given school and as teachers in general and with a stable professional situation. Lastly, the fifth dimension (PROF5) which involves the recommendation to families that they use community services (“parents’ schools”, for instance), is the one most adopted by the teachers with more experience (in the school and as teachers and with a stable professional situation).

3.2. Families

With the evidence provided by our data, we can state that not all the characteristics considered by the initial approach trigger differences in matters of the determining factors for the family’s decision to get involved (the employment status and the type of family, in fact, do not). Only those listed in Table 4 showed such a level of influence in the indices referring to mothers and fathers.

Tabla 4. Diferencias entre las características socio-familiares en cuanto a los elementos que determinan la decisión familiar de implicarse en madres y padres

IVs	DVs	Mean 1	Mean 2	SD 1	SD 2	N 1	N 2	t	df	Bilateral Sign.
Number of children 1 = 1 or 2 2 = 3 or more than 3	M2	4.83	4.76	.266	.322	255	124	2.76	377	.006
	M3	1.86	2.00	.603	.570	255	124	-2.33	377	.020
	M5	3.94	3.78	.763	.779	255	124	2.16	377	.031
	P1	4.76	4.64	.292	.390	183	66	3.12	247	.002
	P4	3.66	3.82	.701	.543	183	66	-2.20	247	.029
	P5	4.12	3.94	.582	.780	183	66	2.32	247	.021
Educational level 1 = Secondary Education 2 = Higher Education	M3	1.99	1.74	.588	.572	221	160	5.17	379	.000
	M4	4.20	4.10	.520	.504	221	160	2.30	379	.022
	M5	4.02	3.73	.693	.832	221	160	4.48	379	.000
	P2	3.67	3.83	.677	.767	163	86	-2.33	247	.020
	P4	3.73	3.59	.655	.669	163	86	2.14	247	.033
Books in the house 1= 50 2 = 51-150	M2	4.75	4.84	.356	.248	95	289	-.330	382	.001
	M3	2.11	1.82	.747	.521	95	289	5.25	382	.000
	M4	4.25	4.13	.530	.511	95	289	2.50	382	.013
	M5	4.07	3.85	.734	.771	95	289	3.10	382	.002
	P3	2.72	2.54	.881	.699	47	202	2.00	247	.046
	P4	3.90	3.63	.733	.642	47	202	3.32	247	.001
	P5	4.21	4.04	.612	.625	47	202	2.22	247	.027
Children's books in the house 1= 50 2 = 51-150	M2	4.79	4.84	.319	.240	184	197	-2.06	379	.040
	M3	2.01	1.78	.630	.547	184	197	4.78	379	.000
	M4	4.22	4.10	.477	.548	184	197	2.85	379	.005
	P4	3.77	3.61	.724	.613	108	141	2.48	247	.014
	P5	4.16	4.01	.595	.643	108	141	2.50	247	.013

With regard to the mothers, the dimension which showed the closest relationship referred to what we labeled “M4” (focusing the responsibility of a good academic performance of the students exclusively on the family). The highly significant direction of this relationship, was established around the belief in its self-effectiveness in order to get involved every time that the child asks for it (M1, $r=.431$, $p\leq 0.01$), prioritizing learning as the student's main aim (M2, $r=.321$, $p\leq 0.01$) and of

pointing to the school as the responsible for the students' academic success (M5, $r=.225$, $p\leq 0.01$).

As far as the fathers are concerned, focusing the responsibility for the students' good academic performance on the school (P5) is the more encompassing dimension in associative terms and thus a significant relationship was established, oriented towards learning as the student's main aim (P1) ($r=.282$, $p\leq 0.01$), with the belief in its self-effectiveness in order to be able to get involved

in their children's education (P2) ($r=.206$, $p\leq 0.01$) and with important role of the student's request for academic help (P4) ($r=.244$, $p\leq 0.01$). The same level of association was also established between the dimensions P1 and P2 ($r=.248$, $p\leq 0.01$) and between P1 and P4 ($r=.244$, $p\leq 0.01$).

Observing table 4, we see that a bigger number of children affects, for the mothers the orientation of aims towards learning and the focusing of responsibility for the children's education on the school (M5). A smaller number of children impinges on a negative attitude (in terms of rejection). For the fathers, however, a smaller number of children influences the orientation of aims towards learning (P1) and on focusing the educational responsibility on the school (P5). A greater number of children finally has a repercussion on the fathers whose decision to get involved depends on a request from the children (P4).

In general (see Table 4), the higher the level of the parents' studies, the stronger the belief in their self-efficiency to get involved (P2) and, when

the studies are primary and or secondary, a negative orientation is established towards the academic achievement as an aim (M3), the responsibility of the education is focused on the family and on the school (M4 and M5) and the decision to get involved, in the case of the fathers, is materialized when the student asks for it (P4).

Finally, a larger quantity of books or children's books are not factors with much bearing in the family's decision to get involved, with the exception – see Table 4 – of the mothers who put learning before achievement as an aim for their children's education (M2).

3.3. Student body

Out of all the characteristics included in the study, only two have been shown to have an influence on the motivating processes concerning learning (see Table 5), the ones referring to the grade and to the gender of the students.

Table 5. Indicators of the differences between the socio-demographic variables of the students and the indicators referring to the motivating processes concerning learning

IVs	DVs	Mean 1	Mean 2	SD 1	SD 2	N 1	N 2	t	df	Bilateral Sign.
Grade 1 = 5th 2 = 6th	AL1	3.96	3.70	.662	.744	318	312	4.58	628	.000
	AL2	3.43	3.30	.850	.722	318	312	2.05	628	.041
	AL3	4.19	3.88	.709	.743	318	312	5.21	628	.000
	AL4	2.60	2.17	1.009	.908	318	312	5.40	628	.000
Gender 1 = Boy 2 = Girl	AL1	3.75	3.91	.737	.682	325	302	-2.94	625	.003
	AL3	3.99	4.12	.757	.707	325	302	-2.25	625	.025

With regard to the dimensions, the associations with more weight are established between the regulation of negative academic emotion when facing stressful academic situations (AL1) in which the subject intends to solve the conflicts, considering them important for himself/herself (we give as an example two items: "I know that I can solve the problem" and "I make efforts because I want to understand"). The relationships are established with AL2 ($r=.362$, $p< 0.01$) referring to a type of extrinsic motivation in which the subject makes efforts to solve school tasks in order to avoid anxiety or obtain self-reinforcements such as "pride". The same goes for AL3 ($r=.471$, $p< 0.01$) focused on a perception of a "flexible" style of involvement based on the support and the encouragement coming from the parents. The level

of association between the latter is still high (AL2-AL3, $r=.158$; AL2-AL4, $r=.287$ and AL3-AL4, $r=.228$; all of these at a level of $p\leq 0.01$).

In regard to grade and gender (see Table 5), those who manifest a greater regulation of the academic emotion (AL1) are the girls and the 5th grade students, who also manifest, a special motivation for avoiding anxiety or feeling pride (AL2), the perception of a flexible style in the involvement of their parents (AL3, in this case also in the girls) and the absence of self-reinforcing expressions or actions when solving a difficult task (AL4).

4. Discussion and conclusions

The initial idea behind researching the elements which condition the process of family involvement

and which, among other consequences, influence the students' motivation in dealing with their academic tasks, was solved, to a large extent, in light of the results obtained with the present study.

The theoretical basis which postulates how families make the decision to get involved in the homework dynamics (Epstein, 2009; Sheridan & Kim, 2015) was shown as solid, because of the weight and statistical significance registered while analyzing the association between the variables making up each of the levels of the process in question. This is due to the fact that the methodological approach and mainly the measuring instruments have credibly captured the actions of the main actors of this stage (teachers and families) and also confirmed that the choice of those who participated in the study was correct. It is logical, given the consensus on the method of proceeding when one started to devise a study on this phenomenon (Creemers & Kyriakides, 2008; Epstein, 2009; Latunde, 2017).

The teaching staff's intervention and beliefs were shown to be clearly conditioned by the number of years they had spent in the school, by their teaching experience, by their job stability and by whether or not they work with one grade only. As far as their practices are concerned, the counseling of the families in matters of homework and in order to prepare evaluations, together with the distribution of tutorial materials, are the most present actions, which matches the findings of similar studies (Epstein & Dauber, 1991; Epstein & Van Voorhis, 2001; Jung & Han, 2013).

The decisive factors in the family's decision to get involved in this research are located in the first level of the model suggested by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995). It is here that we find the motivating elements which initiate the involvement and in which the construction of the parental role is salient (the ideas about the role that the parents have to assume in the school-related matters relevant to their children). In this case, the mothers with several children (three or more) believe that this responsibility lies directly with the family, whilst the fathers having one or two children, delegate such responsibility to the school. Here as well, there is a clear consensus, in empirical terms in attributing to this factor an important role in the decision to get involved (Grolnick, Benjet, Kurowski, & Apostoleris, 1997; Green, Walker, Hoover-Dempsey, & Sandler, 2007; Reparaz & Jiménez, 2015; Walker, Ice, Hoover-Dempsey, & Sandler, 2011).

The features of the student body which represent the guiding thread towards academic achievement are situated at level 4, postulated by the model we started with. The grade they are in, 5th

of Primary Education, was shown to be the variable with most capacity to differentiate between the influence of the regulation of positive academic motivation (when a difficult task is solved) and the negative one (when there is pressure to solve school tasks), as well as the motivation of controlled learning (in order to make effort in doing the homework) and the perception of family support and interest in school-related matters. The disciplinary strategies employed by the family when faced with a negative or absent school performance (rigid style of involvement) were not shown as being affected by any of the variables in which the student body is grouped. These results are in agreement with other studies which use cross-sectional and longitudinal methodologies (Cerasoli, Nicklin, & Ford, 2014; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Sheridan & Kim, 2015; Yotyodying, 2012).

In any case, the study we present could be more consistent when monitoring and longitudinally analyzing the importance of the different variables in order to verify the stability of the motivating elements.

It is precisely on the basis of the model proposed by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995) and on the solidity of proof offered by the empirical data which we have just spelled out, that the Implica2 program (http://www.usc.es/esculca/proyecto_implica2) is designed and evaluated; it involves families with children enrolled in the 4th, 5th and 6th grade of Primary Education. It is a psycho-social program focused on promoting family involvement and the improvement of the students' study habits and techniques. Its main aim is the optimization of the strategies which shape the students' learning in the family context, in order to improve their academic results and raise the level of their expected academic success.

The Program consists of two sub-programs. One of them is directed towards the students and its aim is to train them in the learning of study habits which would have a positive impact on their academic performance. The other one is directed towards the families and its aim is to improve their involvement in the school trajectory of their children. A guide was also devised with the aim of serving as a support tool for the families in regard to certain matters having to do with the school life of the minors. A previous study was used for the design of said guide (Santos Rego & Lorenzo, 2015).

Specifically, the program consists of five sessions with an approximate duration of two hours each (a total of 10 hours), of which the last one aims at the evaluation of the program by the participants. In its development, the following content is approached: the beginning of adolescence, the

communication within the family, the family's responsibility regarding the children's learning and homework. Moreover, the necessary instruments

were designed to evaluate the program; they include scales for the students, families and teachers as well as a daily action and incident reports.

Nota

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PROFESSIONAL PARENTING IN INSTITUTIONAL FOSTER CARE: PROPOSAL TO IMPROVE CARE OF CHILDREN FOSTERED IN CHILD PROTECTION CENTRES

PARENTALIDAD PROFESIONAL EN EL ACOGIMIENTO INSTITUCIONAL: PROPUESTA PARA MEJORAR LA ATENCIÓN A LOS NIÑOS ACOGIDOS EN CENTROS DE PROTECCIÓN

PARENTALIDADE PROFISSIONAL NO ACOlhIMENTO INSTITUCIONAL: PROPOSTA PARA MELHORAR A ATENÇÃO ÀS CRIANÇAS RECEBIDAS EM CENTROS DE PROTEÇÃO

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ABSTRACT: The studies conducted about children fostered in child protection centres find delays and issues in the majority of developmental areas which hamper their wellbeing and transition to independent living. These adverse effects have been partly attributed to the impoverished upbringing common in residential settings compared to family life. In this article, we propose a reconceptualisation of the role of the social educator as a professional parental figure as a way to overcome some of the limitations associated with institutional foster care. Through a literature review, the most important contributions supporting this proposal are examined. In the first part, the difficulties faced by fostered children and adolescents are analysed, along with the role played by residential foster care in these difficulties. After that, we explore the most significant functions of the professional parental figure, such as protection and stimulation of development, reparative affective bonds and guidance in resilience processes, and we compare them with the way institutional foster care has developed them. We propose replacing the concept of professional distance with that of optimal proximity, in which the social educator's personal experiences become teaching resources in their educational undertaking.

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<p>PALABRAS CLAVE: Educación parental parentalidad profesional acogimiento residencial infancia tutelada protección a la infancia</p>	<p>RESUMEN: Los estudios realizados entorno a los niños acogidos en centros de protección observan retrasos y problemáticas en la mayoría de áreas del desarrollo que dificultan su bienestar y transición a la vida independiente. Estos efectos adversos se han atribuido, en parte, al empobrecimiento educativo que supone el entorno residencial respecto al familiar. En este artículo proponemos la reconceptualización del rol del educador social como figura parental profesional para superar parte de las limitaciones asociadas al acogimiento institucional. A través de una revisión narrativa se revisan las aportaciones más relevantes que apoyan esta propuesta. En una primera parte se analizan las dificultades de los niños y adolescentes tutelados y el papel que el acogimiento residencial tiene en ellas. Posteriormente exploramos las funciones más significativas de la figura parental profesional, como son la protección y estimulación del desarrollo, la vinculación afectiva reparadora y la guía de procesos de resiliencia, y las contrastamos con el desarrollo que el acogimiento institucional ha desarrollado en ellas. Proponemos sustituir el concepto de distancia profesional, por el de proximidad óptima, en el que las experiencias personales del educador son recursos de enseñanza en su labor educadora.</p>
<p>PALAVRAS-CHAVE: Educação parental parentalidade profissional acolhimento residencial infância protegida proteção da infância</p>	<p>RESUMO: Os estudos realizados em torno de crianças acolhidas em centros de proteção observam atrasos e problemas na maioria das áreas de desenvolvimento, que impedem o seu bem-estar e a transição para a vida independente. Esses efeitos adversos foram atribuídos, em parte, ao empobrecimento educacional que representa o ambiente residencial relativo à família. Neste artigo propomos a nova conceitualização do papel do educador social, enquanto figura parental profissional, para superar parte das limitações associadas ao acolhimento institucional. Através de uma revisão narrativa, avaliam-se as contribuições mais relevantes que apoiam esta proposta. Numa primeira parte, são analisadas as dificuldades das crianças e dos adolescentes protegidos e o papel que o acolhimento residencial desempenha sobre eles. Mais tarde, exploramos as funções mais significativas da figura parental profissional, como a proteção e estimulação do desenvolvimento, o vínculo afetivo reparador e o guia dos processos de resiliência, e comparamos os mesmos com o desenvolvimento que o acolhimento institucional desenvolveu neles. Propomos a substituição do conceito de distância profissional, pelo de proximidade ideal, em que as experiências pessoais do educador são recursos de aprendizagem no seu trabalho educativo.</p>

1. Introduction

In Spain, the public administration is the guardian of 6 out of every 1,000 children, protecting them from extremely vulnerable situations such as neglect or abuse. According to the portal of the Ministry of Health, Consumer Affairs and Social Welfare, Children in Figures, 48% of these children are fostered in institutions, while 52% are fostered in families. Social educators are the professionals in charge of raising children whose protective measure is institutional foster care. Thus, social educators are in charge of accompanying the children through their daily hygiene and feeding routines, assisting them at school and extracurricular activities, accompanying them on trips to the doctor, caring for their emotional wellbeing, etc. Although it is true that social educators work in educational teams and the children see several social educators over the course of the day as shifts rotate, just one social educator takes on the role of a specific child's guardian to thus create a more individualised space of care with the child. Guardians develop the individualised education plan of the children they oversee and draft the respective follow-up reports. Even though social educators are in charge of several children or adolescents during their workday, they also have individualised spaces where they can work more intensely with the

children or adolescents whose guardian they are. These spaces tend not to exceed one hour weekly per child or adolescent.

Through a narrative review of the academic literature (Ferrari, 2015), we shall examine the current state of several debates around the impact that family or institutional foster care has on the development of these children, and we shall propose several avenues of intervention to improve their care. To do so, first we shall focus on the impact that both kinds of foster care have on the children, and then we shall analyse the possible reasons for the shortcomings observed in the development of children who are fostered at residential centres. We shall particularly focus on the upbringing at the centres and social educators, assuming that they have to provide the upbringing needed for the physical, psychological, social and moral development that the parents should have provided in the course of their work.

Many international studies have been conducted on the development and evolution of these children. These studies reveal difficulties in areas like education, job placement, income, access to housing, mental health, suicidal behaviours, substance abuse and criminal behaviours. The data show this population's high level of vulnerability, with lower results than those of children from poor families (for a survey, see Gypen,

Vanderfaellie, De Maeyer, Belenger, & Van Holen, 2017; Kääriälä, & Hiilamo, 2017; Evans, White, Turley, Slater, Morgan, Strange, & Scourfield, 2017). Similar results were observed in studies of the Spanish population (Bernal & Melendro, 2014; Bravo & Fernández del Valle, 2003; Martin, Muñoz, Rodríguez, & Pérez, 2008; Montserrat, Cases, & Bertran, 2013; Oriol-Granado, Sala-Roca, & Filella, 2014, 2015; Sainero, Del Valle, & Bravo, 2015; Sala-Roca, Jariot, Villaba, & Rodríguez, 2009).

After a review of numerous studies, Kääriälä and Hiilamo (2017) state that the deficits found have three possible origins. First, the personal conditions and accumulation of adverse experiences prior to entering the protection system may have caused a deterioration of such a magnitude that it cannot be offset by the protective measures. Secondly, another cause could be that the protective measures themselves may have a negative influence on children's and adolescents' development. This possibility is extremely worrisome because it would imply that the protective measures may even further harm their beneficiaries. Thirdly, the support they receive in their transition to independent living when they reach adulthood may be inadequate or insufficient. These three factors are joined by the lack of stable resources, in their foster families and at school, which not only limits the continuity of the work performed by the different stakeholders but also entails the accumulation of experiences involving loss (Gypen et al., 2017).

It is difficult to compare the different impact of institutional and family foster care because although they do have different results – generally in favour of family foster care – the severity of the issues and the age of the children in institutional and family foster care are not equivalent. There is a higher concentration of children and adolescents with behavioural or mental health problems in institutional foster care. Furthermore, the mean age of children who do not have access to family foster care is higher, and therefore prior to the protective measures they have accumulated adversities over a longer period of time. On the other hand, a larger proportion of children with normal cognitive development enter family foster care compared to institutional care (for a survey, see Leloux-Opmeer, Kuiper, Swaab, & Scholte, 2016).

Despite the limitations we have just cited, the majority of researchers believe that institutional foster care may be damaging, and that the preferable option is family care. Some even believe that it may be preferable to leave the child with their biological family before fostering them in a residential centre. One of the arguments used is that many of the problems observed in children who are in institutional foster care disappear

after they are adopted, which would prove that a family environment has a reparative power that institutions do not. Another argument that would uphold this thesis is that when they are fostered in centres, children experience added delays in many developmental parameters, plus there is a positive association between these delays and the amount of time they spend in the centre. In this same vein, it is found that delays in the development of attention and executive functions may only be observed in institutionalised children (Dozier, Zeanah, Wallin, & Shaffer, 2012; Quiroga & Hamilton-Giachritsis, 2016).

The majority of countries consider family foster care the preferable option (Fernández del Valle & Bravo, 2013). In Spain, the protection model is mixed, as half the children are in family foster care (52%) and the other half in institutional foster care (48%) (data on children from the Ministry). This is partly because there are not enough families in Spain willing to foster children, and many of the children that enter the protection system are between puberty and adolescence, ages when foster care processes are more difficult. However, it is also important to bear in mind that a significant percentage of foster situations (26%) fail (López, del Valle, Montserrat, & Bravo, 2011), and that the residential option may better fit the needs of these children and adolescents. So, residential centres are an indispensable resource in the protection of children and adolescents within the protection system and will remain so in the future.

Residential centres seek to offer an alternative nurturing environment to the nuclear family in which the child can feel safe, can recover from experiences of negligence and trauma, can develop and, when the time comes, can prepare for independent living. To achieve this, the children fostered in centres need to be provided with a safe environment and the comprehensive upbringing that they should have received in the family setting from which they were removed. Major efforts have been made to improve the quality of residential care (Del Valle, Bravo, Martínez, & Santos, 2013), but greater efforts are needed to ensure that residential foster care can offer the support and stimulus that a family could. The initial hypothesis of this review is that residential foster care is highly limited by an excessively technical conceptualisation of the social educator and by a misinterpretation of professional distance, which can be a good instrument to protect against burnout while leading away from the reparative affective bond that these children need. These factors would be limiting and undermining the nurturing functions and potential impact of

the social educator. For this reason, we propose the concept of professional parenting in order to resituate the role of the social educator as a comprehensive nurturer and to overcome some barriers which this professional figure has faced in the transition from the care model to the socioeducational model. By professional parenting we mean the pedagogue or social educator taking on the family roles in the foster care at a residential centre, although this figure already exists in professional family foster care.

2. Family upbringing in the transition from the care-based model to the socioeducational model of child protection

In the 1990s, after numerous studies which revealed the negative impact of institutionalisation on development, different reports were issued stating the need to change these large institutions for more family-sized residences, with lower stay times, higher foster care ages, teams of specialised professionals and socioeducational programmes that go beyond mere care (e.g., *The Quality of Care, Home, 1992; Accommodating Children, 1992*). In consequence, reforms were undertaken in the protection systems, with major divergences among countries. Thus, in some countries the majority of institutions were closed and the children were fostered in families; in others, such as Spain, the resources were diversified while maintaining most of the structures and adapting them to the recommendations (Fernández del Valle & Bravo, 2013). In these three decades, regulations have been adopted aimed at gradually attaining family-sized centres and more individual and nurturing interventions. Thus, the old institutions are gradually reorganising their buildings to have smaller sizes, and they are professionalising their teams and development programmes, projects and educational evaluations.

Over these years, interventions have become more technical, yet the evidence provided by studies on the impact of institutional foster care are nonetheless worrisome. If we consider the results, it seems that the efficiency of the interventions are still far under the interventions of non-professional adults who take on the upbringing of these children as foster parents (Dozier et al., 2012; Gypen et al., 2017). This has led many countries to choose to limit residential foster care to children with serious mental health problems or disabilities. However, this policy also shows significant problems, especially with adolescents, who do not always accept the imposition of a foster family. This may lead to multiple ruptures and

failures and constant family changes, which even further deepen their trauma (Vinnerljung, Sallnäs, & Berlin, 2017). In this vein, in recent years some researchers have noted that residential centres can offer greater stability for children and adolescents for whom foster families are not appropriate or desired (Holmes, Connolly, Mortimer, & Hevesi, 2018). For this reason, having a protection model with different options in terms of the type of measures and centres enables children and their needs to be placed at the core of the decision. However, this does not eliminate the need to explore strategies ensure that residential centres have a more positive impact on children's development, but instead it makes it even more urgent.

If we analyse the evolution of institutional and family foster care in recent decades, we find that the improvement strategies seem to have pursued different routes. While in family foster care the main efforts have focused on empowering and training in parental habits, both to improve the process and its results (Balsells et al., 2015) and to prevent vulnerability (Orte et al. 2016), in residential foster care the efforts have primarily been focused on setting quality standards in resources and interventions from a more technical-educational standpoint. However, the relationship with the social educators is the crux of the children's and adolescents' perceived wellbeing (Llosada-Gistau, Casas, & Montserrat, 2017).

In residential foster care, it is assumed that the centres are the children's homes; however, in the educational regulations and projects no reference is made to family upbringing, thus ignoring its importance in child and adolescent development. Although it is true that working plans on the communicative, social and school aspects are included in the educational plans, family upbringing is broader and requires one adult to take over the parental functions, and this implies an affective bond and the organisation of times according to the children's needs, which can be difficult to combine with the social educators' aspirations and job demands. Also it is possible that caution and professionals' and centres' fear that the original family may view professional parenting as an attempt to usurp their figure and downplay their bond with the child have generated a kind of self-censure from taking on parental functions (Holmes et al., 2018). The original family will always be a fundamental referent for children and adolescents (Gradaille, Montserrat, & Ballester, 2018); however, we are living in a society when alloparental care is becoming more widely accepted (Holmes et al., 2018).

Children need a parental figure present who meets their needs and guides them in their learning. This figure is taken on by foster parents in the

family foster care measure, and it should be provided by social educators in a residential setting. It is logical that the social educator may not feel the natural motivation conferred by attachment to make these intense efforts, but their motivation should emerge from an understanding of the child's needs and the awareness of the impact of their intervention. This is why it is essential for the professional to understand the extreme importance of their intervention, not only in the present but also assess its impact on the future life of the child or adolescent.

In countries like Spain, with extremely high rates of youth unemployment, the family is the lifesaver for the majority of youths, who do not become independent until quite advanced ages. However, youths who are in the protection system do not have a family with this protective potential. There is very little assistance to deal with the transition to independent living without relying on the nuclear family, and they do not always match the youths' profiles and needs (Comas-Forgas, Sala-Roca, & Arpón, 2018). Therefore, the most effective intervention consists largely in developing skills and personal and social resources during childhood and adolescence which will be needed for the transition to independence, as well as finding support in the different life stages. These lessons and resources cannot be provided within the span of one year, which is the time usually allotted in exit plans; instead, they must be provided since early childhood. For example, certain basic employability competences which begin to be developed before puberty are needed to secure a job (Arnau-Sabatés, Marzo, Jariot,

& Sala-Roca, 2014), as are a good educational level which is grounded upon basic school learning (Cassarino-Perez, Crous, Goemans, Montserrat, & Sarriera, 2018).

3. Professional parenting in institutional foster care

The family is essential in human development. It covers basic needs; it provides protection and physical and emotional wellbeing; and it is the main source of stimuli to develop instrumental, communicative, cognitive and socio-emotional skills. The family is the first space of socialisation, where we learn to interact with others; we build our self-esteem and evaluative emotions within the family. Likewise, the family also provides us with cultural and social capital, conveying knowledge about the environment and fostering the relationships which we need in order to positively integrate into society.

Taking on the care and upbringing of a child or adolescent who has suffered from neglect or abuse entails several responsibilities. This is why in residential foster care the parental function must not solely address basic needs and stimulate and guide development and learning while ensuring and advocating for the child's wellbeing and interests, but it should also provide spaces and experiences to overcome the imprint that this neglect or abuse has left. Within this context, the social educator should not only care for and stimulate the child in the absence of their parents; they must also become a resilience guardian.

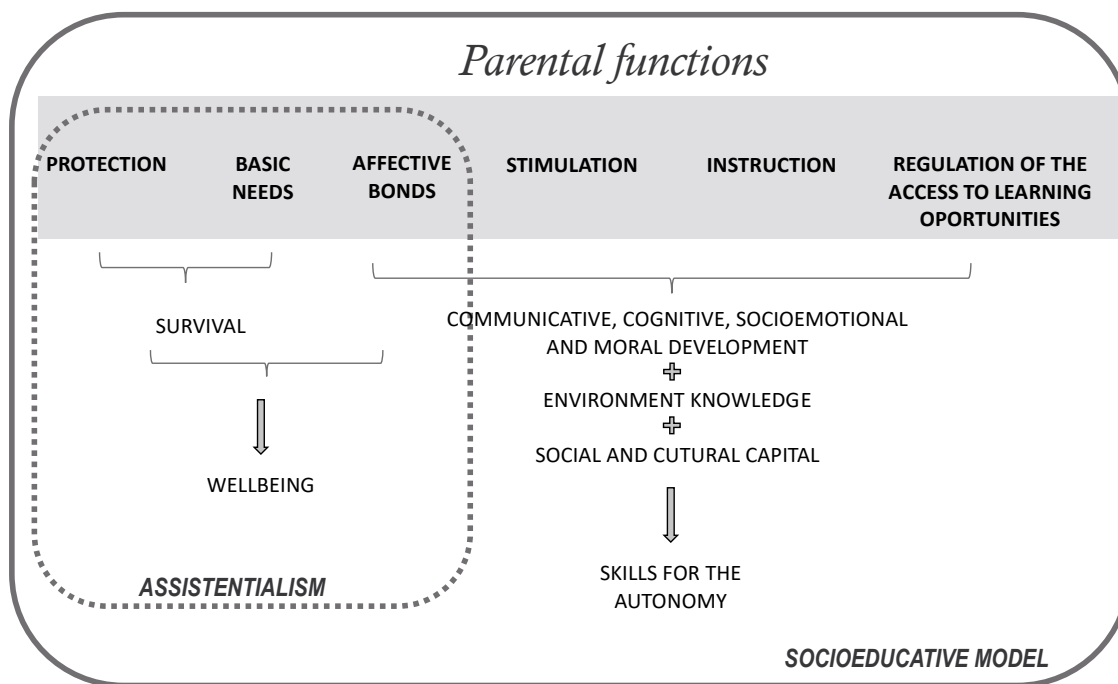


Figure 1. Professional parenting and intervention models.

3.1. Protective function

Among the different functions entailed in professional parenting, the protective function is the one on which all professionals concur. Certainly, many children feel relieved when they enter residential foster care because it offers them a stable place to live, where they access the basic services and food is secure. The professionalization of caregivers and the oversight of the administration has led to a drastic decrease in the abuse that may have happened in these institutions in the past. Today, the main security risks may come from the youths at the centres or their environs, which are models of risk due to drug consumption or criminal activities. Much work remains to be done in this sphere, given that fostered youths are 50 times more likely to enter a juvenile justice centre than their non-fostered peers, and almost all these youths come from institutional foster care measures (Oriol-Granado et al., 2015). The inadequate models is a problem also faced by many families living in neighbourhoods with high crime rates, and addressing it means investing efforts in moral development and getting the child or adolescent involved in sports or activities that not only prevent them from having too much idle free time but also improve their self-esteem. In this area, few youths have fun spaces that they share with their social educators, important experiences for their education and development (Sala-Roca et al., 2012).

Another no less important problem which social educators have to address is cases of

rejection, moral harassment and bullying which many children fostered in centres face at school (Martin, Muñoz, Rodríguez, & Pérez, 2008; Vacca & Kramer-Vida, 2012). Social educators, just like any parent, should be attentive to detect possible situations of bullying which the children under their charge may be experiencing outside the centre and intervene when this happens. Even though these experiences are extremely harmful for all children, they are even more so for children who have already experienced traumatic experiences, without close friends or a family who can provide them with emotional security.

3.2. Reparative bonding

One of the most important functions of professional parenting is creating a reparative affective bond. The attachment bond stimulates socioemotional development and imprints the mental representation of social relations and what can be expected of the people around us.

Many fostered children have insecure attachment (Vorría et al., 2003). It is calculated that children who have suffered from abuse are 80 times more likely to develop insecure, anxious, ambivalent or disorganised attachment (for a review, see Sutton, 2019). Their baggage of traumatic experiences and abuse is often further weighted down by the experience of being separated from their home, friends and classmates or neighbourhood mates, family and acquaintances. It is common for these children to experience different changes at

the centre, with the destruction and uprooting of new social circles which they may have been able to create. This will even further magnify their difficulties building trusting relationships and bonds like the ones needed for friendship.

Anxious bonds tend to lead to affective dependencies and fear of rejection (Lecannelier, 2002), while episodes of anger and hostility characterise ambivalent bonds (Kerr, Melley, Travea, & Pole, 2003). When parental behaviour is very distorted, with conducts such as abandonment, or fear-inducing or sexualised behaviours, as in disorganised attachment, the response expectations built in this relationship are tinged with aggressiveness, sexuality or indifference (Hawkins-Rodgers, 2007). However, the greatest difficulties will be faced by children who never manage to construct an affective bond in their first few years of life and show a reactive disorder in this bond. There is a high prevalence of this disorder among fostered children, and it is associated with experiences of serious abuse and entry into centres in their early years of life (Minnis et al., 2013).

Insecure attachments have a series of consequences which end up amplifying the impact in the long term. Thus, the limitations that tend to come with insecure attachments in socio-emotional development hinder the children from creating solid, trusting social relations with which they can build their network of social support, which is so essential to dealing with the multiple difficulties that they will face in their premature and forced transition to independent living. Studies concur that the majority of fostered youths have weak support networks (Bravo & Fernández del Valle, 2003; Hook & Courtney, 2011; Martin et al., 2008; Sala-Roca, Villalba, Jariot, & Arnau, 2012). In this sense, youths state that centres are hardly involved in helping them create social networks (Sala-Roca et al., 2012).

Boris Cyrulnik (2002) states that insecure bonding styles can be reconstructed via reparative affective bonds. Youths often show resistance to the nurturing mentoring provided by their foster caregiver (Villalba, 2017). This resistance tends to stem from the unease and mistrust generated by so many experiences of rupture. To overcome them, a reparative affective bond has to be constructed with the professionals, and the latter then become a trustworthy, available person. The adolescent must feel that their social educator has a real, authentic interest in them, and they must find that when they need their social educator's support, it is given within a reasonable timeframe.

Some youths experience bonds with a social educator that last beyond the time they remain in the centre (Sala-Roca et al., 2012). However, many

professionals have misinterpreted the concept of "professional distance". The youths complain of the lack of closeness with their social educators in the sense that they have access to the youths' private lives yet never talk about their own (Soldevila, Peregrino, Oriol, & Filella, 2013), thus missing not only a chance to facilitate the bond but also a basic nurturing resource in families. The concept of "professional distance" should be replaced by "optimal proximity". In fact, empathy and engagement are the aspects that the youths value the most in professionals (Montserrat & Melendro, 2017), and satisfaction with the relationship with the social educator is one of the factors that contributes the most to the youths' wellbeing (Llosada-Gistau et al., 2017).

As Maturana says, the transformation occurs by living together, and the world to which the child has access expands through language and retelling our experiences (Maturana, 2004). Parents recount present and past experiences as educational parables that enable their children to learn without the need to have had the experience themselves. This is a child-rearing strategy which has shaped the evolution of human beings. A social educator who does not use their life experiences to illustrate the values or lessons they are trying to convey impoverishes their educational potential. Without a doubt, sharing all of this experience would take longer than the amount of time set aside for guidance, so it is necessary to take advantage of moments in everyday life, such as travel, meals, sitting on the sofa, free-time, etc. The use of these everyday times is what shapes the nurturing potential of the family environment. It is a primarily informal, unplanned kind of upbringing, yet it has a great deal of impact and importance.

3.3. *Stimulation of development*

Many fostered children and adolescents show delays in their development of skills and knowledge. These shortcomings will weave a web of exclusion throughout their lives. Thus, delays in cognitive development (Dozier et al., 2012) are associated with school failure (Montserrat et al., 2013; Sala-Roca et al., 2009), hindering their future job opportunities (Courtney & Dworsky, 2006; Sala-Roca et al., 2009) and paving the way for chronic poverty (Naccarato, Brophy, & Courtney, 2010). This situation is further aggravated by the lower socioemotional skills of these youths (Oriol-Granado, et al., 2014; Zárate-Alva & Sala-Roca, 2019), which lead to poor social networks without any real potential to provide support (Bravo & Fernández del Valle, 2003; Martin et al., 2008).

In some cases, these developmental delays have originated from situations of abuse experienced before foster care, or they may have genetic roots; yet in others, the cause could be the residential environment's insufficient stimulating capacity (Kääriälä, & Hiilamo, 2017). The high ratios certainly make this task more difficult, but other educational centres, like preschools or schools, have to take on even higher ratios.

The high school failure rates in these children and adolescents (Montserrat, Casas, & Bertran, 2013) is extremely worrisome. A high percentage of children enter centres with a history of absenteeism and school delay. The low academic self-concept that comes with learning delays is an emotional burden which can easily lead to demotivation and absenteeism, with the added risk of hours on the street unsupervised.

Parental involvement has a high impact on school progress, especially when the child has difficulties (for a review, see Spera, 2005). Consequently, the professional parental figure should spend a significant amount of their time helping the child overcoming their difficulties with their studies and seeking additional sources of support. Just as in any family, the social educator too can take advantage of the resources provided by siblings and peer tutoring, with two-way benefits: not only on academic skills but also on the social skills, self-esteem and the moral development of both parties. This is an area which requires a major effort, since the spaces in many centres are not appropriate for concentrating, and there is little educational support (Sala-Roca et al., 2012).

Socioemotional development is another area that professional parents should emphasise, given that socioemotional development is one of the clearest predictors of fostered youths' social and job insertion (Sala-Roca et al., 2009). Likewise, more than half the children in residential centres show psychological problems (González-García, Bravo, Arruabarrena, Martín, Santos, & Del Valle, 2017), which can lead to disorders without the right socioemotional education.

Parke et al. (2002) state that the strategies that the family uses to promote socioemotional development are: modelling, since the parents are role models of skills; instructions/explanations that adults provide on emotions and regulation strategies; and the regulation that the caregivers provide regarding access to learning opportunities that exist in the milieu. Based on this model, the social educator should create spaces in the centre with positive emotional climates and should be aware of the power they exercise as a role model. Different studies show that the emotional climate at home, parental behaviours associated

with children's emotions and observational learning necessarily affect children's emotional security and regulation and their social adjustment (for a review, see Morris, Silk, Steinberg, Myers, & Robinson, 2007).

Likewise, as a professional parental figure, the social educator must also provide access to formative opportunities in the environs, which will allow the children to acquire an essential part of social capital by stimulating their socioemotional development. The social networks of children in foster care at centres are very limited, and in some cases they are even non-existent (Bravo & Fernández del Valle, 2003; Martin, et al., 2008; Sala-Roca, et al. 2012). Furthermore, they experience multiple ruptures with their milieus and experiences of uprootedness. The first separation from their family and social environment is coupled with different changes in the centre and/or family, rendering it impossible for them to gain a sense of belonging, thus hindering the construction of a support network and limiting social interactions and the development of socioemotional skills. Childhood social networks are constructed by sharing play spaces. For this reason, many parents encourage them by taking their children to the park, going on outings with other parents who have children the same age, and inviting classmates to play or have a snack at their house, who in turn invite the child to their house. This kind of practice does not occur in institutional foster care. This leads to the child being excluded from complicities and social relations at their schools, and they avoid situations that could reveal that they do not live in a family, as tends to happen if a classmate invites them and they have to ask their social educators for permission. Some centres, aware of the need to create the opportunities needed for the child to build a normal network of friends, encourage the children to invite their classmates to do their homework or eat at the centre. However, these practices are all too rare (Marzo, Sala, Jariot, & Arnau, 2016).

3.4. Educating children to deal with everyday life

Knowledge of the environment, the social relations and the values needed to live in a human society cannot be learned in a classroom. The majority of children learn how the world works by accompanying their parents as they do activities. They get to know their environs (streets, markets, means of transport, etc.) by observing how their parents get around in it. At early ages, they imitate their parents in cleaning and cooking chores, and their parents let them help out in these activities. Even though this may happen naturally in family

foster care, it does not happen in residential foster care in Spain. The children who enter these centres at an early age tend not to have access to all the spaces that any child has at home. The centres tend to argue that it is more convenient to organise the shopping, cooking and washing up without the children present, without being aware of how this is depriving them of stimulation and information. Other times, they refer to safety regulations, which are contradictory with the nurturing mission assigned to the centres but which could be overcome with a bit of ingenuity. In fact, there are centres that are organised so that the children occasionally participate in shopping, cleaning, cooking workshops and household repairs and learn how to use transport autonomously, prioritise and manage budgets, etc. That is, they are organised to allow the children access to family educational spaces to which children in foster care have access. However, these experiences are few and far between (Marzo et al., 2016).

3.5. Resilience guardian

Finally, one of the most complex challenges for the social educator, as well as for any parental figure, is to empower the youths and help them overcome their traumas, thus becoming their resilience guardian (Ciurana, 2016; Melendro, Montserrat, Iglesias, & Cruz, 2016). Studies show that resilience processes and overcoming highly adverse situations, such as the ones the fostered children and adolescents have experienced, should be sought in multiple factors within the children themselves and their environment, and in the transactions between both kinds of factors. In some cases, the goal is to discover talents or utilise social skills, while in others it is finding a purpose in life. The catalysts of the resilience process may be different for each child, although there always tends to be a process of understanding and accepting their own history; an empowerment process; facilitators such as humour, talents, positive self-esteem, social skills, etc.; and support figures such as a social educator, a teacher, an employer, etc. (Kumpfer, 2002). The social educator can become a resilience guardian by guiding the child or adolescent towards understanding and accepting their own history through storytelling and accompanying them in their process of mourning and healing (Cyrułnik, 2002). In fact, many formerly fostered youths state that their guardian was an essential part of their healing process (Sala-Roca et al., 2012). However, there is still a long way to go before we can ensure that a higher percentage of adolescents manage to overcome their traumas and reach adulthood while avoiding the traps laid

by their adverse experiences which has led them to live in a juvenile justice centre, or to have substance problems, or to find themselves living on the streets.

4. Conclusions

There are many reasons that can lead a child to be separated from their original family because it is considered deficient for or even damaging to their development. This is a heavy responsibility which is entrusted to social educators who have to care for and raise them in residential centres. The empirical evidence of the shortcomings that these children experience in protection centres raises many doubts regarding the efficiency of the separation measures and even shows that at times they can be harmful (Dozier et al., 2012). On the other hand, studies concur that protection centres are more impoverished environments than foster families and that they do not sufficiently stimulate the children (Gypen et al. 2017). Some centres introduce nurturing practices that incorporate elements of family upbringing; however, they are rare experiences that have not spread to all residential facilities (Marzo et al., 2016).

In this manuscript, we have suggested locating the professional parental figure in the residential foster care centre; we have explored important functions that should be performed, such as establishing reparative bonds, stimulating development and supporting and guiding the resilience processes; and we have reviewed studies that show that there are still some deficits in this regard. This survey enables us to assert that structural changes are still needed to fully work within the socioeducational model. Advances have been made from the methodological standpoint with the design of instruments and procedures, but a change in conceptual positioning is also needed by resituating the role of the social educator as a professional parental figure. The alloparenting framework of family foster care is also possible in institutional foster care. The social educator as a parental figure should guide their intervention towards the principle of “optimal proximity”, create reparative bonds and incorporate strategies which are commonly used in families, such as those noted by Parke et al. (2002): modelling, instruction and regulation of learning spaces and experiences. The social educator’s life experience thus become a meaningful resource in this new role.

Preparation for adult life should begin the first day the child enters the protection system, because the capacities that are needed at that time rely upon their communicative, cognitive,

socioemotional and oral development, as well as their knowledge of the world. This preparation is not possible in a care-oriented model geared towards covering basic needs, nor with professionals who take a fundamentally technical position. The development of the competences needed to deal with life independently require the upbringing that only engaged parents can provide. When

the biological family cannot perform this function properly, the parental function must be taken on by proxy by a foster family, or by a professional parent in an institutional environment, or professional family. However, substitute parenting, professional or not, can also be negligent if it does

not accept the functions and responsibilities it entails, casting doubt on foster care as a protective measure as opposed to the neglect of the original family.

Note

* In order to streamline the text, the masculine form is used to generically refer to both sexes.

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RESEARCH

INVISIBLE VICTIMS: ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIOEDUCATIONAL INTERVENTION IN CHILDREN EXPOSED TO GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE WITHIN THE FAMILY

VÍCTIMAS INVISIBLES: ANÁLISIS DE LA INTERVENCIÓN SOCIOEDUCATIVA DE NIÑAS Y NIÑOS EXPUESTOS A VIOLENCIA DE GÉNERO EN LA FAMILIA VÍTIMAS INVISÍVEIS: ANÁLISE DA INTERVENÇÃO SOCIOEDUCACIONAL DE MENINAS E CRIANÇAS EXPOSTAS À VIOLÊNCIA DE GÊNERO NA FAMÍLIA

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ABSTRACT: The following paper aimed to make visible the situation of vulnerability suffered by children exposed to gender-based violence within the family. In order to do so, the consequences of such exposure were explored through a case study. In the same way, the effects of an intervention were studied. Interviews were conducted, records examined, and information was obtained from the Barcelona Childhood Index Screening questionnaire before, immediately after and three months after the intervention was completed. The purpose of such research was determining the level of experimentation and development of Post-traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) symptoms, as well as the factors that have influenced the affectation process. The sample consisted of five minors (with an average age of 8 years old; two boys and three girls) exposed to gender-based violence who attended a family and child-care service. The information was gathered from the biological mothers and the professionals that treated them in such service. The results indicated that five of the minors showed some of the symptoms associated to PTSD and, after the intervention process, there was a positive evolution of the symptoms, being reduced in the follow-up phase. Such evolution was influenced by the protective factors against risk factors. The comparison of the perception of the mothers with that of the professionals regarding the degree of affectation of the children evidenced a higher evaluation of such affectation by mothers due to the violence they suffered. It is therefore important to promote victim assistance and prevention projects or programmes as protective measures for minors and mothers.

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<p>PALABRAS CLAVE: Maltrato infantil exposición violencia de género consecuencias estudio de casos</p>	<p>RESUMEN: El presente trabajo pretendió visibilizar la situación de vulnerabilidad que sufren las niñas/os expuestos a violencia de género en el seno de la familia. Para ello, se profundizó en las consecuencias de dicha exposición a través de un estudio de casos. Asimismo, se estudió el efecto de una intervención. Se realizaron entrevistas, se estudiaron expedientes y se obtuvo información del Cuestionario Barcelona Childhood Index Screening, antes, después y a los tres meses de haber concluido la intervención. Todo ello con la finalidad de determinar el nivel de experimentación y evolución de síntomas propios del Trastorno de Estrés Posttraumático (TEPT), así como los factores que han influido en el proceso de afectación. La muestra estuvo compuesta por cinco menores (con una media de edad de 8 años; dos niños y tres niñas) expuestos a violencia de género que asistieron a un servicio de atención a familia e infancia. La información se obtuvo a través de las progenitoras y los/as profesionales que intervinieron con ellos/as desde el servicio. Los resultados mostraron que los/as cinco menores reunían algunos de los síntomas propios del TEPT y que tras el proceso de intervención se dio una evolución positiva de los mismos, reduciéndose en la fase de seguimiento. Viéndose esta evolución influenciada por los factores de protección frente a los de riesgo. Al comparar la percepción de las progenitoras frente a la de los/as profesionales respecto al grado de afectación de los niños/as, se evidenció una valoración mayor de dicha afectación por parte de las progenitoras debido a la violencia que sufrieron. Por tanto, es importante hacer hincapié en la promoción de programas o proyectos de prevención y asistencia a las víctimas como medidas de protección para los/as menores y sus progenitoras.</p>
<p>PALAVRAS-CHAVE: Abuso infantil exposição violência de gênero consequências estudo de casos</p>	<p>RESUMO: O presente trabalho teve como objetivo tornar visível a situação de vulnerabilidade sofrida por crianças expostas à violência de gênero dentro da família. Para fazer isso, as consequências de tal exposição foram aprofundadas através de um estudo de caso. Da mesma forma, o efeito de uma intervenção foi estudado. As entrevistas foram conduzidas, os registros foram estudados e as informações foram obtidas do Questionário de Avaliação do Índice de Infância de Barcelona, antes, depois e três meses após o término da intervenção. Tudo isso com o objetivo de determinar o nível de experimentação e evolução dos sintomas típicos do Transtorno de Estresse Pós-Traumático (TEPT), bem como os fatores que influenciaram o processo de afetação. A amostra foi composta por cinco crianças (com idade média de 8 anos; dois meninos e três meninas) expostas à violência de gênero que freqüentavam um serviço de assistência familiar e infantil. As informações foram obtidas através das mães e dos profissionais que intervieram com eles do serviço. Os resultados mostraram que as cinco crianças apresentaram alguns dos sintomas de TEPT e que, após o processo de intervenção, houve uma evolução positiva das mesmas, reduzindo na fase de acompanhamento. Vendo esta evolução influenciada pelos fatores de proteção contra aqueles de risco. Ao comparar a percepção das mães em relação à dos profissionais quanto ao grau de afetação das crianças, evidenciou-se uma maior avaliação dessa afetação por parte das mães em função da violência sofrida. Portanto, é importante enfatizar a promoção de programas ou projetos de prevenção e assistência às vítimas como medidas de proteção para menores e seus mães.</p>

1. Introduction

Gender-based violence is, today, considered a serious social problem affecting millions of women around the world. Social awareness is raised upon the issue more and more every day, and more resources are allocated for the assistance of abused women. However, few are the resources available for the children of those abused women, making them forgotten victims of gender-based violence.

Over the last few years, new initiatives have been developed in Spain to address this reality that affects a large number of families and, therefore, has an impact on the proper development and functioning of mothers and children that are direct victims of such violence. According to Gavarell (2013, p. 18), "the family constitutes the first core of safety, protection, support and affection for the minor, but paradoxically, the highest degree of violence is exercised among its members also within the family".

According to estimates made by the Spanish Home Office, "one third of the murder cases committed annually in our country have as assailant and victim members of the same family, highlighting that a quarter of the allegations of crimes and offence of assault filed in police units occur within the family" (Ordóñez & González, 2012, p. 31). Today, more and more authors are studying this family and social phenomenon (Fernández & Pérez, 2018; Rosser, 2016; 2017; San Martín & Carrera 2019), in order to explain why the family proves to be the most violent social group.

Thus, the experience of children exposed to situations of violence takes on a crucial meaning, since minors learn to define themselves, understand the world, and relate to it from what they gather from their closest environment, the family being considered the child's first and most decisive socialising agent for their future development.

Children are "victims of gender-based violence perpetrated against their mothers, not only because they are also a physical target, but

because they are always victims of psychological abuse” (Horno, 2006, p. 311).

Table 1. Types of exposure to gender-based violence

EXPOSURE TYPES	DEFINITION
1. Prenatal exposure	It happens when there is physical or psychological violence during pregnancy. It affects the correct development of the child.
2. Intervention	Such exposure occurs when children try to do or say something to stop the episode of violence towards the mother.
3. Victimisation	This type of exposure occurs when the child is a psychological, physical or sexual victim during an episode of gender-based violence within the family.
4. Participation	It happens when the child feels compelled or forced to participate actively in episodes of violence against their mother.
5. Being an eyewitness	It originates when the child directly observes the episode of violence towards its mother.
6. Hearing	This type of exposure refers to when the child hears the assault but cannot see it.
7. Observing the results of the assault	When the child sees bruises and wounds on the mother, broken objects and furniture, ambulances and police, intense emotional reactions in adults, etc.
8. Experiencing the aftermath	It takes place when the child faces changes in their life as a result of episodes of violence.
9. Listening to conversations about the assault	When, having witnessed the assault or not, they may be aware of the consequences, and specific facts about the violence, when they listen to conversations between adults.
10. Not being aware of what happened	When the child is not aware of the episodes of gender-based violence within the family.
Source: compiled by the authors [and translated] on the basis of Holden (2005).	

Table 1 presents the different types of violence minors are exposed to, ranging “from direct exposures where the minor is actively involved in the situation, to the observation of gender-based violence effects where they are aware of what is happening” (Holden, 2005, p. 152).

Likewise, it is deemed appropriate to highlight the different studies conducted over the last decade that gather scientific evidence on the effects in the short, medium and long term, such as those carried out by Ayllon, Orjuela & Román (2011), Gómez (2011), Luzón, Ramos, Saboya & Peña (2011), Expósito (2012), Ordóñez & González (2012), Alcántara, Castro, López & López-Soler (2013), Calvo & Mesa (2013), Cortés & Cantón (2013), López (2014) & Reyes (2015), Cortés & Cantón (2015), López (2014) & Reyes (2015). The studies reviewed indicate that the main consequences

of exposure to gender-based violence may be physical (injuries caused by the violent episode, sleep and eating disorders, growth problems, brain damage), cognitive (language delay, learning difficulties, attention and concentration deficits), emotional (depression, anxiety, low self-esteem, post-traumatic stress disorder), behavioural (lack of social skills, aggressiveness, first criminal acts, drug abuse, isolation).

Moreover, as Lizana (2014) indicates, these children often develop symptoms related to disorders or even a disorder with all its respective characteristic as an adaptation mechanism to the traumatic situation they are living. The most common of these is the Post-traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD), whose symptoms collected in the DSM-V (APA, 2013) are, in essence, involuntary re-living of the traumatic events, tendency to escape or avoid

any type of reminder of the violent events, and hyperactivation of children.

In the long term, however, behavioural disorders, the continuous exposure to episodes of gender-based violence, and power-based punishment systems are, in that order, the three main predictors of risk for partner violence. In this way, the literature also compiles some of the materialised consequences during the development of subjects exposed to gender-based violence within the family during childhood and/or adolescence, which are mostly: psychopathology in adult life (Lázaro & López, 2010), intergenerational transmission of violence (Bandura, 1973; Ehrensaft, Cohen, Brown, Smailes, Chen & Johnson, 2003) and double victimisation (Gavarrell, 2013).

It is, therefore, relevant to mention the factors linked to the child and their ecosystemic environment that contribute to the explanation of the broad response pattern to gender-based violence within the family (Alcántara, Castro, López & López-Soler, 2013; Ayllon, Orjuela & Román, 2011; Castro, 2011; Graham-Bermann, Howell, Lilly & Devoe, 2011; López, 2014; Ordóñez & González, 2012), being such factors either moderating or protective.

The first ones moderate the impact caused and may produce more or less affectation depending on the characteristics of the minor. In the case of a higher affectation, risk factors should be taken into account, since they regulate the impact in a harmful way, contributing to the increase in the levels of affectation and damage (Atenciano, 2009; Castro, 2011). Some examples for moderating factors are the personal resources of the child (Atenciano, 2009; Gavarrell, 2013), or age at the time of the assault (López, 2014). As for the latter, protective factors are those which counteract the negative effects and allow building resilience.

In view of the above, the reality of the minors exposed to situations of gender-based violence requires the need to articulate prevention and action strategies under an interdisciplinary perspective, not only aimed to the eradication of the problem, but also to the mitigation of bio-psycho-social damage that may occur in the short, medium or long term. In this way, the educational sphere is one of the essential environments in the development of minors, where emotional, relational and family problems are made visible.

As San Martín & Carrera (2019) point out, detecting any difficulty or traumatic situation requires, on the one hand, on the part of professionals, an attitudinal predisposition that allows them to be on the alert and, on the other hand, the necessary knowledge and training to be able

to identify the red flags that the minor's behaviour reveals.

Different action programmes are being developed currently with mothers and minors exposed to gender-based violence within the family (Cunningham & Baker, 2007; Junta de Andalucía, 2014; Orjuela & Horno, 2008; Rosser, Suriá, Alcántara & Castro, 2016), but there are still only few actions aimed to the prevention of such problematic or to an early diagnose, in order to curb the consequences of the exposure to gender-based violence (Barudy & Dantagnan, 2012; Moreno, Ruiz & Díez, 2017), and even fewer initiatives include both aspects (San Martín & Carrera, 2019).

Lastly, it should be noted that there are not many evaluations of interventions in this area, the most remarkable of such being Graham-Bermann, Miller-Graff, Howell & Grogan-Kaylor (2015) aimed to mothers and minors, showing the decrease in internalisation problems. In turn, the meta-analysis carried out by Howarth et al. (2016) indicates that the evidence on these interventions is limited and there are practically no comparative studies, and the heterogeneity of the cases constitute a limitation as well.

2. Purpose

The purpose of this study relies on making visible the position of children as victims of gender-based violence. In order to do so, the study will examine the consequences developed by a group of minors exposed to this family problem, due to the exposure to gender-based violence. In short, the intentions are:

- Investigating the level of experience of PTSD symptoms in the children subject to the study, as well as their evolution over time.
- Understanding the relevant factors that may be influencing or have influenced the affectation process.
- Determining whether there is a significant difference with respect to the impact between the vision of the minor's mothers and the professionals that intervene with them in a specialised support centres for families and children.

3. Methodology

Considering the singularity of the problem under examination, methodological complementarity is in need, that is, a mixed design with both qualitative and quantitative methodology contributions. The quasi-experimental nature of the study must be taken into account, with pre-test, post-text and follow-up phases (Shadish, Cook & Campbell,

2002). In order to structure the process, and considering the characteristics of the sample, the case study phases followed are, according to Jiménez (2012):

3.1. Case selection and identification of fields of study, sources of information, problems and research purposes

The sample consists of 5 minors that have been exposed to gender-based violence and have been referred to the “Violencia: Tolerancia Cero. Prevención y apoyo psicosocial en niños/as expuestos a violencia de género” programme (Barudy & Dantagnan, 2012), carried out in the family and child-care service they attend. This programme is aimed at professionals interested in enabling resilience processes for school-age children who have been victims, directly or indirectly, of gender-based violence within the family. The modality for implementation of the program requires a group character, as pointed out by Barudy & Dantagnan (2012):

The aim is supporting and promoting secondary resilience in children who have survived traumatic processes and experiences and need group-dynamic educational-therapeutic support that also ensures continuity in time and structure. It is therefore advised to work with a group as stable as possible, i.e. a closed group. Closed groups have a minimum of 5 members, and a maximum of 12. In the same way, this program is designed to be developed in three months, on a weekly basis if possible.

Likewise, 20% of the minors are 7 years old, 60% are 8 years old, and the remaining 20% are 9 years old, making the average 8 years old. 40% are male and 60% are female. They generally no longer cohabit with the aggressor, so there is no direct exposure. Indirect exposure continues, nonetheless, due to a conflictive separation process between their progenitors and the continuation of visits with the aggressors.

Individualised intervention or follow-up after the end of the programme has continued in all cases. The sample selection method used is nonprobabilistic and intentional, since it is deliberately chosen based on compliance with various criteria (having been exposed to gender-based violence and having attended the aforementioned therapeutic intervention program). The limited age range and total of children in the sample have been conditioned by the need for the sample to be as homogeneous as possible, as well as by the difficulty in having access to this type of minors.

3.2. Formulating questions

Once the main question, focused on the consequences that exposure to gender-based violence can have on children and their evolution, is formulated, three questions arise when looking for an answer: are there significant factors that influence the children's affectation process and, therefore, help explain it? Does the implementation of the intervention program influence their evolution? Does the vision with respect to the level of affectation in children differ between mothers and professionals?

3.3. Strategy selection for data collection

Regarding quantitative strategies, a quasi-experimental study of pre-test, post-test and follow-up is carried out, in order to determine the evolution over time of the consequences of exposure to gender-based violence in the group of minors. The length of the investigation is dictated by the implementation of the referenced programme to the minors, since the programme influences the case evolution.

It should be noted that one of the programme's assessment tools is also used as a tool for the collection of information in research. That is, the aforementioned Barcelona Childhood Index Screening questionnaire (BCIS) created by Barudy & Dantagnan (2012).

BCIS questionnaire

This questionnaire is conceived as a tool to measure the common signs and symptoms of PTSD in children exposed to violent situations or events that disturb their correct bio-psycho-social development.

In this way, the tool under consideration must be applied by people related to the minor, with the exception of the assaulter, such as the child's relatives, since applying such tool might highlight the possible trauma caused by the violence they have been exposed to.

The questionnaire comprises 21 items in order to measure different symptoms and effects related to PTSD. The tool measures different symptoms according to the scores obtained, as well as the affectation criteria marked by the DSM-V. The items of the questionnaire measure, in particular, the presence of 4 PTSD specific criteria: a) re-living or intrusion, b) avoidance and numbness c) persistent symptoms of activation and d) high discomfort or social deterioration.

File review

The review of files is intended to gather information on those factors that help explain how exposure to gender-based violence has affected each child. The proportions match those of the interview conducted with the mothers (see Table 2). The review of files, however, allows the collecting of information about the evaluation the professionals from the care service in charge of the children's intervention provide once it has finished.

Interviewing the mothers

It is elaborated based on the contribution of different authors who have studied the subject at

issue (Alcántara, Castro, López & López-Soler, 2013; Barudy & Dantagnan, 2012; Gavarrell, 2013). It is also individual, semi-structured and addresses the mothers of the minors exposed to gender-based violence.

The interview aims to gather information on factors that might have influenced the impact of the exposure to gender-based violence on the children. The interview is made of a total of 31 items that delve into two dimensions (moderating factors and protective factors), which in turn are divided into different subdimensions, as indicated in Table 2.

Table 2. Types of factors that influence the exposure to gender-based violence

Moderating factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The mother's psychological state. - Presence of other relational problems in the family. - Perpetrators number. - Type of violence suffered by the mother. - Separation history and current situation of the main caregivers. - Visitation regime with the parent. - The child's level of exposure to violence. - Level of direct abuse towards the child. - Evolutionary period in which the abuse occurred and its duration. - Time since the direct aggressions ceased. - Nature of the child's relationship with the abuser.
Protective factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Minor's reception to some kind of specialized intervention. - Nature of interfamily relationships. - Safe and stable bond of the child with at least one adult.

Source: prepared by the authors.

Interview with service professionals

This interview was designed to be answered individually, is semi-structured and is aimed at professionals in charge of the intervention with minors. It obtains information on PTSD criteria (re-living, avoidance and numbness, persistent symptoms of activation, and discomfort-deterioration in social, academic or different areas) and their evolution, as well as factors influencing the impact of exposure to gender-based violence on the children under study (risk factors and protective factors).

3.3. Information analysis and interpretation

Once it has been gathered, the information is processed, and relationships are established between the different analysed dimensions. Qualitative and quantitative procedures are used for this purpose. With regard to the former, interviews were recorded, synthesised into data matrices

and analysed, and the file review was compiled through record sheets. Regarding the latter, the data obtained with the BCIS questionnaire was extracted and integrated into a data matrix that was studied and refined.

Subsequently, descriptive and non-parametric data analysis techniques were applied using SPSS. Specifically, the Friedman test (to study the experiencing and evolution of PTSD symptoms in minors) and the Wilcoxon test (to compare the scores obtained by mothers and professionals regarding the level of affectation in the children and their evolution).

4. Results

4.1. Factors regulating the affectation process

Once the factors that influence the affectation process in each minor were analysed, using the

information collected in the interviews, the files review and the analysis of the completed questionnaires, and establishing connections between

all the cases, Table 3 presents the moderating and protective factors that regulate the affectation process.

Table 3. Moderating and protective factors regulating the affectation process

Factor		Subject number, gender 8 (male, female) and age					%
		1 V, 9	2 M, 7	3 M, 8	4 V, 8	5 M, 8	
MODERATORS	Problematic psychological state of the mother.	x	x	x	x	x	100
	Presence of other relational problems within the family.	No information available.					
	Total of perpetrators	1	1	2	1	1	100
	Violence suffered by the mother: Emotional and physical.	x	x	x	x	x	100
	Conflictive parents' separation history.	x	x	x	x	x	100
	Current relationship of the caregivers.	+	+	+	-	+	80 positive
	Visitation regime with the father.				x	x	40
	Exposure of the child to the violence.	x		x	x	x	80
	Direct abuse of the aggressor towards the child.	x	Recurrent	Intermittent	x	x	100
	Evolutionary period in which the abuse occurred and its duration.	Recurrent	Recurrent	0-4 months 7-7,5 years	3-5 years since 8 years	0-6 years	
	Time since the direct aggressions ceased.			6 m		2 a	
	Nature of the child's relationship with the abuser.	-	+		-	+	40 positive
PROTECTORES	Minor's reception to some kind of specialized intervention	x	x	x	x	x	100
	Nature of interfamily relationships.	+	+	+	+	+	100
	Safe and stable bond of the child with at least one adult.	+	+	+	+	+	100

Source: prepared by the authors.

4.2. Experience and evolution of PTSD signs and symptoms

For this the study of this area, two types of analysis are conducted. On the one hand, a general study of the scores obtained from the application of the

Friedman test, carried out with the averages of the variables of the BCIS questionnaire, its three implementations (pre-test, post-test and follow-up) in the minors' mothers (see Table 4). The Wilcoxon test was also conducted for related samples.

Table 4. Descriptive factors for each variable in the three stages (pre-test, post-test and follow-up) and the results for the Friedman and Wilcoxon tests for related samples.

				Statistics	Friedman's test		Wilcoxon for related samples	
	Variables	Averages	Standard deviation	Chi-square	gl	Sig. asymptotic		Sig.
Re-living	preREEX	2,4667	,24721	4,105	2	,128	Pre-post	,068
	PostREEX	1,8667	,27386				Pre-seg	,588
	RepostREEX	2,2667	,60782				Post-seg	,138
Avoidance	preEV	2,8000	,75829	,200	2	,905	Pre-post	,655
	PostEV	3,1000	,41833				Pre-seg	1,000
	RepostEV	2,8000	,75829				Post-seg	,414
Hiperactivation	preHIP	2,5750	,36012	2,941	2	,230	Pre-post	,066
	PostHIP	1,9000	,20540				Pre-seg	,223
	RepostHIP	2,0000	,61237				Post-seg	,593
Discomfort	preMal	3,3667	,21731	4,105	2	,128	Pre-post	,066
	PostMAL	2,7333	,60782				Pre-seg	,138
	RepostMAL	2,7000	,61689				Post-seg	,893
Sings	medsign1	1,6333	,24721	2,000	2	,368	Pre-post	,492
	medsign2	1,5667	,25276				Pre-seg	,221
	medsign3	1,9667	,64979				Post-seg	,194
Symptoms	medsint1	3,3333	,34319	4105	2	,128	Pre-post	,068
	medsint2	2,5600	,39889				Pre-seg	,138
	medsint3	2,5200	,72326				Post-seg	,893

Source: prepared by the authors.

Considering that there are no statistically significant differences, a more exhaustive analysis is applied. This analysis studies the scores of each of the minors in the three stages and contrasts such vision with that of the professionals, drawn from the interview addressed to them.

These analyses reveal in the first place that there is a predominant tendency in the scores characterised by the decrease of the values in the post-test compared to the pre-test and, therefore, the affectation level in the minors, and the maintenance or increase of the values in the follow-up, although not surpassing the initial affectation level. We can then affirm that there is affectation, but such affectation evolves positively.

The score decrease between pre-test and post-test can be explained by the group therapeutic

treatment applied to the sample, which has produced improvement in the affectation level. The value maintenance or the increase between post-test and follow-up can be understood considering that there is a three-month period between these two stages, during which the group treatment has already been withdrawn.

Secondly, the affectation level in the minors and their evolution are related to the risk and protection factors involved in every history of abuse. By way of example, Figure 1 shows the individualised monitoring of the evolution of the traumatic event re-living in children, which is representative of the evolution of the rest of PTSD criteria, signs and symptoms in all the children.

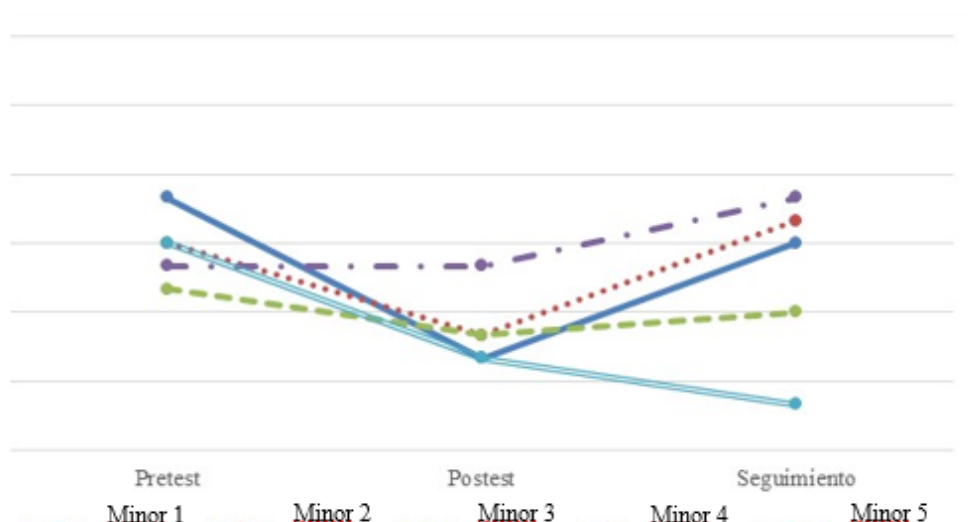


Figure 1: Individualised monitoring of the Re-experience evolution.

The figure 1 shows how, from the point of view of the mother, re-living drops in the post-test and increases in the follow-up, although it does not return to the same affectation level as in the pre-test. Some minors, however, deviate from the general trend of the scores, which is understandable given the many different circumstances that may arise in each history of abuse.

It is, thus, a pattern that is more frequently repeated in children 3, 4 and 5, since the evolution of the minor 2, in terms of the criterion analysed, characterised by an even greater affectation in the follow-up than in the pre-test, is not representative of what presents in the rest of the dimensions analysed.

On the one hand, minor 4 shows a negative evolution when compared to the rest. More specifically, it tends to maintain the affectation level in the post-test with respect to the pre-test and to increase it in the follow-up. This proves that group intervention has not brought about any improvement in him, highlighting that the history of abuse he was exposed to has a relevant number of risk factors, including the resumption and regularisation of visits with the father, which coincides with the end of the group intervention. In other words, it could explain the increase in the affectation between the post-test and the follow-up.

On the other hand, minors 3 and 5 stand out for presenting a more positive tendency than the

rest, as they show less affectation and a more favourable evolution. The positive tendency of their scores is progressive in the three stages, being slightly more notable in the case of minor 5. The consideration of the protective factors involved in the histories of abuse might serve as an explanation. Both girls concur in the existence of a bond with the abuser at some point in the history of abuse, the establishment of a stable and secure bond with their mother, the absence of a relationship or cordial relationship between their parents and the limited intervention they were subject to, from the intervention programme's post hoc service to the follow-up.

In the third place, professionals confirm the assumption that there is affectation in the sample concerning all the PTSD criteria. In order to continue with the analysis of the affectation level and evolution, the scores obtained by the mothers in the BCIS questionnaire are compared with those of the professionals.

The results of the Wilcoxon test, which compares the variables averages of the questionnaires completed by professionals and parents, with respect to children in its third implementation, show that there are no significant differences between the two visions, surpassing all the scores related to the 0.05 asymptotic significance, as indicated in Table 4.

Table 5 Descriptive statistics and contrast statistics^b. Comparison of the scores obtained by mothers and professionals at the children's follow-up (three months after the intervention).

	Mothers		Professionals		Contrast Statistics ^b	
	M	SD	M	SD	Z	Asympt. Sig. (bilateral)
Re-living	2.2667	.60782	1.7333	.19003	-1.355 ^a	.176
Avoidance	2.8000	.75829	2.2000	.75829	-1.289 ^a	.197
Hyperactivation	2.0000	.61237	1.7750	.16298	-.813 ^a	.416
Discomfort	2.7000	.61689	2.1667	.42492	-1.236 ^a	.216
Signs	1.9667	.64979	1.4333	.30277	-1.826 ^a	.068
Symptoms	2.5200	.72326	2.1333	.41366	-.944 ^a	.345

a. Based in the positives ranks.
b. Wilcoxon signed ranked test.

Source: prepared by the authors.

However, professionals indicate a lower affectation and there is a greater homogeneity between their responses since the dispersion is

lower among their scores in the different dimensions, as shown in figure 2.

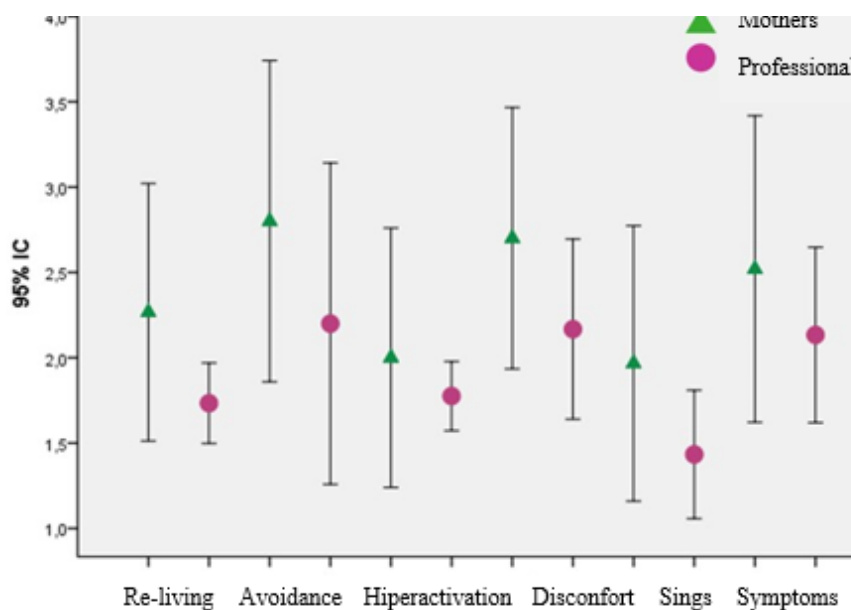


Figure 2. Error bars with the averages of the criteria, signs and symptoms of mothers and professionals.

For this reason, such assumption can be verified when considering the size and position of the error bars in one case and the other, as well as the scores obtained in the Standard Deviation shown in Table 4. This is also confirmed by the feedback provided by the professionals, assuring the existence of improvements in all cases, although more predominantly in some cases than other.

To conclude, when looking into the results of the different analyses previously presented, some resilient evolution is noted in the sample. The results evidence the presence of PTSD symptoms, but under a mostly favourable development from the perspective of the mothers, also confirmed by professionals. This leads to consider a tendency to overcome adversities and a good adaptation

in different spheres of operation, which may also have been favoured by the influence of the protective factors previously described for each of the cases.

5. Discussion and conclusions

The first and most obvious conclusion defines children exposed to gender-based violence as victims of such violence as well, since it has a negative impact on their development and well-being, according to several authors (Alcántara, Castro, López & López-Soler, 2013; Ayllon, Orjuela & Román, 2011; Castro, 2011; Fernández & Pérez, 2018; Gámez-Guadix & Almendros, 2011; Ghaseemi, 2007; Giraldo, 2014; Lizana, 2014; López, 2014; Ordóñez & González, 2012; Rosser, 2017). The research carried out proves so, given that all the minors in the sample exhibit different PTDS signs, symptoms, and criteria, to a greater or lesser extent, in the three stages evaluated through the mothers and professionals.

The aforesaid idea also leads to another conclusion: the importance of enabling at an institutional and legislative level the provision of an integrated treatment adapted to the characteristics and needs of minors exposed to this reality. In other words, relying on a perspective focus on children's rights that promotes the availability of resources that invest in socio-educational, interdisciplinary, ecosystemic, preventive and curative intervention (Ayllon, Orjuela & Román, 2011; Barudy & Dantagnan, 2012; Fernández & Pérez, 2018).

Another aspect to be taken into consideration should be that violence against women, and the consequent victimisation of minors, takes place during cohabitation and after separation (Cunningham & Baker, 2007; Ordóñez & González, 2012; Reyes, 2015). The research confirms that 60% of the minors had suffered direct abuse from their father before and after separation, and 20% after separation. In this sense, there is a need for judges and other professionals in the judicial system to be aware of the sensitivity of stipulating the custody rights of a father that has abused the mother.

Another relevant finding that must be highlighted is the existence of factors that influence the impact of the exposure to gender-based violence in the minors, so there might be a higher or lower affectation depending on the amount and nature of these. Thus, the analysis of risk and protective factors of each history of abuse allows to confirm that in those cases in which there are more protective factors, there are more significant improvements and that, on the contrary, when the risk factors increase, the improvements are reduced.

Moderating risk factors include the mother's psychological problems, the severity of the abuse suffered by the mother, the existence of conflicting separation histories, the direct exposure of the child to episodes of violence and the duration of the child's exposure to violence or suffering of direct abuse. Protective factors that must be highlighted are the temporary or permanent loss of contact with the abuser, the intervention with the minor, the establishment of a safe and stable bond with at least one significant adult, a good relationship with the mother's partner or father, and a good relationship with their siblings. Similar results have been found in the different studies analysed by Howarth et al. (2016).

In the same vein, the study carried out shows that it is possible, through protective factors, to contribute to the promotion of resilience in these minors thanks to the presence of protective factors, emphasising the reception of socio-educational intervention as one of the elements that allows the establishment of a safe and stable bond with the mothers.

At the same time, the results obtained reveal that mothers, in contrast to professionals, tend to perceive higher affectation in their children that being an element closely linked to the psychological affectation that they continue to experience as victims, which leads them to a distorted vision regarding the impact on the minors.

It can be reaffirmed, then, that the performance of the mothers is influenced by the discomfort caused by the violence they have suffered, which has a negative impact on the welfare of their children. It is important, therefore, to emphasize that institutions should prioritise the prevention of this type of child abuse by promoting victim assistance and prevention projects or programmes, since the pursuit of protection measures is key to guarantee the full development of minors and their mothers.

This will contribute to reducing risk factors that trigger gender-based violence and will, as well, attempt to develop protective networks to implement preventive measures, as well as actions to promote the dissemination of social and family protection resources for members affected by the exposure to gender-based violence.

Regarding the limitations of the research, several must be highlighted: difficulties in accessing information due to the private nature of the phenomenon studied; the suboptimal representativeness of the sample, due to its small size and the difficulty of generalising the results; and finally, the fact that no information is collected straight from minors or abusers.

It is, therefore, interesting to contemplate both visions in future lines of research, just as it is relevant to state the importance of exploring the

resilience development process that these minors may develop, given that it is one of the keys in the intervention with them.

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SOCIO-EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT BASED ON MENTAL MODELS OF ENVIRONMENTAL REPRESENTATION

IMPLICACIONES SOCIO-EDUCATIVAS PARA UN DESARROLLO SOSTENIBLE A PARTIR DE MODELOS MENTALES DE REPRESENTACIÓN DEL MEDIO AMBIENTE

IMPLICAÇÕES SOCIO-EDUCACIONAIS PARA O DESENVOLVIMENTO SUSTENTÁVEL A PARTIR DE MODELOS MENTAIS DE REPRESENTAÇÃO AMBIENTAL

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ABSTRACT: This study's overriding aim is to provide an understanding of the models of perception involving the term Environment, with a view to discovering the types of models that exist in people's minds and the nature of the mechanisms required to advance toward sustainability through Environmental Education. An interpretative and inferential analysis has been conducted. Each individual in a total sample of 351 people has used a drawing to depict the concept they have of the term environment. The drawings have been studied to reveal the absence or presence of the features corresponding to 16 categories established through a data collection matrix. The results have provided six representative models. We conclude that for the majority of the population the term environment is mainly biological and includes natural aspects, while for a significantly lower percentage it is a term that incorporates biotic, social and technological aspects. These conclusions suggest that Environmental education should go beyond the ecological and aesthetic aspects and principles specific to an environmentalist and/or naturalist perspective of the environment, seeking also social and cultural approaches, informed by human beings' development and life requirements.

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<p>PALABRAS CLAVE: desarrollo sostenible Educación Ambiental sistemas socioambientales modelos mentales de representación lenguaje pictórico</p>	<p>RESUMEN: El objetivo de este estudio es conocer los modelos mentales de percepción sobre el término “medio ambiente”, para comprobar qué tipo de modelos existen en la mentalidad de los sujetos y cuáles deben ser los mecanismos para avanzar hacia la sostenibilidad a través de la educación ambiental. La metodología seguida ha consistido en un análisis de contenido interpretativo e inferencial. La prueba ha consistido en que cada individuo plasma en un dibujo el concepto que tiene sobre el término de “medio ambiente”, en una muestra de 351 individuos, verificando la ausencia o presencia de los elementos correspondientes a las 16 categorías establecidas a través de una matriz de recogida de datos. Los resultados arrojan 6 modelos representativos del “medio ambiente”. Las principales conclusiones indican que para la mayoría de la población “medio ambiente” es un término principalmente biológico, que integra aspectos naturales, y para un porcentaje significativamente menor es un término que integra los aspectos biótico, social y tecnológico del mismo. Estas conclusiones sugieren una Educación Ambiental que debe ir más allá de principios y aspectos ecológicos y estéticos propios de una perspectiva ambientalista y/o naturalista del “medio ambiente”, buscando enfoques también sociales y culturales, por imperativo propio del desarrollo y por necesidad vital del ser humano.</p>
<p>PALAVRAS-CHAVE: desenvolvimento sustentável Educação Ambiental sistemas socioambientais modelos mentais de representação linguagem pictórica</p>	<p>RESUMO: O objetivo deste estudo é compreender a percepção modelos do termo “ambiente” para ver que tipo de modelos existem nas mentes dos sujeitos e quais devem ser os mecanismos para se mover em direção à sustentabilidade por meio da educação ambiental. A metodologia seguida consistiu em uma análise de conteúdo interpretativo e inferencial. O teste tem sido a de que cada indivíduo definido no conceito de um desenho do termo “ambiente” em uma amostra de 351 indivíduos, verificando a presença ou ausência de elementos correspondentes aos 16 categorias estabelecidas através de um matriz de coleta de dados. Os resultados mostram 6 modelos representativos do “ambiente”. Os principais resultados indicam que a maioria da população “ambiente” é essencialmente um termo biológico, integrando recursos naturais, e uma porcentagem significativamente menor é um termo que integra aspectos bióticos, sociais e tecnológicas. Estes resultados sugerem uma Educação Ambiental própria deve ir além dos princípios e aspectos ecológicos e estéticos de uma perspectiva ambiental e / ou naturalista “ambiente” também buscando abordagens sociais e culturais, o auto-desenvolvimento necessidade imperiosa e vital ser humano.</p>

1. Introduction

From a perspective that is not only institutional or political but also academic, the concept of Environmental Education has been constantly evolving ever since it first came into being (Galindo, 2015; Morón-Monge & Morón Monge, 2017). Several theories have underpinned this field of knowledge's move towards a social and educational intervention (Sepúlveda & Úcar, 2018). It is understood not only as a form of education designed to preserve nature, but also as one that changes our way of thinking, interrelating and behaving, driving a model of development based on ecological balance and social equity (Caride, 2017; Gutiérrez Bastida, 2018). It is a concept that has evolved in step with the ongoing destruction of the environment and the advancing crisis in civilization itself (Stables & Bishop, 2010; Bautista-Cerro, Murga-Monoyo, & Novo, 2019), and that provides us, from its inception, with an approach to the environment and Environmental Education based on the paradigm of complexity (Novo, 2017).

The question is, therefore, whether people's mentality has evolved in line with the trend that knowledge in Environmental Education has taken; that is to say, the collective imaginary around the concept of “environment”, and the environmental issue is correlated with the advances we have

been making in our ways of doing and thinking about Environmental Education; or, by contrast, the concept of “environment” has been evolving very gradually in people's mindsets and perceptions and, consequently, in their behaviour regarding the deteriorating environment (Huertas & Corraliza, 2017; Casper & Balgopal, 2018; Levy, Orion, & Leshem, 2018).

This research therefore presents the underlying models of perception of the environment to discover the types of paradigms that exists in people's mindsets, and which one prevails. Based on the results, we have found that the prevailing model is not linked to reality and current environmental issues. These results hint at where we should channel Environmental Educational processes looking for a responsible social and environmental intervention (Olabe, 2016), with the idea of locating Environmental Education not only from an environmental dimension but also from a social dimension (Perales, 2017), and as a field of social education (Esteban and Amador, 2017).

Studies on the concept of “environment” associated with people's behaviours have mainly involved observing people's verbal expressions and conduct regarding specific topics, such as biodiversity (Snaddon, Turner, & Foster, 2008; Martínez, García, & García, 2017), astronomy (Türk, Sener, & Kalkan, 2015), tides (Corrochano,

Gómez-Gonçalves, Sevilla, & Pampín-García, 2017), the greenhouse effect (Shepardson, Choi, Niyogi, & Charusombat, 2011), relationships (Neumann & Hopf, 2012), or general considerations about sustainability (Walshe, 2008; Calafell Subirà, Martínez, & Delgado, 2019). Only a few studies have focused on the way in which students conceptualise the whole (Kalvaitis & Monhardt, 2011; Shepardson, Wee, Priddy, & Harbor, 2007). This last study establishes four mental models among subjects regarding the environment: Model 1, the environment as a place where animals and plants live, a natural habitat; Model 2, the environment as somewhere that sustains life; Model 3, the environment as somewhere impacted and modified by human activity; and Model 4, the environment as a place where animals, plants and human beings live. The prevailing mental model in this research was mental model 1.

Our study's originality is that we focus on the value of pictorial language as a link with the subjects' mental models. We follow the approach adopted by Judson (2011), who contends that mental models are an important way of evaluating students' understanding of a specific system and its component parts when they are represented through a drawing. The study of the mental models of the "environment" through drawings enables us to understand how people conceptualise it as a system, how they understand nature, the interactions between objects, their components, factors, critical issues, and even causal links (Liu & Lin, 2014). In turn, we adopt the approaches of the New Ecological Paradigm and the New Ecological Paradigm Scale for Children -NEP- (Corraliza, Collado, & Bethelmy, 2013; Collado et. al. 2015). We go beyond interpersonal language as a working tool, mediated by the word, which we have generally used to explore human beings' personal and collective imaginary, and we use pictorial language, conscious that little research has been conducted from this perspective (Moseley, Desjean-Perrotta, & Utley, 2010).

All this enables us to bring into play new dialogical rules between human beings and the "environment", contributing the communicational capability that the "environment" itself has, emerging from an individual's creativity when making a drawing (Vivaldi & Salsa, 2017). A drawing, as creative pictorial language, allows including elements of attachment that are evaluative and communicational (Scareli & Da Silva, 2016). This is the best way of reaching conclusions that enable us to overcome the traditional confrontation between nature and culture that has informed the human condition.

2. Theoretical underpinnings

It is widely accepted that people create internal representations, mental models of external reality to give meaning to the world in which they live (Johnson, 1983; Greca & Moreira, 2000). Mental models act as an objective's structural analogue, and enable individuals to form explanations and predictions about that objective. They thus mediate in our reasonings, decision-making, and attitudes towards tasks and related issues (Jones et al., 2011). In other words, reality and knowledge of that reality are closely related processes, internalising reality through a social process.

This study encompasses the basic processes that people develop from the moment they observe the environment through to the way they depict it in a drawing. These processes lead us to people's identity-related, and therefore educational, nature. We analyse the process of perception (imaginary)-signification (meaning/sign)-communication (language), based on the environment's non-objectivity or immutability, as it responds to significant and communicative perceptive conditioners that the individual evaluates, experiences, and encodes (Page, 2016).

Perceiving the environment involves responding to a twin dimensionality. On the one hand, the real, existing, objective environment that everyone sees and is scientifically explained; and on the other, the subjective view, which arises from each individual's perception. It is the environment that is experienced, which gives rise to the existential bases that provide the platform for the organisation of the relationships of awareness with the phenomena perceived. Although the individuals in this sample are not drawing something they can see at that very moment, the resulting image is the outcome of prior perceptive acts that have involved the senses, whose stimuli stored in the imaginary are restated and portrayed in the drawing, selected and defined according to cultural and personal guidelines, with the result being the construction that each individual makes of their own subjective take on the environment (Mattingly, Lutkehaus, & Throop, 2008; Collins, 2016).

A process of a social nature that exceeds a merely psychological treatment, whose capturing of symbols is the result of socialization, thereby involving a social activity, in line with the social nature of human beings (Rickenmann, 2016; Litzner Ordóñez & Rieß, 2019). It is a constructive process of integration, where the social and cultural context has an influence, with it being almost impossible to delimit between what is perceived, the imaginary created, the experience accumulated, and the act of drawing, and therein lies its educational

potential. It implies a process of social construction of reality from the complexity of human beings, from a systemic and integral understanding of their development. The issue lies in establishing the interrelationships between those parts; the solution, the drawing.

It is a complex and dynamic process, in other words, an active one, whose results mediate the action of drawing. Initially, the concept of environment, which is to be found in an individual's imaginary, provides information conveyed by patterns of signals that are not in themselves specific for particular sensorial channels (Beery & Jørgensen, 2018). That concept then illuminates and envelops people, forcing the individual to explore the concept of environment perceived and which persists. Finally, the individual selects or discriminates among all the information in their possession, choosing according to its relevance and validity, which in the majority of cases involves attachments and emotions, a key aspect of this research. The drawing is a metaphor of personal and emotional experiences, according to emerging pedagogical methodology (Montanero, 2019), in which there are aspects that can be analysed, such as their aesthetic and technical nature, colour, the shapes and lines translated and fixed in people's minds, improving the capacity for introspection, and combining cognitive, motor and emotional processes (Sammut et al., 2015).

The drawing, therefore, not only has dimensions that express features or components of the environment, but also dimensions that characterize the emotional experience, which explain how the environment is experienced and the impact that an environmental setting or its more salient facets have on an individual's emotions expressed in a drawing, which are the basis of their development (Galindo & Corraliza, 2012).

Perception and the ensuing imaginary are followed by signification, the meaning. Each one of us in our own imaginaries always has different areas for gardens, fields, skies, landscapes, factories, village squares, and paths through which we perceive numerous settings. There is room for objects, subjects, places and times associated with the environment that we have perceived beforehand and still perceive, which we use and occupy in our everyday lives. It is precisely the meanings we assign to those areas that act as bridge between the imaginary and language, between perception and communication, between development and behaviour. The environment does not exist in absolute terms, but instead possesses the qualities and meanings that people confer upon it, and which may and should be translated into Environmental Educational terms (Garrido, 2014).

We do not therefore accept a single sense or meaning for the environment, as it has been shown that not everyone living in the same place within an analogous setting experiences the same feelings, nor does so with the same intensity toward their shared environment and in which they develop (Bethelmy, 2012). Further still, the environment and the meanings it conjures up are not isolated processes, but instead they are related to others, not always controlled, nor even perceived, but which have a significant bearing on people's lives, and therefore on the Environmental Educational approaches we want to make (Cosette, 2015). We therefore understand the environment to be a complex system of symbols and meanings. The fact the environment represents realities that people have culturized and imbued with signification means that the acts of receiving and transmitting meanings, the respective contextual sources and the individuals themselves, are part of a logic of meaning, and may therefore be investigated through drawing. (Valsiner 2014).

Today's reality is the outcome of a time in which symbols, charged with history, which give full meaning to the environment, are defined by a swiftness that makes them pass by in quick succession before people's lives, without having the time to reveal their meaning. We need language, communication, to understand it in all its expression. We have to make way for the language provided by drawing to move from the background to the forefront in the perception we have of the environment and mediates our development (Aparicio, 2015).

On the one hand, every educational process is a communicational process and on the other hand, the meanings concealed behind the concept of environment acquire their ultimate sense in the communicational link established between the individual and the environment through drawing (Milstein, Pileggi & Morgan, 2017). From the moment in which we use meaning as a bridge between perception and communication, we break with the traditional understanding of language as being exclusively verbal, and we propose a broader universe of communication, following the model of the Palo Alto School (Rizo, 2011).

Drawing is a system of representation that uses a non-grammatical artistic-visual language. Yet it is not a distorted image, but instead an individual's communicative expression regarding a perceptive and significative framework on the environment. What matters in this case is to decode the communicative process or assemblage, as behind it lies knowledge, because the drawing, as a means of expression and language, enables us to position ourselves in a certain way toward the

environment. Drawing is, in a word, a discourse, over and above its linguistic connotation, and located in the enclaves of visual grammar associated with more anthropological and educational knowledge than literary, which is learnt from everyday experience, superseding a normative grammar (Decuypere & Simons, 2016). They involve a connotational discourse and a language, with an extremely interesting educational richness, through the contribution the semiology of drawing and visual language makes to the construction of identity (Acaso, 2012).

Drawing is, therefore, discourse; it is language, identity and education. The environment, depicted in drawings, and over and above its functional, informative, persuasive, and grandiloquent expression, is language and education. Beyond communication considered in an instrumental manner as an interpersonal relationship, insufficient for an Environmental Education, and disproportionate for the inclusion of a sustainable culture (Jordan & Kristjánsson, 2017), we defend that communicational premise contained in the drawing, based on its internal symbolism and iconology, which permits expressing, more holistically and realistically, an individual's identifying features from their understanding of the environment. The drawing allows overcoming the mere relationship between the individual and the environment and incorporating the link that may or may not have been established, as there is a shift from meaning to statement, and from the latter to language (Oxtorena, 2016).

In short, beyond the exclusively didactic approaches of Environmental Education, where drawing is simply a supplementary material, we present a semiotic-communicative-educational correlation in which drawing is a social outcome. Together with the material, we integrate the social, providing scope for meanings, emotions, language, communication and, above all, values.

3. Method

3.1. Objective

This study's overriding interest seeks, on the one hand, to identify models of mental representation that bring together common perceptive patterns on the term 'Environment' over the past 20 years, as well as the majority view, and on the other, to explore the different perceptions of the concept among the study's target population. This will enable us to discover whether that social imaginary coincides with the issues and demands of the complex movement of Environmental Education.

3.2. Sample

The cohort consists of 351 Spanish individuals. By age groups, it contains 227 pupils from compulsory secondary education (aged 12-16) (62%), and 124 adults who attended to environmental training activities (aged 18-59) (38%). By sexes, the pupils record a more balanced distribution, whereas there is an overrepresentation of women among the adults. Concerning the geographical variable, the pupils come from several Spanish regions, with 70% living in rural areas and 30% in urban areas (according to rurality criteria of Spanish Institute of Statistics), while the provenance among the adults is more disperse, hailing from all over Spain.

Non-probability convenience sampling has been used because of its operational ease and low cost. This involved contacting several schools, as well as organisations and associations that provide instruction in environmental matters. In the case of students, the criterion of inclusion, sample, time, condition of students, theme, inclusion, interest, environmental issues, materialized through the completion of training courses.

3.3. Research design

It is a naturalistic design for gathering graphic information on the perception a group of individuals have of the concept 'Environment' of the concept "environment" of the selected sample to perform a subsequent content analysis. Each member of the cohort was required to do so on an individual basis, with no conferring to avoid contaminations and influences, thereby safeguarding each participant's own particular vision. The venues for the assay were different classrooms used for teaching purposes; in no case did they involve natural settings. The test of instruction was the same for the two age groups and took place over 20 years: between 1998 and 2017. The process followed is similar to the protocol to analyse drawings on ecosystems described in Dentzau and Martínez (2016), also directed at the improvement of Environmental Education.

The decision was made to limit the assay to free drawing, considered a psychopedagogical index revealing aspects such as the evaluation of mental level, of the relationships established with the environment, and because of its possibilities as a means of communication.

No time limit was set for the assay, so as to enable each individual to express themselves fully in their own personal way. The working atmosphere was peaceful and relaxed in rooms set aside for the purpose. Despite the fact there was no time

limit, none of the assays held lasted more than 17 minutes.

This interpretive and inferential study has involved a series of data collection phases to determine and analyse the mental models under study.

a. Definition of types and categories of analysis

The initial phase involved a first direct perusal of all the drawings presented in order to gather preliminary information on the material to be analysed, followed by successive and more systemized analyses to identify each and every one of the expressive devices used. In view of their considerable number, they were grouped and agreed into categories and coders to facilitate their subsequent analysis and representation, at the same time as a distribution was made among the three components of Environment: Biotic, Technological and Sociological, as shown in table 1. The research team, in successive phases, dined, on one hand what was included in each category, as well as each typology (validity); and, on the other hand, it was controlled the frequency of how consistently do equally-trained coders classify the data in similar ways (reliability).

Table 1. Conceptual classification	
COMPONENT	CATEGORIES
BIOTIC	Trees
	Mountains
	Water
	Flora: Bushes Grass Pastures
	Fauna: Mammals Birds Reptiles Fish Amphibia Insects Other invertebrates
	Sun
	Clouds
	Biospheres
TECHNOLOGICAL	People working in the countryside
	Vehicles
	Livestock: Cattle Poultry Sheep Horses Household pets
	Contamination: Atmospheric Water Waste
	Renewable energies: Solar Wind
SOCIOLOGICAL	Leisure: Hiking Biking Other sports
	Constructions
	Skips: Paper Glass Plastic Rubbish Bins
Source: prepared by the authors.	

All the drawings presented enabled us to identify six models that correspond to the different ways of mental models of environment: Scenic, Bucolic, Metaphoric, Contrastive, Conceptual and Biospheric. Each one of them shares similar meanings (Montiel, 2016), and a series of descriptive criteria were defined within each one in order to subsequently classify the 351 drawings and ensure some degree of uniformity within each category that would differentiate it from the others (Guerero et al., 2016). The results section includes the description of each of them.

b. Quantification of frequencies.

A data collection matrix was used to verify the absence or presence of all the features corresponding to the 16 categories established. In addition, the data were broken down according to the two age groups involved, with the aim being to infer the potential existence of significant relationships between the two age groups and the six types of work (mental models), as well as other possible correlations.

c. Data processing and interpretation.

Given the nature of the data obtained, a twin analysis has been conducted that combines a qualitative and quantitative methodology. The

quantitative approach has involved a descriptive-correlational analysis using SPSS 24.0 statistical software.

In parallel, the information recorded was converted for processing in the Gephi 0.9.1 software program, which generates figures that display the frequency of each category (or node), highlighting those with the greatest weight. The lines graphically depict the unions of pairs of categories, showing the intensity of the relationships between them, and their colour is the age group to which they belong (blue: overall population; purple: secondary pupils, and orange: adult population). In other words, they reflect the frequency of subjects that when they refer to one category also refer to the other. The thickness and intensity of the colour indicate the greater or lesser repetition of that correlation (previously recorded in the corresponding data matrices). In turn, each category's node has the colour of the component to which it belongs (biotic, sociological or technological), which shows the weight each one of them has for each one of the categories and ages analysed.

4. Results

In an initial approach to the study purpose, Graph 1 shows the distribution of the 351 drawings analysed in the six types identified.

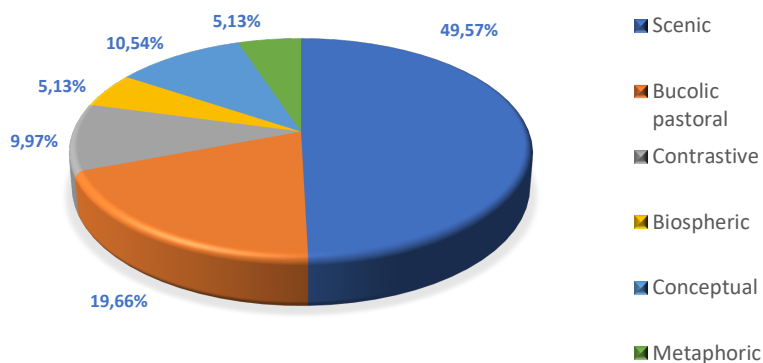


Figure 1. Distribution by types of environment.

The data show that almost half the sample presents a drawing that follows the Scenic model, followed by 19% that opt for the Bucolic-pastoral approach. Both models present an image of idyllic, natural settings, with no human intervention in the Scenic case, but with it in the Bucolic depictions, yet always in a responsible manner and integrated with nature. These are followed in terms of frequency by the Conceptual and Contrastive models, with each one accounting for around 10% of the total sample; and finally, there are the Biospheric and Metaphoric models, recording an identical share of just over 5% each.

This initial overall snapshot contextualizes and inflates the natural features associated with idyllic images when depicting the concept of Environment, in detriment to other types.

By age groups, (figure 2) adults record a more equative distribution among the different models, and one that is therefore less stereotyped and restricted, whereas the secondary pupils (Graph 3) clearly reveal a preference for the Scenic and Bucolic-pastoral models, which taken together for this group account for 81.94% of the total, and reinforce the notion of an idealized image associated with nature and free from human intervention.

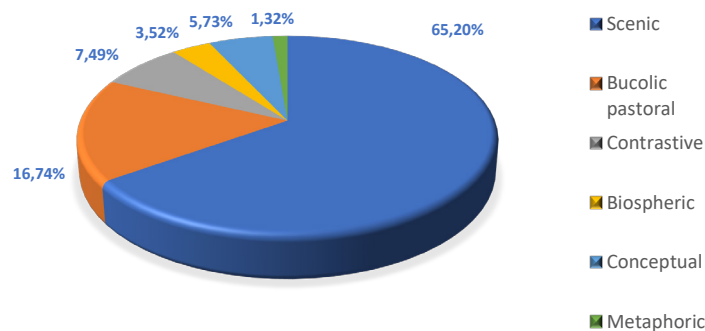


Figure 2. Distribution by types. Secondary pupils.

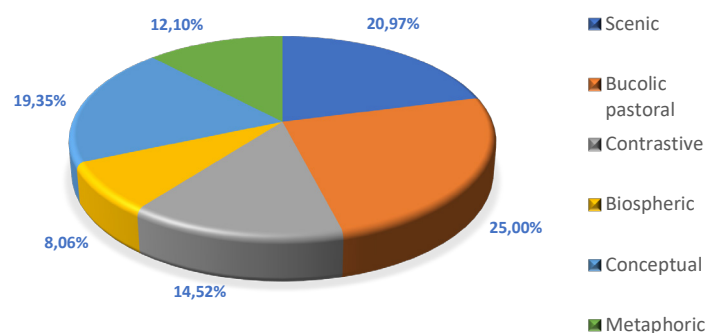


Figure 3. Distribution by types. Adult population.

There now follows a separate analysis of each mental model, defining their descriptors, the criteria for the inclusion of the drawings in each of them and the results obtained for the two age groups studied.

4.1. Scenic model

This model groups drawings in which the entire picture shows a landscape, with the bulk of its features being of natural origin. The most repeated patterns fall into three categories: Mountains, Water and Flora in an idyllic view of natural landscapes, their good state of conservation and the absence of any traces of human activity and its consequences.



Image 1. Drawing classified as Scenic.

In short, these are depictions of nature in its purest state, with extremely well-preserved landscapes and no traces of human activity. For almost half the study sample, environment does not involve sociological or technological factors.

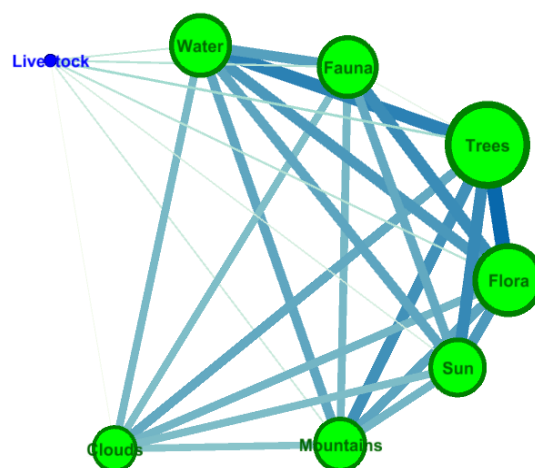


Figure 4. Scenic model. Total population.

The graphic depiction of the components of the Scenic model, as well as the size of their nodes, provide a highly convincing image of the link between this type and natural features. Of the eight categories that appear in this model, seven are biotic. The sociological component is completely absent, and the technological one has only one exponent, namely, livestock, albeit with a much lower frequency. In terms of natural

features, Trees is the most repeated category, and figure 1 shows that this category is closely correlated to the other features that follow it in terms of frequency: Flora, Water, Sun and Mountains. They are all classic features that correspond to the first pictures of the landscape that children tend to draw. With the exception of Livestock, all the other features are closely interconnected with one another. The image also shows that there is a fairly uniform view in which all the categories of the biotic component (except the biospheres that in themselves constitute a model) appear in most of the drawings and, what's more, they do so with a very strong interrelationship.

The secondary pupils lean more towards this type. The relationships among the adult population are more evenly balanced between the sun-dry elements and have stronger interrelationships.

As regards the previous model, in some of the drawings in which natural features prevail, human presence appeared as a differentiating aspect, always in a manner that was respectful toward nature through sustainable activities, with livestock involved in extensive grazing or small dwellings integrated within the landscape, among other features.

In this type, therefore, humans do not have any negative impact nor cause environmental damage, being depicted in a positive light and at one with nature. The drawings are associated with rural settings, sustainable development and a biocentric image of society, respectful of the environment and in which humans are just another species within the system.

The following figure reveals differences between the Bucolic and Scenic models.

4.2. Bucolic-Pastoral model



Image 2. Drawing classified as Bucolic-Pastoral.

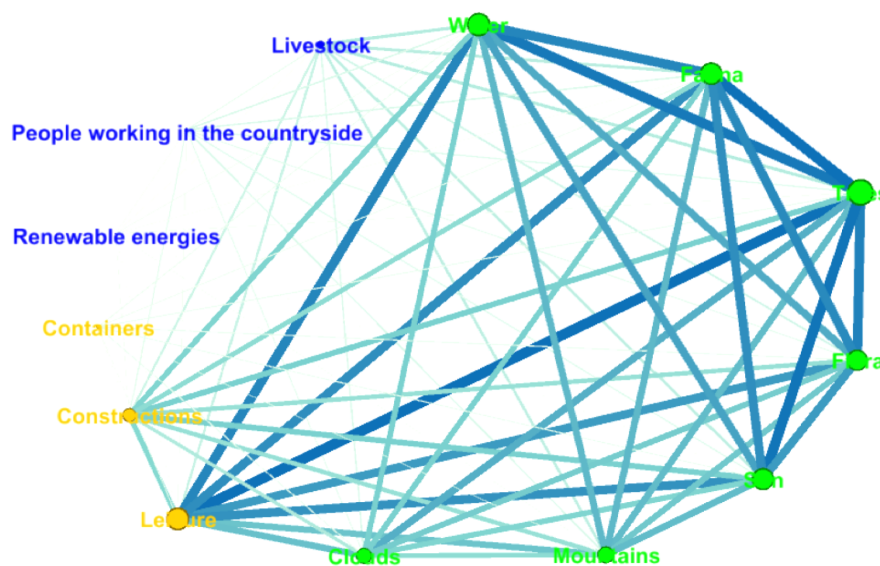


Figure 5. Bucolic-Pastoral model. Total population.

A highlight in this type is the appearance of new categories of the sociological and technological components, providing a more balanced image among these three aspects of the environment. Nevertheless, the biotic categories continue to be more numerous, with the exception of the category of Leisure, which is closely interrelated with the natural categories. Constructions come next in importance within the sociological framework,

and they also correlate more with natural aspects than with economic ones, reinforcing the notion of human activity that respects the environment and is in tune with it. Concerning the Scenic model, we find added categories: Skips, Renewable Energies, and People working in the countryside, with them all sharing the intention of making a sustainable and respectful use of the environment.

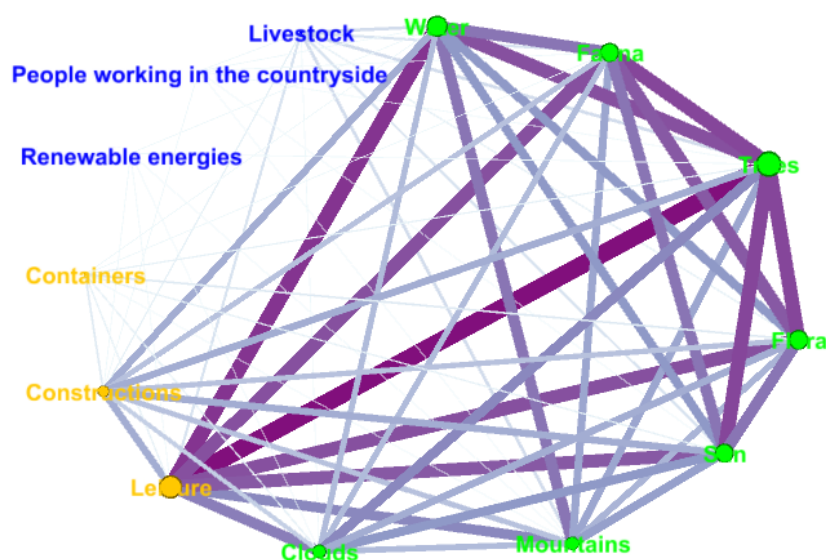


Figure 6. Bucolic-Pastoral model. Secondary pupils.

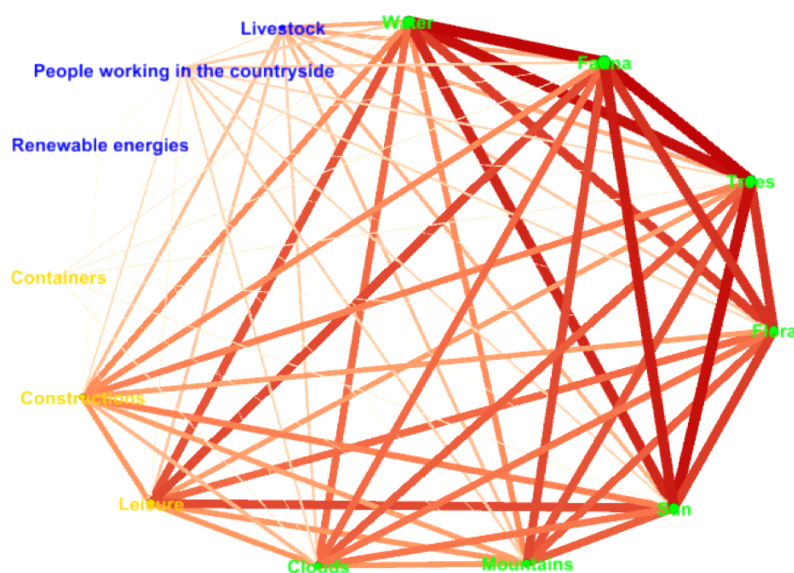


Figure 7. Bucolic-Pastoral model. Adult population.

The categories are the same for each age group, although economic features are more important for the adult population than for the pupils.

Secondary pupils reveal that Leisure is the main category, together with strong relationships

with natural aspects. By contrast, and different to the older age group, Renewable energies and People working in the countryside are far less prominent (even though it is a larger sample group).

In sum, this category has a wider variety of features and a greater presence of Technological and Sociological components, which are almost non-existent in the Scenic model. The adult population has a more rounded graph with greater balance across the features, while the pupils polarize this model between Leisure and the natural categories.

4.3. Contrastive model

The drawings of almost 10% of the sample have contrasted two aspects of the environment. On the one hand, once again a scenic depiction; on the other, an urban landscape dominated by the environmental damage caused by human activity. In most cases, it involves the contamination caused by the atmospheric emission of gases from means of transport, central heating and industry. The scenic part is full of bright colours, whereas shades of grey colour the urban landscape. Both visions tend to occupy the same amount of space within each drawing.



Image 3. Drawing classified as Contrastive.

This way of interpreting the environment therefore comprises the social factor, addressing today's environmental issues and the biotic factor, reflecting the idealism of working toward a sustainable and healthy world.

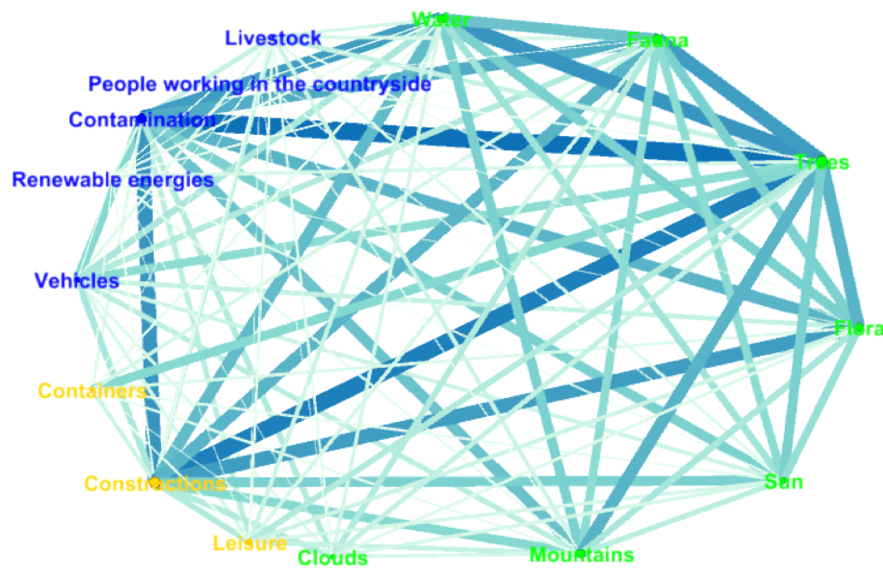


Figure 8. Contrastive model. Total population.

Figure 8 reveals significant differences with the two previous models. For the first time, natural features are displaced by the appearance of Constructions (sociological field) and Contamination (technological field). Indeed, a triangle appears that is formed by the darker coloured lines that encompass the vertices of Contamination, Trees and Constructions (with the inclusion of the three spheres of the environment). It is therefore a more complete type, which reflects a greater

level of depth and understanding of the environment as a complex setting.

In terms of age groups, fewer pupils have chosen this model compared to the adult population, and when they have done so, they provide a more polarized conceptual view, with fewer interrelations across the different features. Constructions stand out among the adult population as a more significant feature, and one linked to Contamination, and Vehicles.

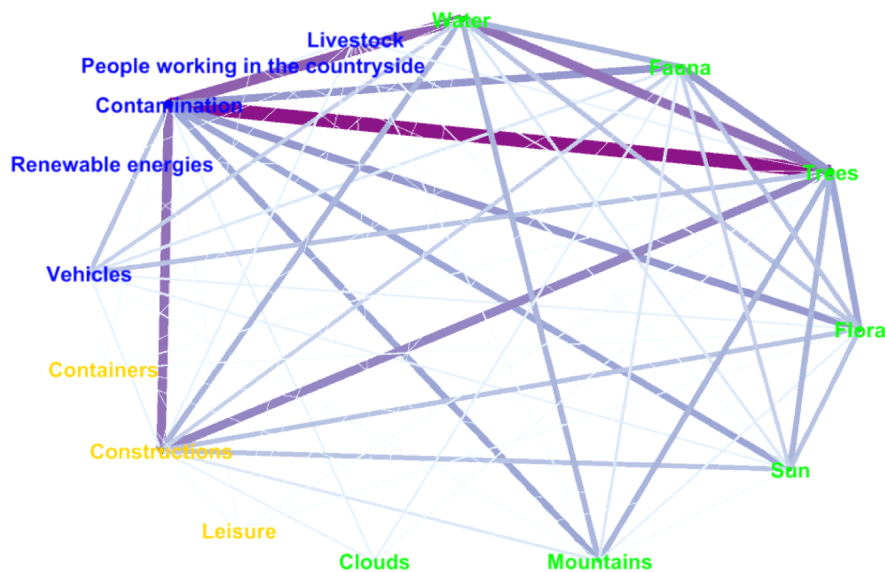


Figure 9. Contrastive model. Secondary pupils

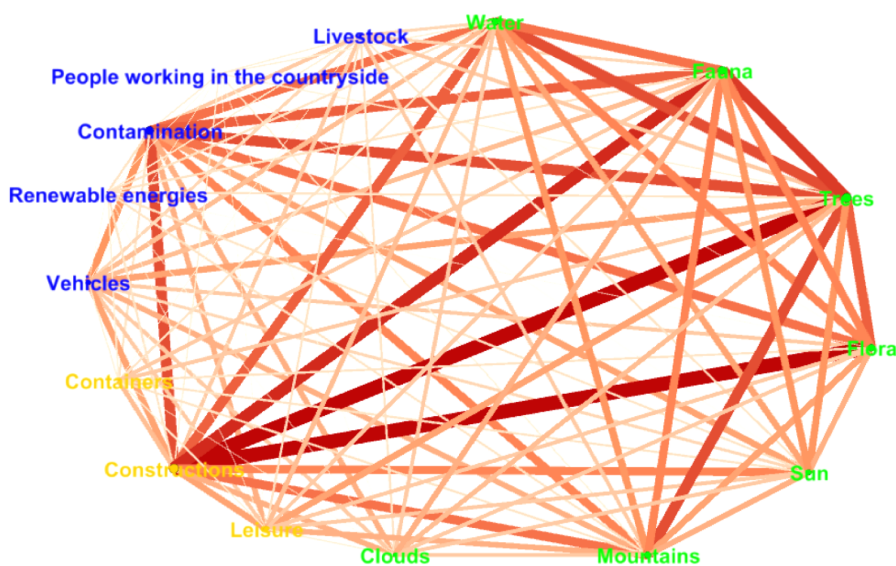


Figure 10. Contrastive model. Adult population.

4.4. Conceptual model

This category consists of the drawings that include natural features, human activity (of a positive and/or negative nature) and biospheres. Nevertheless, they are not presented in isolation, but instead interconnected with arrows or explanatory indicators with the appearance of some symbols and text. They are generally drawn in black and white, with long, bold strokes, with a range of geometrical shapes, albeit with a prevalence of arrows, squares and circles.



Image 4. Drawing classified as Conceptual.

Within this type, environment is a broad concept, with an integrating view of its three factors: biotic, social and technological, with full

awareness of the planet's social systems and the interrelations between them, as well as of global imbalances.

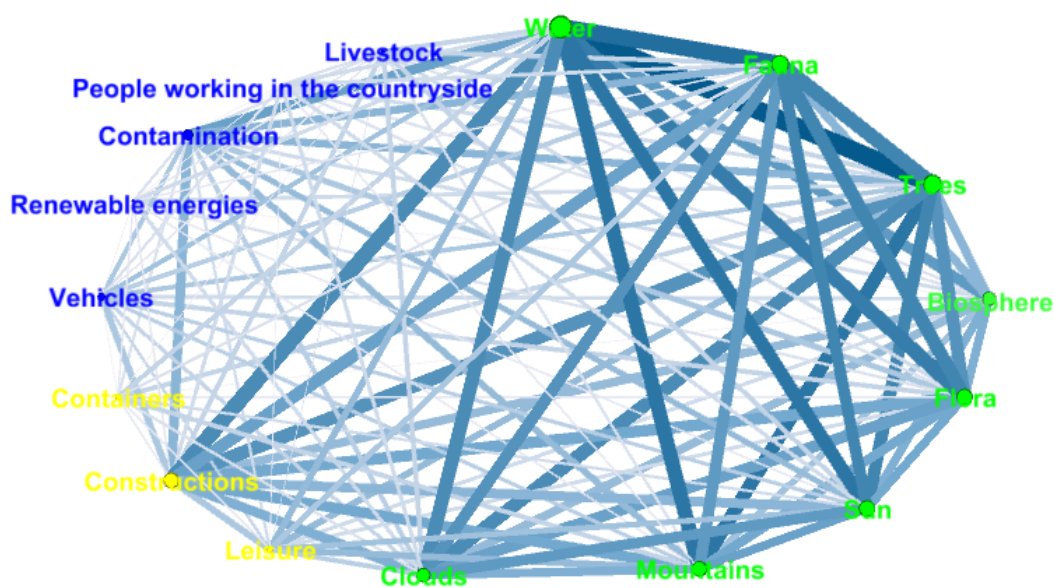


Figure 11. Conceptual model. Total population.

Figure 11 shows how natural components prevail in tandem with Constructions and Contamination. This last category is the one that most

clearly reflects the technological sphere. Another distinctive aspect in this model is the inclusion of Biospheres.

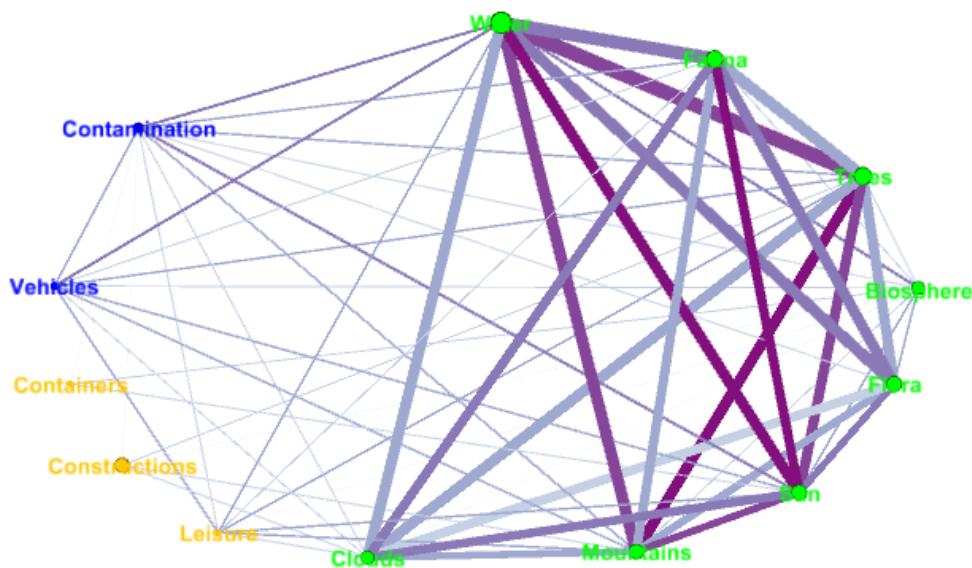


Figure 12. Conceptual model. Secondary pupils.

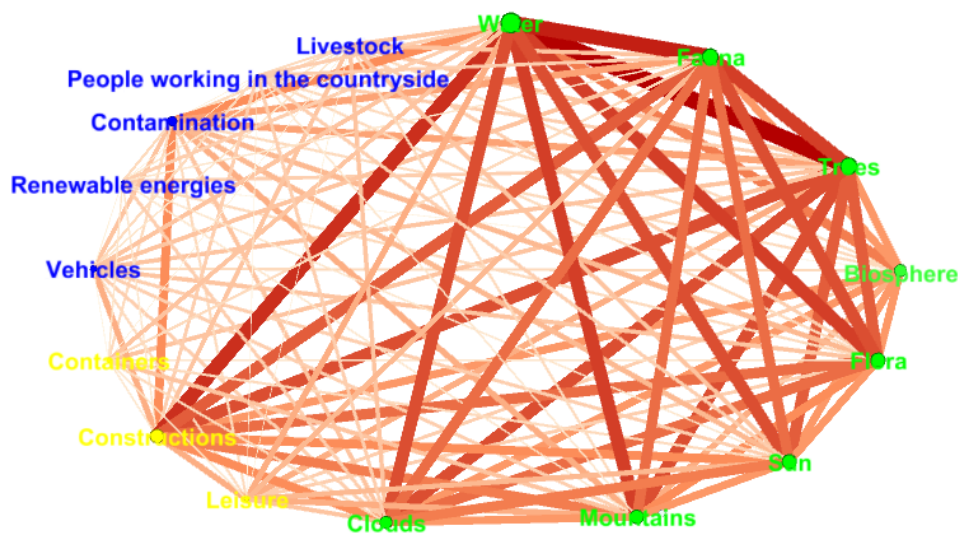


Figure 13. Conceptual model. Adult population.

Figure 11 (total population) is similar to that plotted with the data for the adult population (figure 13), but different to the one for the pupils (figure 12), who do not include technological features such as Livestock, People working in the countryside, and Renewable Energies, giving hardly any importance to Constructions in detriment to Contamination and Vehicles.

A highlight in the case of secondary pupils is the appearance of explanations (76.92%) and catchphrases (38.46%), probably influenced by the awareness campaigns directed at them, as well as by the educational system itself.

4.5. Metaphoric model

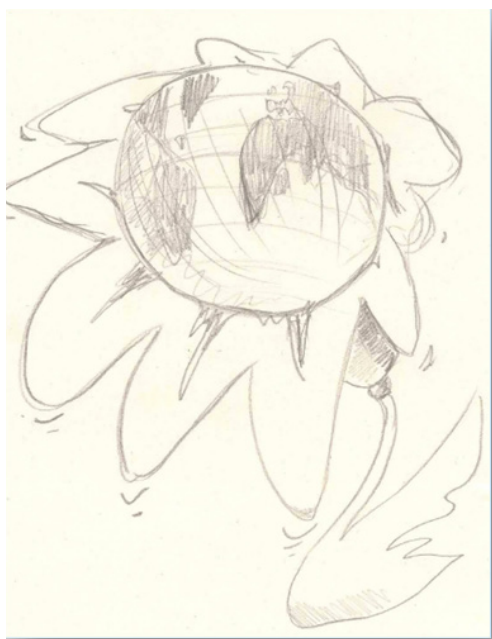


Image 5. Drawing classified as Metaphoric.

This model entails a higher level of complexity and interpretation. It contains both natural and anthropic features. The drawings may not involve a linear reading, but instead prompt a Metaphoric interpretation, revealing greater depth.

Compared to the static nature that prevails in all the other categories, in this case there is a search for movement and a dynamising intent. On this occasion, each drawing is unique and conveys a differentiated idea. In some cases, they could even be seen a logo to be used in environmental outreach programmes.

4.6. Biospheric model

This category includes all the drawings whose core and largest feature is a biosphere. Most of them depict the Earth, with the land-water proportion reflecting reality and showing all the continents. The drawings include concepts such as planet, the North-South socioeconomic divide, but always from a European perspective of the world (Europe in the geographic centre - right). In short, this category provides a holistic and global view, albeit a Eurocentric one.

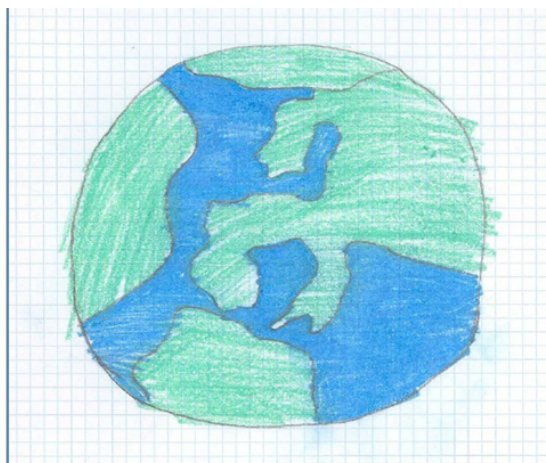


Image 6. Drawing classified as Biospheric.

In this case, there are only three graphic features: Land, Water and Atmosphere. The first two appear in all the drawings in this type, while Atmosphere is depicted by 25% of the pupils, and by 40% of the adult population whose drawings followed this model.

5. Conclusions, limitations and outlook

Based on a study and analysis of the results obtained, it may be concluded that certain mental models are repeated throughout the entire sample that summarize the views on the concept of environment. All the aspects considered beforehand led to the classification, repeated throughout the sample, of six representative models, all with internal consistency, and with greater or lesser sophistication in terms of content, approaches and ideas reflected.

Following the definition of the models, we may likewise conclude that the depiction of the term environment is associated with nature and its presence in a high percentage of cases, prevailing largely among secondary pupils, considering that their way of thinking has not yet reached full maturity for assimilating the broad meaning the concept encapsulates. Adults have a more holistic understanding of the term environment, and their drawings are more complete, with culturally and socially more developed models. This confirms that the age difference between these two study groups is a decisive variable in terms of the knowledge acquired at school and in later life experiences that provide the necessary understanding to develop a view of society and the environment around us.

Furthermore, we find that human beings appear only in a small percentage of the drawings and tend to be depicted in a bucolic manner and enjoying themselves in a manner that respects the

environment (biking, gardening, hiking, etc.). This suggests that human activity is not to blame for the environmental issues our planet currently faces, although it is considered a stakeholder within the medium and the concept of environment. This is a double-edged conclusion: negative when considering that human beings do not connote responsibility toward environmental-social issues, and positive when considering it has a biocentric vision of the medium's model of social-ecological structure. In addition, there is a highly significant economic vision of the sustainable gain from natural resources, with a greater presence of renewable energies, livestock, agriculture, etc., by the more mature segment of the population.

In short, we may conclude that the concept of environment is not fully assimilated within society with its three component aspects, but instead, and on a general basis, the population considers only the Scenic-biological aspect, whereby a very low percentage of the population consider social and technological aspects to be part of the term environment. This clearly points to the need for those responsible for educating younger minds to provide an Environmental Education that not only considers the medium's natural and biotic aspects, but also the social and environmental issues involved in everyday habits and the systems society develops, such as the generation of waste in daily life, the types of contamination that affect the medium, globalized systems that are causing climate change, etc.

The study has some limitations. Convenience sampling implies that the data provide an approach to the reality studied that is not representative, and therefore no statistical assertions may be made. On the other hand, the sample group of the adult population is too large a group in age issues and, for future replicas of the study, it would be convenient to define its inclusion criteria in more detail. It would be really interesting in future research to compare the environmental perceptions between people living on the coast and those inland, those on plains and in the mountains, as well as other variables (living in rural or urban habitats, level of education, different countries). Moreover, the use of inter-rater codes implies data are subjectively classified into categories.

Another limitation is that the drawings have been compiled over a very long period, two decades, with no evolution between the beginning of the investigation and the final stage. However, no systematic analysis has been conducted to determine whether, however minimal, there has been an evolution of mental conceptions and/or their distribution in the two age groups analysed.

The data obtained and the conclusions, are necessary for creating future tools that will further the process of awareness and education, geared toward sustainable development. Conclusions that lead us to call for an Environmental Education that overcomes its understanding as simply and exclusively a resource, content or ethical code. Environmental Education should go beyond the ecological and aesthetic aspects and principles specific to an environmentalist and/or naturalist perspective of the environment, seeking also social and cultural approaches, informed by human

beings' development and life requirements. We will thus improve the way people perceive the environment and undertake thought processes and educational-environmental actions that are more consistent with the vision we have of it. An Environmental Education explained through social praxis and configured through the conjunction of knowledge, thought and action, giving the environment the importance it requires, insofar as an agent of education. It is not a question of inventing anything new, but instead of reinterpreting the educational capital that is present in the environment itself.

Note

- ¹ The decision has been made not to include trees within the category of Flora, and give them their own category, as the drawings clearly distinguish between wooded areas and patches shaded in green to depict pastures, sometimes with small bushes. Likewise, Livestock was separated from all the other categories under Fauna because its meaning in the drawings was clearly economic and not natural.

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THE TRAGIC BACKGROUND IN SPANISH POPULAR CHILDREN'S SONGS: A CONTENT ANALYSIS CONDUCTED WITH A MIXED METHODOLOGY

DE LO TRÁGICO EN LAS CANCIONES POPULARES INFANTILES ESPAÑOLAS: UN ANÁLISIS DE CONTENIDO CON METODOLOGÍA MIXTA

O TRÁGICO NAS CANÇÕES POPULARES INFANTIS ESPANHOLAS: UMA ANÁLISE DE CONTEÚDO COM METODOLOGIA MISTA

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<p>KEY WORDS: popular children's song mixed methods resilience tragic elements</p>	<p>ABSTRACT: On this research has been analysed the textual elements with a tragic content that appear on the lyrics of Spanish popular children's songs. It has been considered as tragic elements those passages which talk about topics related with tragic aspects of the human condition, such as death, violence, sadness, heartbreak and fear, among others. A content analysis as a mixed methodology has been used for that purpose. The elements mentioned before has been localised, counted, commented and categorised for its analysis. By this procedure, we have obtained some information and percentages that allow us to value the importance of tragic elements appearing on the lyrics analysed, as well as think over its adaptation as a possible educational resource for the tragic aspect of life.</p>
<p>PALABRAS CLAVE: canción popular infantil métodos mixtos resiliencia elementos trágicos</p>	<p>RESUMEN: Este estudio analizó los elementos textuales de contenido trágico que aparecen en las letras de las canciones populares infantiles españolas. Se entendieron como elementos trágicos aquellos pasajes de dichas canciones en los que se tratan temas relacionados con los aspectos trágicos de la condición humana como, por ejemplo, la muerte, la violencia, la tristeza, el desamor, el miedo y otros. Se utilizó el análisis de contenido como metodología mixta para tal empresa: localizar, contabilizar, comentar y categorizar los elementos mencionados. Así, se obtuvieron una serie de datos y porcentajes que nos permiten valorar la significatividad de la presencia de elementos trágicos en las letras de las canciones analizadas y reflexionar sobre su adecuación como un posible recurso didáctico para llevar a cabo una apta educación para lo trágico.</p>

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PALAVRAS-CHAVE:

canção popular
infantil
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resiliência
elementos trágicos

RESUMO: Este presente estudo analisou os elementos textuais tidos como conteúdo trágico que aparecem nas letras das canções populares infantis espanholas. Entende-se por elementos trágicos aqueles, cujas passagens dessas canções, abordem temáticas relacionadas com os aspectos trágicos da condição humana, como por exemplo, a morte, a violência, a falta de amor, o medo, entre outros. Utilizou-se a análise de conteúdo como uma metodologia mista para tal empresa: localizar, contabilizar, comentar e categorizar os elementos mencionados. Então, foram obtidos uma série de dados e porcentagens, que nos permitiram avaliar o significado da presença dos elementos trágicos nas letras das canções analisadas e refletir sobre sua adequação, como um possível recurso didático para desenvolver uma educação apropriada para o que é tido como trágico.

1. Introduction

Music has been a part of our history since its first origins. From the first rudimentary rhythms to the current electronic music, human beings have given music an important role to play on their lives and cultures. At some point in our evolution, the first rhythms and sounds turned to be played along with lyrics and messages. Thanks to that, musical compositions reached a higher level, being able to transmit ideas through their lyrics. That is how a new concept was born, what we all currently known as song.

1.1. Music, songs and culture

Although they were treated in a very rudimentary and primitive way, songs have always been an essential requirement in the lives of the human beings since the first time (Crivillé, 1988). A huge number of songs have been composed throughout history, conforming our culture as time goes by.

The close relationship between language and culture has been the object of study of ethnomusicologists. It is known that every language expresses the culture in which its users are immersed and therefore, through the study of linguistic manifestations, we can get to know that culture (Martín Camacho, 2003). Considering the lyrics of the songs as an example of linguistic manifestation, we can infer that through their study we get a better knowledge about the culture and society in which they were created and used.

Besides, following the postulates of Berrocal and Gutiérrez Pérez (2002), there is no doubt that songs have meant one of the best conductors regarding the culture-historical transmission carried out by our ancestors. Many of these songs have been transmitted orally from generation to generation with the aim of preserving the cultural heritage without using the written code (Sheridan, MacDonald & Byrne, 2011).

We are who we are in part thanks to the songs we have been listening to throughout our lives. They influence directly our beliefs, emotions

and ideas and consequently, our behaviour, that is why music is an essential tool for knowledge and emotional adjustment (Campayo & Cabedo, 2016). Their messages have an effect on our way of thinking and understanding the world. Songs and other folk materials of our culture have a wide educational potential, not only in terms of the active learning of those who use them, but also in their relationship with the environment (Cerrillo, 2005). They are the complement to a complex and playful system that wisely combines leisure, physical activity, fun, culture and training in generalized contexts of poverty, which are not so different from the “current situations” that are itemised in the monograph presented by de Juanas (2018).

Particularly in Spain, the production of songs over time is very extensive. Therefore, through its study we have been able to know better our idiosyncrasy. We are going to focus our attention in a particular and curious group of them: the popular children's songs.

Social pedagogy should now accomplish a new mission based on recovering children's popular songs in our current context to use them in a social training and not only in a literary one. Following Martínez-Ezquerro & Martos (2019), the mix of traditions, genres and topics needs to develop a social literary education. In addition, we propose its application to a wider open intertextuality and intermodality that include popular songs as a “hybrid” between the literary, musical and social aspects. The preservation of the literary heritage, including the music and the culture, should confront the products of the global marketing.

1.2. Popular children's songs (PCSs)

They are known as “popular” because their author is unknown and they remain alive thanks to people's memory. They are used by children (in a complete or partial way) whether they were or not entirely for children. Popular children's songs (from here on out named as PCSs) have been very present in the daily lives of the Spanish society. Children (both boys and girls) accepted them, used them and made them theirs, mainly with

the intention of using them to accompany their games and dances. Obviously, children were not aware of the educational potential of their lyrics. As Fernández Poncela (2013) points out, children hummed these PCSs between thoughtlessness and precociousness, causing a simultaneous introjection of the song's message as part of their child's brain and drafting their duty as adults in a future.

Simplicity characterizes this type of musical compositions. It is obvious because as we have said before, their main characters and recipients are children (boys and girls) and therefore the songs cannot be too complex to play and understand. They are perfect for children due to their characteristics: "The popular children's song holds melodic, rhythmic, formal, timbre, expressive, functional and interpretative features of interest for being able to deeply influence the child's soul" (Sarget, 2002, p. 208).

Furthermore, their lyrics talk about a huge variety of topics, they normally describe the everyday life of a society, community or territory. These are songs that talk about the life itself, that are sung (among other things) to show and teach the difficulties, wonders and misfortunes that define them.

In this way, love appears but in the shape of heartbreak. Unrequited love, disagreement between partners, lies and trickeries, even romances that end because of one of the partner's death, as in the famous song "Where do you go Alfonso XII?". The persistence on the importance of marriage marks the future of these children and raise the longing for marriage in the early ages. Equally, the war and the soldiers constitute one of the main topics, especially in old romances. The PCSs which are about famous warlike characters, important battles or the returns home from battlefield (triumphant or defeated) are very usual. War, violence, even child abuse, appear in an explicit way in the Spanish popular children's songbook (Fernández Poncela, 2013).

Obviously, there are numerous songs in which humour, joy and optimism are predominant. In the Spanish popular children's songbook appears songs about jokes, puns, tongue-twisters, riddles, and songs for parties and seasons (Cerrillo, 2005). Life is a swing of good and bad moments, of joyful and painful news, of events that bring us happiness and others that plunge us into sadness. The PCSs openly show the reality in which they were created and used.

However, we do not take advantage of this richness. It is believed that the popular song is currently undervalued and it is used less and less, as much in school as in a family environment. It is

also mistakenly compared traditional music with simple music. This belief is not supported by the evidence, according to Casals, Vilar & Ayats (2008) and Arriaga, Riano, Cabedo & Berbel (2017). These authors look into the musical preferences of the primary school students, confirming their preference for popular songs. Although, from today's point of view, children's songs are usually identified with happy and positive lyrics and messages, avoiding more delicate topics that are reserved for adult recipients.

1.3. PCSs, the tragic element and its educational potential

Nevertheless, there are PCSs that show textual elements of a tragic nature. Many of these compositions contain passages in which tragic aspects of life, such as death, are dealt with more or less explicitness.

Why do tragic elements appear in children's songs? Regarding the principles of ethnoлингistics again, following Martín Camacho (2003), the mere existence of songs in which diverse topics are treated means the importance that these topics possessed for the society. Death and tragedy were more present in our ancestors' lives, who talked about it more naturally than nowadays, at least in the PCSs. Far from embellishing and omitting the tragic content of live in their lyrics, some PCSs show it with a complete familiarity. In this way, and taking into account their historical educational potential, we deduce that there was about a subtle exercise of acceptance of tragedy and death. Also, as a last resort, they were useful for educating for tragedy; every time that the children learned, they used and internalized the messages of these songs as a real resilience exercise.

But what is the education for tragedy about? Needless to say that the topic of death and its derivative tragic elements represent one of the most concerns (if not the biggest one) of the human being throughout history. The questions it raises and the reflection on them are the focus in the history of humanity from its origins, in every part of the world (Gaona, 2012).

However, in spite of its importance, death is a taboo in our current society. According to Ordoñez & Lacasta (2007), currently in our society there are numerous taboos related to the emotional part of the human being, and one of them is associated with death, which has become a symbol of failure and decay.

Specifically, the taboo is noted when it comes to educating and talking to children about the tragic nature of the human condition. As it happened

not so long ago with the issue of sex, few families or teachers naturally educate their children or students on the topic of death and the tragic aspect of life. The strategy to follow consists in ignoring the issue, making the child to understand as late as possible his irremediable finitude and suffering as a human being. Herrán & Cortina (2007) explain it with the following metaphor:

In the topic of death, a kind of useless thread cocoon is created around it, from which nothing ever comes out, but which works very well to cover and plug it. Consequently, there is a paradox that the majority of those who investigate the education topic are still surprised when death is related to it. That is because in their minds the understanding of death is still locked up, glazed and camouflaged with flowers and scents of prejudice. (p. 2)

We understand that education should aim, not only to provide knowledge and pursue that the students acquire skills related to academic subjects, but also must prepare them to face any problem and difficulty that life puts them ahead. Obviously, reflection on death and human finitude is one of the moments to overcome, and not doing it properly can have negative consequences throughout a lifetime. Verdú (2002) states categorically that teaching without taking into account the topic of death means the absolute death of teaching since, for him, not treating what matters most, disqualifies any educational institution. Thus, school must pursue the inner and outer evolution of the students, in this order. To achieve this, it is an indispensable condition to incorporate what matters most into teaching and teacher's training, otherwise the task of educating will be impossible (Herrán & Cortina, 2009).

Therefore, education for death and tragedy consists in updating the reflection on human finitude, before and after a possible loss, in order to boost the integral development of the child, to educate him/her for life without forgetting its tragic components. As our ancestors once did by using the PCSs, we should also do it now with education. Assuming the taboo and trying to overcome it should be our objectives. There are already many educational proposals on this matter (Herrán & Cortina, 2007; 2008; 2009).

The PCSs are presented as an ideal resource to carry out the education for death and tragedy, in and out of the classroom, and its deep study is the first step for their pedagogical use in a future.

1.4. Analysing song lyrics

The hypothesis of this study is stated as: PCSs lyrics show tragic textual elements in a significant degree.

By 'significant' is understood that it is not product of pure luck ($\alpha = 0.05$), it has a criteria value judged by experts and compared to similar studies. We will try to verify this hypothesis by analysing the content of these songs, as well as the degree of presence and conceptual diversity of the inserted tragic elements; even if we assume that the presence of certain traits (tragic elements) in the PCSs implies familiarizing oneself with the question that the topic expresses.

If the presence degree of the tragic elements in the PCSs turns to be significant, we can deduce that the tragic aspect was treated more frequently and it was not shown as taboo, at least regarding the use of the PCSs as cultural transmitters and educational tools for children. It makes PCSs a perfect resource with a pedagogical power in teaching tragedy properly.

In a certain way, the main aim of this study will be getting to know the presence of tragic elements in PCSs lyrics. The tragic elements found will be localised and classified in order to value the importance of the presence degree obtained, as well as reflect on their adaptation as a teaching resource.

Some masters have not used the songbook in its entirety, maybe because of the variety and importance of the potential indicated that caused some kind of 'fear' to them. They have used the popular children's songbook in a too general way, little systematic and even vague, without taking fully advantage of its irrefutable excellences. (Cerrillo & Sánchez Ortiz, 2013, p. 312).

2. The method

It is presented here the typology of the design used, the sample, population and universe considered, the instruments for collecting information and the data analysis techniques that have been employed.

2.1. Study design

A content analysis method has been used for this study. It is a descriptive design through a mixed methodology, since quantitative techniques (such as accounting for the tragic songs and elements they show and obtaining percentages) and qualitative techniques (such as the categorization

of the tragic elements and a brief interpretative commentary of each of the elements found) have been used.

It is about a documentary analysis because we are working with Spanish popular children's songs, that can be considered as primary documents for the documentary revision, considering that they include original information.

The use of the content analysis as a mixed method, which combines an evident analysis (quantitative) with a latent analysis (qualitative), has been employed in various fields. Fernández-Cano & Rico (1992) used a mixed content analysis to analyse mathematical contents in written press materials. The mixed content analysis has been employed in the field of musical education in particular by Bernard, Weiss & Abeles (2018), Rohwer (2018) or Roberts & McFerran (2013).

2.2. Sample-Population-Universe

The sample of this study is constituted by a series of songs taken from the Cancionero Popular Infantil Español [Spanish popular children's songbook], this could be considered as the universe of the study. The accessible population consists of 4 songbooks, 676 songs in total. Given that we have not made any type of selection, population and sample matches. Therefore, it is about a census study. A sequence of this selection process is shown in Figure 1:

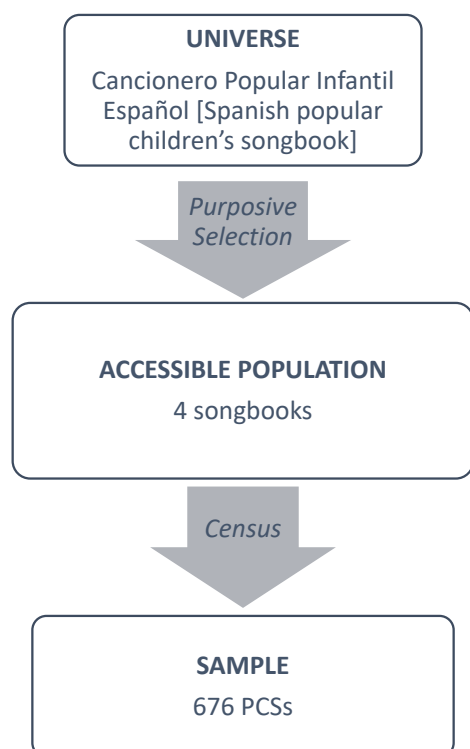


Figure 1. Procedure of sample selection.

The leap from the universe (all the Spanish PCSs) to the population (Spanish PCSs included in the four songbooks) could be questioned. We have chosen these four songbooks as representatives of the Spanish PCSs universe, regarding the knowledge of three experts in the field (two authors and an external expert). They consider these books as the most used and consequently the most representative between teachers in primary school.

The sample is made by 676 songs in total coming from 4 children's songbooks, described below. In the first one, "Cancionero Infantil" [Children's songbook] by Gil (1964), the 137 that form it have been analysed, without including the pieces considered as tongue-twisters, riddles and similes. In the second one, "Cancionero Popular Infantil Español" [Spanish popular children's songbook] by Hidalgo Montoya (1998), a total of 112 songs have been considered (the book contains 123 songs, but 11 songs have been already analysed in Gil's book named before). In the third one, "Cancionero Infantil Español" [Spanish children's songbook] by Córdova y Oña (1947), the 423 songs that it contains have been analysed, without taking into account other versions and variations of the same song that happen to be practically identical. Finally, we have analysed the four children's songs that contains the book named "Canciones Tradicionales Españolas" [Spanish traditional songs], by Martínez Blanco (2011).

Therefore, the sampling technique used is not a probabilistic one, but it is intentional. The PCS is considered as the basic unit of removable analysis on the four songbooks mentioned before.

2.3. Information gathering tools

From the tragic elements present in each song, a series of content categories are established to group and classify the tragic elements found.

By classify we mean: to group the PCSs according to the tragic elements found (words, sentences or complex clauses) regarding the conceptual similarity in the specific characteristics of such elements (structures referring to death, heartbreak, fear, violence, sadness and a miscellaneous category named others). Notice that in this analysis, the categories and groups are not previously given, but they can be deduced a posteriori from the chosen sentences. Besides, one song (the basic unit of analysis) may be assigned to more than one category.

Also, the already said categories are not always and necessary associated with death, but they are just tragic elements detected in the PCSs. Categories such as the heartbreak can transmit other

important lessons for life. It must be bear in mind that a content analysis does not intend nor can make unequivocal causal inferences, but it can deduce descriptive patterns or even explanatory patterns about an analysed reality, PCSs.

2.4. Data analysis technique

The techniques for data analysis have been the ones related to the content analysis as a mixed method. For the use of frequencies and percentages (quantitative), in the first place, tragic elements have been located in the PCSs that define the sample. Next, these elements have been taken into account and classified in order to obtain a series of percentages that help us establishing inferences, deductions and conclusions. The content analysis in a latent level allows us to make lyrics interpretations as stories (qualitative).

2.5. Example of content analysis

Here it is shown an example of content analysis with a mixed methodology. It is about the popular children's song "Dónde vas Alfonso XII" [Where do you go, Alfonso XII?], from the songbook "Canciones tradicionales españolas" [Spanish traditional songs] by Martínez Blanco (2011). Here we can see how the elements found are located and categorised.

Where do you go, Alfonso XII? / Where do you
go so sad?

I am in search of Mercedes, / I didn't see her
yesterday.

But Mercedes is already dead, / she is dead, I
saw her.

She was carried by four dukes / down the streets
of Madrid.

Her little face was made of wax, / her little hands
of ivory,

And the cape that covered her up / was made of
a beautiful crimson.

The street lamps of the Palace / do not want to
light anymore
because Mercedes is dead / and they want to be
in mourning.

The horses of the Palace / do not want to ride
anymore
because Mercedes is dead / and they want to be
in mourning.

- First element "*Where do you go, Alfonso XII? / Where do you go so sad?*": it is referred to the monarch's mood; the sadness. → Sadness
- Second element "*Mercedes is already dead, / she is dead, I saw her*": the death of his lovely wife is notified to the monarch. → Death
- Third element "*she was carried by four dukes / down the streets of Madrid*": it describes the burial. → Death
- Fourth element "*Her little face was made of wax, / her little hands, of ivory, and the cape that covered her up / was made of a beautiful crimson*": it is an explicit description of Mercedes' corpse. → Death
- Fifth element "*The street lamps of the Palace / do not want to light anymore, because Mercedes is dead / and they want to be in mourning. The horses of the Palace / do not want to ride anymore, because Mercedes is dead / and they want to be in mourning*": it details the sadness after Mercedes' death, even the mourning of the horses and street lamps. → Death and sadness

3. Results

After conducting a mixed content analysis of the songs that are the object of this study and identifying the tragic elements they present, the categories of "Fear", "Death", "Violence", "Sadness" and "Heartbreak" are inferred as the main ones. Besides, a sixth miscellaneous category is added: "Others". This is a consistent discovery, which has been generated after conducting a content analysis, along with other interpretative studies, which look into textual passages; for example, Fernández-Cano (2010) illustrates inferred evaluation patterns of a biblical passage from Judge Gideon's book.

It is worth mentioning that the songs that show tragic elements and that are found in more than one songbook have been counted as a single piece. It is expected that in the total of analysed songs that do not present tragic elements, there are also some of them that can be found in more than one songbook of those analysed.

Thus, of all the songs analysed, a total of 155 songs have been found, in which appear at least one tragic element of any of the categories considered. The total of tragic elements detected on the 155 songs is 407 elements. These songs with tragic elements, in turn, are a 22.93% from the total of analysed songs.

Table 1 contains a summary of the results obtained after the content analysis. On the lines, the titles of some analysed songs with a higher number of tragic elements are shown; on the columns,

the 5 inferred categories. Next, the presence of collected elements is counted with an X. Therefore, each X means an element found in the song named on the line, which belongs to the category

that marks the column. This way, we can find more than 1 element in the same song and/or more than one element belonging to the same category.

Table 1. Categorizing according to the tragic elements on Spanish popular children's songs

	Fear	Death	Violence	Sadness	Heartbreak	Others
<i>Al milano</i> [To the white-tailed Kite]		XX	XX			
<i>Bordando casacas</i> [Embroidering Dress Coats]		XX	XX	X		
<i>Do, Re, Mi; Do, Re, Fa</i>		XXXX	X	XX		
<i>Don Gato</i> [Mr. Cat]		XXX	XX			
<i>Don Pedro o La muerte oculta</i> [Don Pedro or The Hidden Death]	X	XXXXX XX		XXXX		X (disease)
<i>Dónde vas Alfonso XII</i> [Where do you go Alfonso XII?]		XXXX		XX		
<i>El marinerito</i> [The little Sailor]		XXX	X			
<i>El puñal de oro</i> [The golden Dagger]		X	XXX	X		
<i>El ramito de arrayán</i> [The smallbranch of Myrtle]				XXXXX X	X	
<i>El rey-conde</i> [The Count-King]		XXX		X	X	X (disease)
<i>Elisa de Mambrú</i> [Elisa of Mambrú]		XX				
<i>En Cádiz hay una niña</i> [There is a girl in Cádiz]		X	X	XXX		
<i>En el valle, valle</i> [In the Valley]			XXX	XXXX		
<i>En la calle Anchica</i> [On Anchica' Street]	X	XX	XX			
<i>La asturiana</i> [The little Asturian]	X	XXXX	XXXX	XX		
<i>La cautiva</i> [The Captive]			X	XXXX		
<i>La esposita</i> [The little Wife]			X	XXXXX	XX	
<i>La Sinda</i> [Sinda]			X	XXXXX		

	Fear	Death	Violence	Sadness	Heartbreak	Others
<i>Me casó mi madre</i> [My Mother gave my hand in marriage]	X		XXXX	XX	XX	
<i>Un padre tuvo tres hijas</i> [A Father had three Daughters]		XXXXX	XXX			
<i>Vicentito</i> [Little Vincent]		XXXX	X		X	
<i>Yo me quería casar</i> [I wanted to get married]			XXXX	XX		
<i>Yo tenía 10 perritos</i> [I had 10 Doggies]		XXXXX XXX	X	XX		X (enfermedad)

As we have said before, Table 1 shows some of the analysed songs in which a huge variety of tragic elements have been found. It is worth

mentioning that between the PCSs, the romances are especially tragic. Table 2 contains the results on total data classified by categories.

Table 2. Total results by categories				
	Songs and elements found	% Regarding the total of songs with elements	% Regarding the total of analysed songs	% Regarding the total of detected elements
Violence	78 Songs 111 Elements	50.32	11.54	27.27
Death	73 Songs 127 Elements	47.1	10.8	31.20
Sadness	56 Songs 98 Elements	36.13	8.28	24.08
Heartbreak	21 Songs 26 Elements	13.55	3.11	6.39
Fear	16 Songs 20 Elements	10.32	2.37	4.91
Others	18 Songs 25 Elements	11.61	2.66	6.14

Once the numerical data regarding the presence of tragic elements in PCSs are obtained, it is also necessary to interpret (content analysis at a dormant or qualitative level) these elements to

delve even more into their tragic content. We offer as an example the romance called “The Hidden Death”. The tragic elements found are underlined, following by an interpretation of them.

The Hidden Death

Here comes Don Pedro from the war, wounded, and he comes running to see his son:

- How are you Teresa after giving birth?

- I am very well, Don Pedro, if you come healthy...

- You end with those reasons, Teresa, because the King is waiting for me in Court.

And when he left the room, Don Pedro passed away and his poor mother full of pain...

- Mother-in-law, my mother-in-law, my always friend: What is that noise coming from the kitchen?

- I tell you Teresa, my always friend, that is a card game of new birth.

Teresa had already completed forty days; she was getting ready to go to church:

- Mother-in-law, my mother-in-law, my always friend: What clothes should I wear to go to church?

Should I wear the white one? If not, the yellow one.

- You should dress up for mourning, it interests you.

- Mother-in-law, my mother-in-law, my always friend: I will wear the white one, I will look splendid.

She dresses in white and goes to church, and as she was entering the church, people were saying:

"The little honest widow, the cute little widow".

- And why were they saying that?

- For you, my Teresa, for you, my life; Don Pedro is dead, and you didn't know it.

She closed the windows and the curtains, and she fainted and died heartbroken.

An interpretation of the elements found

In this song, several features of the Spanish culture can be seen. It is about the death of a marriage. The man (Don Pedro) dies after returning home with war wounds, and his wife (Teresa) dies of sadness because of her husband's death.

The different roles assumed in marriage according to gender deserve to be analysed. The woman's live and state of mind depend entirely on the man's one. Teresa, who has just given birth, says she is fine if her husband is healthy. If Don Pedro feels good, so does Teresa, despite the pain and discomfort of a *postpartum* state.

It is the woman who remains continuously at home, at the mercy of the husband's actions. She will wait for his return faithfully. However, the husband has absolute freedom to decide his future. What is more, despite being father, he decides to attend the war leaving his pregnant wife alone. It is clear that women and men took responsibilities in different ways in order to take care of a child. It is much more a woman's "issue" than a man's one. Another detail would be that the man is called by the word "Don" (title of honour derived from the Latin "Dominus" which means "Sir") while the woman is called by her name, Teresa.

In the song, the innocence of the women is clearly emphasized by the lack of "lucidity", not being able to connect facts nor obtain conclusions by themselves in spite of the evident facts. When she entered dressed in white to the church (the colour white is a symbol of purity in Western culture), people refer to her as "the little widow". She is still not aware of her husband's death, despite hearing all these comments while she attends ignorant and submissive to church. It is her mother-in-law who informs her about Don Pedro's death about a month ago. To make clear once again that Teresa did not suspect anything, when she finally knows the announcement, it is such bad news that it provokes her own death.

Related to that, we can finally draw conclusions about the triangular relationship: son / husband-wife / wife-mother / mother-in-law. The hidden intention of the mother-in-law is to humiliate her daughter-in-law, who is dressed in white despite her husband's death (even though Teresa was not aware of it). The mother-in-law tries to hide his death to humiliate Teresa in the church with the purpose of keeping her grandson (the fact that the mother-in-law wanted to keep the child remains unclear, although she finally does because of his parents' death).

4. Conclusions

A series of conclusions are presented regarding the achievement of objectives and verification of the study hypothesis, as well as the plausible advances and openings of this study.

4.1. Achievement of objectives and verification of the study hypothesis

After analysing a considerable sample of popular children's songs from our popular Spanish children's songbook, we observe a significant percentage (22.93%) of songs in which at least one

tragic element can be identified, understanding this element as a passage that refers to the tragic nature of the human condition, such as violence, death, sadness, fear, heartbreak and others.

This percentage of 22.93% of Spanish popular children's songs with tragic contents is considered to be important for three reasons. First, that percentage exceeds the usual and universally accepted level of significance of the 5% ($\alpha = 0.05$) that could be expected by chance. Second, there is a criteria evaluation by experts' judgement (these two researchers) that consider such percentage as significant. Third, comparative studies like the one by Kirmizi, Saygi and Yurdakal (2014) do not infer tragic elements in Turkish children's popular songs but 19 content categories among which stand out the love of the land, the love for animals and the enjoyment of life. Therefore, we deduce certain degree of habituation when talking about the tragic element in this type of children's songs. It is something that clashes with the taboo that characterizes the topic in other areas and in our current time (Arriaga, Riano, Cabedo & Berbel, 2017).

The order of tragic content categories, regarding the total of PCSs with tragic elements, is the following: violence (50.32%), death (47.1%), sadness (36.13%), heartbreak (13.55%), fear (10.32%) and others, as a miscellaneous category (11.61%).

It could be said that the PCSs usually capture everyday aspects of life of that time. They were transmitted from generation to generation, almost always accompanying children's games. Accordingly, these songs are typical of childhood, they connected with children's interests, independently of whether they were created specifically for them or not.

We conjecture that the messages of the PCSs lyrics were repeated a huge number of times by the childhood and they ended up leaving a mark on them, like a way of persuasion and education at the same time; since with the help of the PCSs, a generation was educating their children and grandchildren for life (and for death). In this way, PCSs are a quality pedagogical tool used for centuries. In their messages, the tragic element was included (such as pain, death, heartbreak for the loss of the loved one), sometimes in a very intense way, and the generations continued to use them to educate their descendants; we can deduce a certain familiarity with the tragic element, that differs from the consideration as a taboo topic that we have nowadays.

There is a consensus regarding the idea about the tragic element being a taboo topic in our society, and more specifically in the education of new generations (for example, through children's

songs). For example, authors such as Sánchez-Sánchez, Serrano & Martínez Segura (2017) conclude that, being associated with pain, the topic of the tragic has been hidden from new generations and has become a social taboo. Colomo (2016) states that currently, death has become a taboo topic which we omit in order not to feel close to it. It is still an issue that causes great concerns in many people's lives and therefore solutions usually do not focus on addressing the issue in a straightforward way.

Consequently, the distinction between traditional and current PCSs is relevant, although it escapes from the scope of this study. There are opposed approaches. Thus, Díaz & Arriaga (2013) emphasise the value of delving into the responsibility of conserving the inherited heritage in the traditional children's songs field. Molinari (2010, p.122) is even more explicit when rejecting current children's songs when he says: "Some of the proposals of children's songs 'in fashion' [quotes in original] chosen by a pre-school education teacher, many of the children 'get tired' [quotes in original] of chant with voices, often distempered, what they listen in the media". However, this differentiation between the traditional and the current is controversial, because other studies point to the therapeutic power of current songs; for example, Giore (2016) and Roberts & McFerran (2013), especially in pre-adolescents.

As a final conclusion, the hypothesis of the study is then confirmed due to the significant percentage obtained from PCSs, that present at least one tragic element. Therefore, it is inferred a certain habituation to the tragic in these traditional songs.

However, we must not conclude a unique and tragic idea of the Spanish PCSs lyrics; in our study, about a quarter of them do contain tragic elements. The rest of the lyrics expose very diverse topics. There are songs that combine happy and loving topics with the tragic one at the same time. For example, the song "Estaba la pájara pinta" [There was the hen Goldfinch], typical in Hispanic culture and very popular in Mexico, gives us these happy verses of a girl who waits anxiously for her love.

Oh, Lord!

When would I see my love?

Give me one hand, give me the other one,

Give me a little kiss from your mouth.

Another song like "Tres pelos tiene mi barba" [My beard has three hairs] is an exposition of logical argumentation, combining implication and negation. It sounds like this: *Three hairs (A) has my*

beard (B); *my beard (B) has three hairs (A)*: If A implies B, B implies A [$A \rightarrow B$; $B \rightarrow A$].

If it hadn't three hairs (denial of A), then it wouldn't be my beard (denial of B) [$\neg A \rightarrow \neg B$]

The fact that the tragic topic is not addressed completely normal in current education (both formal and non-formal), has a negative impact on the comprehensive development of a person, since the school and the family must educate children for life, in all its senses; and this cannot be developed if, when speaking about the tragic, we do it with reservation, nuancing it excessively, hiding it selfishly, not accepting it and, in short, with fear. A quality education for death and tragedy will prepare learners much more consistently for the challenges that life will provide them.

One of the first steps to take is the inclusion of education for the tragic, and the PCSs as a teaching resource in our curriculum. Death and tragedy must be considered as a cross curricular subject that can be treated from a vast number of subjects, and from any stage. In turn, the PCSs are presented as an ideal tool for education for the acceptance of tragedy through music, for the familiarization of the topic that characterizes their messages, and for the pedagogical potential that they have by nature.

In addition, another essential duty is the appropriate training of teachers, since to educate for tragedy, at first it is necessary a process of self-training and reflection by themselves. Teachers must be the ones who educate themselves in death and tragedy in the first place, since we all are imbued, in one way or another, with the taboo that characterizes them today.

More specifically, in terms of education for death, to treat properly and without taboos the mourning period of the student is as important after the loss as it is prior to the loss, preparing the student for their own and the losses of loved ones, that will inevitably have to experience. If a student

has been properly educated for the death, he/she will suffer and feel pain for future losses, but he/she will be aware of it. If this has not been the case, it will cause doubts, improvisations, irrational thoughts, lies and bad practices, with negative consequences of all kinds.

Education for death and tragedy can be considered as an awareness educational field. A child properly educated in death, without taboos or reservations, will have a fuller awareness of his/her condition as a human being and his/her finitude. The student will feel more part of humanity and, therefore, more responsible for its improvement.

4.2. Advances and openings of the study

More PCSs from other songbooks can be analysed in order to increase the sample and with that, the strength of the results obtained. Besides, more complex methods can be used, for example the clusters analysis with information regarding the categories.

It would be very interesting the analysis of PCSs belonging to other countries, languages and cultures, focusing ourselves on the sense of the tragic of these songs. Therefore, we can compare this sense of the tragic with the one found in the Spanish popular children's songbook.

We have deduced that the PCSs are ideal for teaching for death and tragedy through music. Therefore, a huge number of possibilities are opened in order to design educational programs for all kind of ages or subjects.

Our Spanish popular children's songbook is very rich, and as we said before, its educational potential is excellent to teach people the tragic aspect or any other field. This type of studies, teaching proposals focused on the songbook, ...all these actions would help to preserve and value it, apart from offering us the chance to understand way better our nature and inner-history.

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PARTNERSHIPS BETWEEN SCHOOLS AND SOCIO-EDUCATIONAL SUPPORT ORGANIZATIONS AROUND SCHOOL SUPPORT

**ALIANZAS ENTRE CENTROS ESCOLARES Y ORGANIZACIONES DE APOYO
SOCIOEDUCATIVO EN TORNO AL SOPORTE ESCOLAR**

**ALIANÇAS ENTRE CENTROS ESCOLARES E ORGANIZAÇÕES DE APOIO
EDUCATIVO SOCIAL EM RELAÇÃO AO SUPORTE ESCOLAR**

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ABSTRACT: The creation and consolidation of partnerships between schools and socio-educational support organizations is considered a success key factor both for learning and for the development of academic support. The present study aims to identify favorable conditions for the configuration of partnerships between schools and socio-educational support organizations. This work has applied a sequential research design as well as qualitative techniques to analyse the perceptions of 16 socio-educational support organizations in United States and Spain regarding the configuration of solid partnerships with schools. During the first phase of this study, 11 semi-structured interviews have been carried out alongside 3 discussion groups. In a second phase, 4 good practices have been analysed in order to verify the preliminary results obtained. The final results derived from this study show that the development of partnerships between institutions is mediated by the quality of the academic support, the vision of the professional teams, the coordination among institutions and the evaluation of processes and actions. These findings have allowed us to offer an interpretative framework to identify favourable and distorting elements for the construction of partnerships and, consequently, for the success of academic support. Hence, we may highlight that the goal of educational success in contexts of complexity and social and cultural diversity benefits from the collaboration between institutions, which are able to identify institutional strengths and weaknesses, to analyse context's opportunities and threats and to plan collective processes and actions.

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<p>PALABRAS CLAVE: Alianzas Escuelas Éxito educativo Soporte escolar Diversidad sociocultural</p>	<p>RESUMEN: La creación y consolidación de alianzas entre centros escolares y organizaciones de apoyo socioeducativo se presenta como condición de éxito para los aprendizajes y desarrollo del soporte escolar. El presente estudio pretende identificar condiciones favorables para la configuración de alianzas entre centros escolares y organizaciones de apoyo socioeducativo. Para ello se ha empleado un diseño de investigación secuencial y métodos cualitativos para analizar las percepciones de 16 organizaciones de apoyo socioeducativo, situadas entre Estados Unidos y España y en relación a la configuración de alianzas sólidas con los centros escolares. En la primera fase del estudio se han realizado 11 entrevistas semi-estructuradas y 3 grupos de discusión y en una segunda fase se han analizado 4 buenas prácticas para contrastar los resultados preliminares. Los resultados indican que el desarrollo de alianzas entre instituciones está mediado por la calidad del soporte escolar, las visiones de los equipos profesionales, la coordinación entre instituciones y la evaluación de procesos y actuaciones. Estos hallazgos han permitido ofrecer un marco interpretativo para identificar elementos favorecedores u obstaculizadores para la construcción de alianzas y, por consiguiente, para el éxito del soporte escolar. En este orden se subraya que el logro del éxito educativo, en entornos de complejidad y diversidad sociocultural, necesita de la colaboración entre instituciones, capaces de identificar fortalezas y debilidades institucionales, analizar oportunidades y amenazas de los contextos y establecer procesos y actuaciones colectivas.</p>
<p>PALAVRAS-CHAVE: Alianças escolas Sucesso educacional Apoio escolar Diversidade sociocultural</p>	<p>RESUMO: A criação e consolidação de parcerias entre escolas e organizações de apoio socioeducativo é apresentada como condição de sucesso para o aprendizado e desenvolvimento do apoio escolar. O presente estudo tem como objetivo identificar condições favoráveis para a configuração de parcerias entre escolas e organizações de apoio socioeducativo. Para tanto, um desenho de pesquisa sequencial e métodos qualitativos foram utilizados para analisar as percepções de 16 organizações de apoio socioeducativo localizadas entre os Estados Unidos e a Espanha em relação à configuração de parcerias sólidas com escolas. Na primeira fase do estudo, foram realizadas 11 entrevistas semi-estruturadas e 3 grupos de discussão e, em uma segunda fase, foram analisadas 4 boas práticas para comparar os resultados preliminares. Os resultados indicaram que o desenvolvimento de alianças entre instituições é mediado pela qualidade do apoio escolar, pelas visões das equipes profissionais, pela coordenação entre as instituições e pela avaliação de processos e ações. Esses achados nos permitiram oferecer uma estrutura interpretativa para identificar elementos que favorecem ou dificultam a construção de alianças e, portanto, para o sucesso do apoio escolar. Nessa ordem, ressalta-se que a conquista do sucesso educacional, em ambientes de complexidade e diversidade sociocultural, requer colaboração entre instituições, capaz de identificar pontos fortes e fraquezas institucionais, analisar oportunidades e ameaças em contextos e estabelecer processos e ações coletivos.</p>

1. Introduction

Academic support includes actions to reduce school failure and contribute to educational success, particularly during compulsory schooling but also in the post-compulsory stage. These actions usually relate to mentoring and individual attention, socio-educational inclusion with school reinforcement and others which combine educational leisure with school reinforcement and core competences. The articulation of an efficient academic support requires solid and sustainable partnerships between schools and socio-educational support organizations, the latter being considered as those institutions that provide academic support, educational accompaniment beyond education centers and guidelines and resources for educational success. It is also stated that the strictly academic perspectives of the educational relationship must be overcome on the basis of collaborative work (Chang & Jordan, 2013; Connelly & Young, 2013; Schamper, 2012) and community approach (Mourshed, Chijioke & Barber, 2012), especially

when processes of socio-cultural identification must be addressed in situations of cultural inequality and minoritization (Gibson et al., 2013; O'Leary, González & Valdez, 2008).

Recent international researchers have shown, on the one hand, that partnerships between schools and socio-educational support organizations are a success factor for the learning and development of academic support. On the other hand, such articles demonstrate that these partnerships are conditioned by certain aspects. For this reason, this article presents a study which aims to analyze the partnerships established between schools and socio-educational support organizations for the achievement of school success. We identify and analyze how such factors determine the creation and consolidation of these partnerships among institutions.

2. State of the art

The achievement of educational success, particularly in contexts of complexity and socio-cultural diversity, requires the collaboration of an

institutional framework ready to share educational goals and cooperate in common spaces for intervention. This approach leads to the identification of institutional strengths and weaknesses, the analysis of opportunities and threats of contexts, the establishment of processes and collective actions, and the design and development of partnerships among institutions and their professionals. In this way, the challenge of educational success is ensured. However, the creation and consolidation of partnerships regarding academic support between schools and socio-educational support organizations is a complex task (Leos-Urbel, 2015; Bennett, 2014; Jordan, 2014).

For this reason, the approach of “Full Time Education” frames the position adopted, given its will of integrating instructional and non-instructional time, promoting educational participation and cooperation among different actors, implementing a shared leadership and revitalizing cohesive networks that transfer different learning opportunities (Díaz-Gibson et al., 2017; Sintes, 2016 & 2015). Its philosophy aims to transform educational individuality and fragmentation in a broad and networked education, taking inspiration from a systemic and community action (for instance: “Ganztagsschulen” in German speaking countries, or “Projet Éducatif Territorial” in France).

Many national and international experiences move towards this through solid proposals. Such is the case for “Community Schools” in USA, “Extended Schools” in UK and “Educació 360” in 2018, the latest initiative sponsored by several institutions in Catalonia. All of them seek for cooperation between schools and community educational organizations, from a global and broad perspective of education, which generates learning opportunities throughout life. Moreover, they pursue the connection among learnings, actors and educational organizations; as a consequence, such approaches demand the complicity of the town and the professionals and institutional agents that are involved in education (Muñoz, 2012 & 2009).

Partnerships between schools and socio-educational support organizations are unique and frequently conditioned by certain factors that can improve them (Rubio & Luchetti, 2016; Albaigés, 2016; Consorci d'Educació de Barcelona, 2015; Jordan, 2014; Gonzales, Gunderson & Wold, 2013; Little, Wimer & Weiss, 2008). Such factors are permeable and meaningful for academic support, and they can be presented as: A) the quality of the academic support, B) the visions of the professional teams, C) the coordination among institutions and D) the evaluation of processes and actions, as discussed below.

The quality of academic support is often conditioned by the generation of personal and academic learnings (Anderson, Sabatelli & Trachtenberg, 2009), in an atmosphere of community relationships where partnerships between schools and socio-educational support organizations evolve around curricular contexts, being the result of an effective coordination (Bodilly & Beckett, 2005). Therefore, it is advisable to define the goals of academic support (Durlak, Wiessberg & Pachan, 2010) in order to distinguish them in terms of social, educational or psycho-emotional learning. A coherent intervention in this sense increases the impact on the academic performance of students (González, 2016). An active participation of institutional and professional actors involved in academic support is also important, as well as the support provided by volunteers and, of course, families (Dikkers, 2013; Shernoff, 2010; Metz, Goldsmith & Arbretton, 2008). It is a top priority to avoid the mechanizing of an academic support which can lead to a progressive disassociation of students from the educational system (Consorci d'Educació de Barcelona, 2015).

Mutual approaches from the faculties and educational teams (socio-educational support) are instrumental for the creation and socialization of knowledge and for the effective embodiment of inter-institutional partnerships (Afterschool Alliance, 2014; Departament d'Ensenyament, 2013; Gonzales, Gunderson & Wold, 2013). It is appropriate to foster a cooperative culture that arises from mutual recognition and leads to the exchange of experiences as well as to the reciprocal use of resources. The absence of partnerships among professional teams entails a scarce consideration of the benefits of their own academic support. Thus, the acknowledgement of their approaches, moving around the following three stages, needs to be emphasized:

- The goals of professional teams of schools are excessively distanced from the aims of professional teams of socio-educational support organizations. Both institutions disagree, the few initiatives that seek for interconnection are exceptional, academic support does not receive recognition, adverse reactions to demands for collaboration spread and the links that actually take place happen in certain or informal conversations (Huang et al., 2008).
- There is mutual and complementary understanding regarding collaboration agreements between the professional teams of both institutions. Coordination and functional support, as well as relationships, are instrumental and mediated by shared tools aligned with

educational programming. The simultaneous operation involves valid effects for learnings (Afterschool Alliance, 2014 & 2013).

- There is an identification of common and shared goals that, preceded by a mutual recognition, pursues a constant and lasting strategic partnership. Schools and socio-educational support organizations are allies, co-responsible for academic success, and they are based on an educational community project that goes beyond educational perspectives (Jordan, 2014; Gonzales, Gunderson & Wold, 2013; Schamper, 2012). These approaches are coherent with Full-Time Education.

Thus, coordination among institutions must enable partnerships and networking, (Stelow & Martínez, 2013; Harris et al., 2010), as well as a greater awareness and analysis of reality, the chances for the development of educational participation (Muñoz, 2012 & 2019) and the ability for community promotion and transformation. This group of elements have a positive effect in learning processes, being some of the benefits from coordination (FEDAIA, 2016; Stelow & Martínez, 2013; Schamper, 2012; XCO, 2011). For this to happen, trust and support among the members of professional teams are needed, an organizational framework for the planning of actions and role assignment. For this reason, networking is displayed as a useful tool for inter-institutional cooperation, supporting synergies in open and diversified environments (Suárez & Muñoz, 2017), setting specific actions during the school year and embracing critical and reflective pedagogy and self-assessment among their participants (Jordan, 2014; Comellas, 2010). For instance: common working plans, pedagogical agreements, or joint meetings among teachers, families and educators.

Lastly, we should highlight that the evaluation of processes and actions of academic support reflects the achievement of the pursued results and its impact on the student body (Afterschool Alliance, 2015 & 2014). It has been demonstrated that efficient partnerships consistent with what we have said so far contribute to the enhancement of academic performance of the most vulnerable students: they acquire a greater autonomy regarding learning, they are more persistent in the educational system and they mature socio-emotionally (Vandell, 2014; Chang & Jordan, 2013). Likewise, they intensify their social and cultural engagement in their community (Leos-Urbel, 2015; O'Hare et al., 2015). Nonetheless, the evaluation should not be left unattended, given that the assessment of the effects of academic support is

a necessity and a current challenge (Palmer, Anderson & Sabatelli, 2009). As a consequence, it is advisable to perform a deep immersion for the purpose of improving the very quality of coordination and academic support (AIR, 2015; Leos-Urbel, 2015; Vandell, 2013).

3. Objectives and study methodology

The main target of the present study is to identify the favorable conditions for the configuration of partnerships between schools and socio-educational support organizations through strategies with a positive impact on academic support.

For this reason, a reference framework regarding full-time education has been conducted, as well as an identification of the positive and negative conditioning factors for the configuration of such partnerships. In particular, these factors, considered as dimensions to study which structure the outcome of this research, are: A) the quality of the academic support, B) the vision of the professional teams, C) the coordination among institutions and D) the evaluation of processes.

The tackled methodology, which provides a context for the study, is approached using a qualitative paradigm; the field work has been conducted in Spain, mainly in Catalonia (Ripollet, Cerdanyola del Vallès, Barcelona, Santa Coloma de Gramenet, Zaragoza, Madrid, Sant Boi de Llobregat and Tenerife) and USA (California, San Francisco, San Jose and Palo Alto). Specifically, we have performed two sequential stages: the first happened in USA during 2015 and the second in Spain during the 2017/2018 school year. The former was developed by the investigation "The recognition of cultural diversity in schools in California and Catalonia through collaboration with community education projects", funded by the "Consortium for Advanced Studies Abroad Barcelona. CASB Fellowship". The contexts have been addressed through the inquiry in socio-educational support organizations with relevant experiences regarding academic support and collaborations with schools.

As a triangulation strategy, we analyzed experiences of shared work between schools and academic support organizations, even when they were not necessarily located in the perspective of full-time education.

For that purpose, we conducted a convenience sample (McMillan & Shummacher, 2001) from a non-probability sampling method using criteria of accessibility and representation, paying attention to the following features:

- From the perspective of population, organizations are located in local contexts with a

significant presence of foreign people (more than 15% of foreign population regarding the total of registered population).

- Regarding the student body, organizations host participants who show high rates of socio-cultural diversity (more than 25% belong to cultural minorities).
- In reference to educational complexities, local contexts where organizations are located present environments where the students require specific academic support needs, as seen in the different accreditation between foreign and native students.
- Regarding social complexities, the sample is located in contexts displaying risk indicators: families with a low level of education; low employment opportunities or high rates of newly-arrived students (AfterSchoolAlliance, 2013; Departamento de Enseñanza, 2014).
- From the point of view of their educational project, the selected organizations incorporate:
 - o Experience and sedimentation in the development of educational programs aimed to provide academic support to disadvantaged minorities. These organizations have been operating successfully for more than 8 years.
 - o Their target is to encourage community dimension in the educational approaches.
 - o Breadth, given that educational projects combine both academic and personal aspects of their participants.
 - o Innovation, since they provide updates on the subject of study undertaken.

This way, the organizations compiled in the sample are 16 (Table 1). The tools implemented in the data collection were designed based on methodological considerations by Tójar Hurtado (2006) and Kvale (1996). Particularly, in the first stage, 11 semi-structured interviews were conducted (6 in California and 5 in Catalonia) and 3 discussion groups were organized for the final comparison of the outcome. Subsequently, in a second phase, we use as a triangulation strategy the comparison of the first results with the outcome provided by the analysis of 4 good practices conducted in Spain, having applied telephone interviews. Likewise, we consider good practices as those experiences guided by coherent standards which enable educational partnerships based on the chosen conceptualization (quality, visions, coordination and evaluation). For selection purposes, we applied different criteria: breadth (given the extent of the experience and target population), sedimentation (since they have been conducted for a period of time and have been developed successfully) or innovation (given the updates provided to the subject of study undertaken).

The following table (Table 1) displays the relation between the general profile of the professionals participating in the study and the place where their organizations are located, considering the following code: AP (after-school program), DG (discussion group), I (interview) and GP (good practice). It can be said that the commitment with the study participants will be embodied by socializing this paper once it has been published.

Table 1. Organizations participating in the study.

PROFILE	PLACE	CODE
Manager	San Jose	AP1
Director	San Francisco	AP2
Executive director	San Francisco	AP3
Coordinator	San Francisco	AP4
Director	Palo Alto	AP5
Director	Palo Alto	AP6
Coordinator	Palo Alto	AP7
Director	Ripollet	I1
Pedagogue	Ripollet - Cerdanyola del Vallès	I2

PROFILE	PLACE	CODE
Social Educator	Santa Coloma de Gramenet	I3
Social Educator	Barcelona	I4
Social Educator	Barcelona	I5
Program coordinator	Zaragoza	GP1
Program coordinators	Madrid	GP2
Program coordinator	Sant Boi de Llobregat	GP3
Program coordinator	Tenerife	GP4
Source: Own elaboration.		

Finally, we stress the following elements as relevant for the description of the good practices that were chosen:

- GP1: it acts upon the principles of academic support for more than 300 participants and 50 schools. This organization considers the promotion of partnerships as a key factor for social projection.
- GP2: for 10 years now it has been fostering academic support and youth participation actions for 300 individuals. The main focus for this organization is the construction of social and community structures.
- GP3: since 1985, it offers support for more than 100 youngsters from 12 different schools, standing out because of its ability for networking and the materialization of partnerships with schools. It focuses on community work and academic support programs with the aim of preventing early school leaving. It is committed to networking and partnerships with schools, social services, families and young individuals, where quality is key for individual accompaniment.
- GP4: this organization promotes a specific project of reduction of scholar absenteeism which supported 150 individuals and offered successful outcome in a short time. It worked with 8 primary and secondary schools in 8 island cities located in isolated areas. The support offered enables a close coordination between homework and school time.

As a methodological justification, it should be noted that the designed and implemented instrumentalization has considered interviews and discussions. Both tools were validated by 8 judges who have acted as theoretical experts (4) and practical experts (4), agreeing in the uniqueness, significance and suitability of the raised

questions. The selection of good practices for the triangulation of the instrumentalization along with semi-structured interviews and discussion groups has considered the criteria of recognized processes, enhancement, satisfaction and evaluation (Zabalza, 2012). The information gathered for the analysis of the good practices has been collected through telephone interviews as a consequence for the budgetary constraints for face-to-face interviews. Telephone interviews were based on a semi-structured questionnaire focused on the dimensions of the quality of the academic support, the visions of the professional teams, the coordination among institutions and the evaluation of processes and actions.

The analysis of the outcome has been conducted through the compilation of coincidences, divergences, assessments and discussions for the different objects of study.

4. Results

The results are grouped below according to the quality of the academic support, the mutual visions of the professional teams, the coordination among institutions and the evaluation of processes and actions of academic support.

1.1. The good practices

The **quality of the support** for GP1 derived from the weekly and regular work of participants in small groups (primary school, 4 days a week/1h and secondary school, 2 days a week/2h). The intention is to achieve suitable curricular level in every case, starting from personal goals. For this reason, the families are involved in a process of information, and sometimes there are supporting volunteers.

In the GP3 the focus is on academic and personal learnings in a linked way as well as on

leisure. Regarding organization, it is considered that a greater comprehension and deepening of the educational process leads to a greater impact of students on realms as the development of their study skills and autonomy. The targets are tailored to each specific situation, pursuing proactivity of the participants in the academic work. The reinforcement happens within the group applying methodologies as service-learning.

As seen in the GP3, we find that GP2 specifically tackles contents in the school environment, but considering learning from a global vision: from the social, educational and psycho-emotional dimensions concurrently. The learning basis is established in a very personalized way, enabling participants to a better understanding of the extent of the educational process. A personal bond is created, and it often happens that when the support period is over students remain in the space in order to establish personal relationships or demand emotional support. This way, support is understood as a comprehensive work.

Regarding the **visions of professional teams** (school and support organization), every partnership assessed overcame the excessive distance and maintained a broad, mutual and complementary understanding according to collaborative arrangements. While GP1 generally establishes an occasional coordination and relations are instrumental and mediated by shared tools aligned with educational programming, in GP2, GP3 and GP4 an identification of common and shared goals happens, moving towards a strategic partnership that can last and understand socio-educational support in the framework of an educational and community project beyond schools.

Coordination is key to the quality of partnerships that take place in the context of academic support. The assessment of theoretical elements conforming a good practice regarding coordination shows that the organizations studied are rated an average of 8 points in the global index of quality of this coordination: community dynamization (7), community transformation (6,8), impact of the learning processes (8,8), acquisition of confidence (8,8), help among professional teams (8,8), organization of planning of actions and role assignment (8,3), fixing of specific actions during the school year (8,3), critical reflections (7), explorations of interests (7,5) and self-assessments (7,8). Coordination is a priority for a profitable educational reinforcement, given that it enables a better understanding of actions in educational and non-educational contexts and perform a common work line, even though educational institutions are often the most adapted to the requirements of schools. The common work line typically aims to overcome difficulties of minors in

the curricular, behavioral and social spheres, noticing an enhancement of school results, a reduction of disruptive behavior and the promotion of social relations.

Processes of coordination highlight the importance of the involvement of every educational actor, and this is why it is worth focusing on different contexts, visions and support actions on youth. The work with families, for instance, is more intense and has a positive effect on schools. According to the developed project, each partnership deepens in actions of presential/non-presential and regular/occasional coordination, but always in a systematic manner. In the same way, it becomes clear that partnerships demand team work among the professionals, who can then share their knowledge. When partnerships consolidate, there is a predisposition and needs are expressed, and limitations such as the lack of time, the absence of financing or the strain of resources are overcome. However, there are other difficulties for coordination associated with teachers outside school. Another adverse factor is their professional instability or weak relation with some community services. The visions are shared, more or less, in the community dynamization and transformation, given that praxis is isolated and unlike. Undoubtedly, this is a point of interest since coordination demands contextualization and continuity.

Lastly, regarding **evaluation processes**, it is possible to notice the different degree where processes and actions of school support are evaluated. Participants globally rate with 8 points the evaluation processes (Table 2). Specifically: learning autonomy (7,8), persistence in the educational system (7,8), improvement of qualifications (7,8), enhancement of behavior (8,3), socio-emotional growth (9), socio-cultural and community engagement (7,7) and existence of subsequent mechanisms to influence in educational contexts and better the intervention of academic support (6,5). GP1, being consistent with the concept of educational success and shared vision, does not specifically assess socio-cultural participation and underestimates subsequent mechanisms to affect educational contexts and better the intervention of the academic support available. In reference to GP2, the improvement of grades is an element of tension when related to some schools, the reason being that educational organization adds more value to motivation of young people and their achievements regarding autonomy, in contrast to schools, which are mainly concerned about cognitive improvement. Similarly, child and teenager behaviors tend to better outside schools, which offers opportunities for its analysis in relation to the improvement of academic success.

Table 2 displays the average of numerical evaluations that interviewees offered to the different theoretical elements considered for analysis. The core theoretical elements are assessed discursively through a battery of semi-structured questions. Moreover, in reference to coordination and evaluation assessment, a battery of key indicators

was established, and each organization quantified them between 0 and 10, considering 0 as absence of the indicator in the practice of educational partnership and 10 as the maximum possible presence of the indicator. In order to globally envision the existence of every aspect in the common work of organizations, an average was calculated:

Table 2. Average of numerical evaluations according to theoretical elements considered for analysis

DIMENSION OF ANALYSIS	ELEMENTS OF ANALYSIS	AVERAGE
COORDINATION	(1) Community dynamization	7
	(2) Community transformation	6.8
	(3) Impact on learning processes	8.8
	(4) Acquisition of confidence	8.8
	(5) Help among professional teams	8.8
	(6) Organisational framework for the planning of actions and role assignment	8.3
	(7) Fixing of specific actions during the school year	8.3
	(8) Critical reflections	7
	(9) Explorations of interests	7.5
	(10) Self-assessments	7.8
PROCESS OF EVALUATION	(1) Learning autonomy	7.8
	(2) Persistence in the educational system	7.8
	(3) Improvement of qualifications	7.8
	(4) Enhancement of behavior	8.3
	(5) Socio-emotional growth	9
	(6) Social and cultural engagement in the community	7.7
	(7) Existence of subsequent mechanisms to influence in educational contexts of institutinos in partnerships that enhance the intervention of academic support	6.5
Source: Own elaboration.		

4.2. The voices of the main figures

The outcome obtained by the interviews and discussion groups are shown below.

The organizations interviewed consider that the **quality of the support** that they offer to participants is a conditioning factor for the success in their actions. According to them, quality is determined by the relations among professionals in

the same organization and in other institutions. As a whole, partnerships are associated to the sum of efforts, to a better understanding of the realities of participants, to a greater capacity to attend educational needs and higher rates of educational quality. Likewise, the quality of support consists in a general intervention in every scope of action: school, family, society, emotions, etc.

Still, schools, along with educational organizations out of formal education, are a significant academic tool for the education of children and young people, developing their learning and generating knowledge, as well as meeting cultural, social and emotional needs (I1)

To achieve success in this general intervention, organizations also need the engagement of families. For that purpose, they are willing to include them as part of their organizational context, setting an open space for voluntary participation.

Extracurricular activities are an opportunity to integrate all the associative network within schools, promoting involvement where families also participate (I4).

We cannot work with young people without working with families (AP2).

Another factor considered relevant by organizations in order to establish partnerships is located in the sphere of visions among professionals. There are cases when they are negative, failing to acknowledge the contributions of the services offered. These visions coexist with others that are biased and attributed to the lack of relation, having as an effect the disregard of the tasks of the respective teams. In turn, the organizations consulted assert that the recognition received by schools regarding the competences of professionals is largely determined by the establishment of inter-institutional partnerships.

Our dream and goal is the recognition of the work that we do, proving to faculties that we can help with our projects and give continuity to the work that is performed in schools (I4).

The vision of schools is that we are merely another service instead of considering us partners, working independently, so this is why we barely interrelate (AP1).

Most of the organizations analyzed explain that **visions**, and the consequent mutual appreciation among institutions, are affected by the absence of coordination. This way, the lack of awareness about the importance of performing good practices for exchange (knowledge, experiences, resources, etc.) leads to biased visions about the respective action areas.

Teachers are still focused on participants during instruction time and think that what happens after school does not affect them (AP4).

Besides, organizations claim that a greater predisposition of schools would ease consensus and coordinated work. In reference to that, they consider and generalize that teachers have an educational vision restricted to school time, which hampers the continuity and integration of actions between both institutions.

Sometimes schools do not understand our contribution (DG2).

Regarding **coordination among institutions**, the organizations consulted agreed on perform three face-to-face meetings within the school, usually with tutors or support staff. These meetings are mainly destined to two measures: exchange of information among professionals and action plan in the short term.

We keep in touch with schools once every three months, and we share experiences and work, and tutors point out the things that we have to encourage, modalities of action and problems that have been raised (I2).

For the meetings, organizations often use mechanisms to promote coordination, such as tools destined to data collection and/or socialization of information or educational knowledge.

We have created a simple rubric with all our academic lessons which are based on collaboration with the school. This is the only information that we share, and it is my job to share this (AP6).

During this course we used a tool for coordination so that both organizations could know what do we want to work with and, consequently, find shared goals (I5).

Some organizations came up with the idea of the “coordinator”, a figure of reference in the school, whose aim is to ease joint work among institutions. Likewise, it should be stated that the concept that each organization has about coordination affects its development. For instance, some of the professional consulted assert that, in general, schools consider coordination as a simple exchange of information, claiming that it is not always bidirectional and that the involvement of institutions is uneven. In all cases, organizations claim to be responsible for promoting and ensuring coordination.

One of the main problems relates to coordination. We still do not know how to coordinate, and we end up with a mere transfer of information. These educational projects are fragmented, and this is the reason why the outcome is not what we expected (I3).

In most of cases, the professional who belongs to the socio-educational organization is the one who should initiate the coordination and adapt to the dynamics of the school (DG1).

Other obstacle identified relate to the need of resources for a better action, the lack of communication protocols that can facilitate the contact among institutions and the schedule misalignments that impair coordination. At this point, organizations are resigned to adapt to school time.

In the absence of a moment to meet, the construction of rubrics to share information can be very helpful (DG1).

We had to be flexible regarding schedules and adapt to school realities (I3).

Focusing on professionals, several obstacles for an effective coordination among institutions are identified. On the one hand, recruitment conditions of the professionals of socio-educational organizations, given that they are often hired with a part-time contract and/or for a limited period of time. On the other, the lack of training may be the key for educators to deal with the different challenges that coordination implies.

It is even harder for us when we offer part-time jobs. Many times it is a revolving door for young university students who do not have much experience and spend one or two years learning with us (AP3).

Finally, regarding **evaluation processes**, organizations recognize that the evaluations are performed, but they generally bring a low vision of

the outcome that the support provides. In view of this situation, educational teams demand external support to conduct longitudinal assessments geared towards measuring and making visible the impact that is actually generated.

I would suggest you to help us find a support model from a research point of view. We need external support that can provide indicators for impact measurement (I3).

We do not have the tools to offer evidence of the work that we are performing (AP3).

These demands tend to bring a perception of difficulties in the design and implementation of educational evaluation. In this regard, organizations place value on the need of creating space of reflection among professionals in order to decide and define the same evaluation. Moreover, they consider that their actions and procedures must also be assessed in order to identify mutual action areas. However, they acknowledge difficulties to create such spaces due to the pace of work.

I think that first and foremost we should reflect on our responsibility and what we are doing and what we are not. We should identify our goals and be realistic in order to know what we are doing so that we can actually make it. I think that is the first step. We need to look at each other and say what we are doing to finally interrelate (DG2).

Lastly, we present the following table displaying the main coincidences found in the two different backgrounds used in the study.

Table 3. Main coincidences between both contexts	
NORTH AMERICA	SPAIN
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• The quality of academic support is largely determined by the relationships among professionals.• The quality of academic support implies an intervention from the different action areas (school, family, society, emotions, etc.).• Organizations recognize that they need family engagement.• Organizations feel that schools do not place value on their significance and their contributions.• Organizations consider that teachers have a limited vision that is restricted to school time.• Coordination is established in occasional meetings.• Coordination is based on the exchange of information and the action plan in the short term.• Organizations feel that they are responsible for the promotion of coordination.• There are schedule misalignments impairing coordination.• There is a lack of agreement regarding what should be assessed and how should this evaluation happen.	
Source: Own elaboration.	

5. Discussion and conclusions

The establishment of partnerships between schools and socio-educational support organizations demands a shared responsibility for academic success. Partnerships between institutions and professionals require work dynamics and processes built from coordination. Nonetheless, it has been shown that their design and development are conditioned by several interconnected factors: the quality of academic support, the visions of professional teams, the coordination among institutions and the evaluations of processes and actions.

For that matter, it should be noted that we did not find meaningful differences between the two contexts targeted in the study due to the similarities in both environments and their specific features. However, the interest placed in both settings enabled the assertion that the situation of socio-educational organizations, and particularly partnerships with schools, is similar regarding the following elements: the quality of academic support is related to schools through stable bonds, the visions among the respective professional teams are linked to the recognition of professional competences, coordination is promoted by socio-educational organizations, and evaluation is focused on academic results.

The organizations that found difficulties to consolidate partnerships consider that the quality of the support can be measured mostly through the ability to generate stable bonds between their educational team and the educational team of schools. In contrast, the organizations that have already established a more stable partnership framework (GP) place less important elements around quality, giving more importance to pedagogical aspects; for instance, personalization of learning or methodological diversification. What both scenarios have in common is that the bond between organizations and participants ensures quality, and that if the service offered is a mere academic monitoring then it is not considered a quality attention. Additionally, there is consensus in the incorporation of families to the educational relation, given that they have been recognized as key actors for the socialization of educational and personal knowledge (Dikkers, 2013; Shernoff, 2010; Metz, Goldsmith & Arbretton, 2008).

For all that, the quality for organizations implies the full and shared knowledge of the realities of every participant and, consequently, of their social, economic and family needs. Besides, schools and organizations conduct a global and integrated intervention precisely from this approach.

Mutual visions between the professional teams of both institutions are configured as a relevant factor for the establishment of inter-institutional partnerships. A positive vision between teams is related to the recognition of the respective professional competences and, consequently, their intervention areas. When the contributions of the work performed by other institution are acknowledged, a better chance for the posterior development of partnerships takes place. At the same time, the establishment of relations facilitates the awareness of the importance of coordinated work and, as a consequence, of positive visions. However, the absence of relations generates negative visions based on the ignorance and prejudices that lead to professional superiority stances. Conversely, the configuration of solid partnerships, as it is the case of the good practices analyzed, is based on mutual comprehension and community work (Jordan, 2014; Gonzales, Gunderson & Wold, 2013; Schamper, 2012).

The study conducted shows that socio-educational support organizations are proactive in performing and ensuring coordination with schools: they have moments, tools and figures for coordination. However, there are different types of coordination according to the intended functionality criteria. On the one hand, coordination on the basis of compensation seeks to overcome the difficulties of the participants through academic support with no need for agreements or shared strategies. This type of coordination is based on the exchange of information and it takes place in most cases from a pedagogical discontinuity logic: there is no connection between curricular and extra-curricular contents and goals. On the other hand, coordination as the basis for the construction of knowledge is born when needs and targets are shared, based on agreements and shared knowledge, pursuing the creation and systematization of solid partnerships among institutions.

Finally, it should be noted that the evaluation of processes and actions emerges as the dimension which demands more work. All organizations, even those featuring the most stable partnerships established with schools, need help to gather more and better evidence on the different areas of intervention. Specifically, the evaluation tends to focus on academic results of the participants without considering personal and social indicators (Vandell, 2014; Chang & Jordan, 2013). Besides, this evaluation only focuses on participants, and professional performance and collaborative process are left behind. Moreover, both elements are key for the establishment of partnerships. Thus, the priority is to determine and identify the meaning, the type and the evaluation mechanisms

regarding academic support. There is a need for a strong and mutual commitment in order to achieve efficient and successful partnerships to promote and develop them. Working together does not only mean a meeting and formalization of what has been agreed, which is of course a part of the process, but not the most relevant part. Building partnerships implies the consideration of the other, the agreement on the intervention criteria and specifically, concrete action conducted collectively and coordinately, recognizing plurality and diversity.

It is necessary that partnerships between schools and socio-educational support organizations gradually gain more institutional prominence, especially in complex social environments, also from a dimension of educational community and beyond the establishment of concrete relations in particular cases (Gairín & San Fabián, 2005). With the aim of articulating these partnerships and grasping the opportunities, often ignored by schools, it is convenient to place value on experiences as “community schools”. This kind of approaches prove the suitability of establishing partnerships and formal/informal relations,

as a tool for the construction of an educational community. For that purpose, professional teams must show wider attitudes based on integration with the environment (Martín, 2000). The actual challenge is to shape a framework of cooperative relations among socio-educational institutions and educational resources of each context.

Lastly, it is worth noting that the limitations of the study have to do with the size and complexity of the topic of the investigation and the representativeness of the respondents of the sample which limit the generalization of results, as well as difficulties encountered when transferring the outcome obtained to other situations or contexts. All this should enable the adjustment of the meaning of the results, even when we can consider that the outcome is not significantly modified. To this regard, further studies on this topic could be guided towards segregating schooling as a consequence for the lack of cooperation between schools and socio-educational support teams; what's more, towards the overcome of resistance to cooperation between organizations and schools for the achievement of the construction of academic success in contexts of complexity and socio-cultural diversity.

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DETECTION OF NEEDS IN THE LINES OF WORK OF THIRD SECTOR ENTITIES FOR UNEMPLOYED WOMEN IN SITUATIONS OF SOCIAL EXCLUSION

DETECCIÓN DE NECESIDADES EN LAS LÍNEAS DE TRABAJO DE ENTIDADES DEL TERCER SECTOR PARA MUJERES DESEMPLEADAS EN SITUACIÓN DE EXCLUSIÓN SOCIAL

DETECÇÃO DE NECESSIDADES NAS LINHAS DE TRABALHO DE ENTIDADES DO TERCEIRO SECTOR PARA MULHERES DESEMPREGADAS EM SITUAÇÕES DE EXCLUSÃO SOCIAL

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ABSTRACT: The objective of the study was to obtain and analyse information on the lines of socio-labour work of third sector entities that worked with women in situations of social exclusion, especially due to unemployment. The research was carried out in the city of Valladolid (Spain) in 2017. The qualitative method used was phenomenological in nature and the semi-structured interview was used as a data collection technique. The participants chosen by snowball were nine associations of the Third Sector. Through the analysis of classical content and with the help of the CAQDAS Nvivo 12 the most relevant appreciations were categorized and coded. The main result obtained is that, despite the great efforts made by some of the entities to work in the socio-labour line, users continue to present emerging needs that must be responded to in order to achieve real and integral empowerment. In conclusion, it should be noted that the lack of social and labor orientation on the part of other entities reveals the need to invest greater resources in the line of work from the Third Sector, since there is a high level of unemployed users, with low employability and deficit of skills and management capacity of the employment portals. It is necessary to promote labour intermediation, the work of new technologies for job search and the taking of measures to reconcile family and work.

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<p>PALABRAS CLAVE: Oportunidades de empleo educación laboral mujeres desempleadas desempleo igualdad de oportunidades</p>	<p>RESUMEN: El objetivo del estudio fue obtener y analizar información sobre las líneas de trabajo sociolaboral de las entidades del Tercer Sector que trabajaban con mujeres en situación de exclusión social, especialmente por situación de desempleo. La investigación se llevó a cabo en la ciudad de Valladolid (España) en el año 2017. El método cualitativo empleado fue de corte fenomenológico y como técnica de recogida de información se empleó la entrevista semiestructurada. Los participantes elegidos por bola de nieve fueron nueve asociaciones del Tercer Sector. A través del análisis de contenido clásico y con ayuda del CAQDAS Nvivo 12 se categorizaron y codificaron las apreciaciones más relevantes. El principal resultado obtenido es que, pese a los grandes esfuerzos por parte de algunas de las entidades por trabajar la línea sociolaboral, las usuarias siguen presentando necesidades emergentes que han de ser respondidas para poder alcanzar el empoderamiento real e integral. A modo de conclusión hay que señalar que, la carencia de orientación sociolaboral por parte de otras de las entidades revela la necesidad de invertir mayores recursos en la línea de trabajo laboral desde el Tercer Sector, ya que existe un alto nivel de personas usuarias desempleadas, con baja empleabilidad y déficit de habilidades y capacidad de manejo de los portales de empleo. Es preciso propulsar la intermediación laboral, el trabajo de las nuevas tecnologías para la búsqueda de empleo y la toma de medidas para la conciliación familiar y laboral.</p>
<p>PALAVRAS-CHAVE: Oportunidades de emprego educação para o trabalho mulheres desempregadas desemprego, igualdade de oportunidades</p>	<p>RESUMO: O objectivo do estudo foi obter e analisar informação sobre as linhas de trabalho sócio-laboral das entidades do terceiro sector que trabalharam com mulheres em situações de exclusão social, especialmente devido ao desemprego. A pesquisa foi realizada na cidade de Valladolid (Espanha) em 2017. O método qualitativo utilizado foi de natureza fenomenológica e a entrevista semiestruturada foi utilizada como técnica de coleta de dados. Os participantes escolhidos pela bola de neve foram nove associações do Terceiro Setor. Através da análise do conteúdo clássico e com a ajuda do CAQDAS Nvivo 12 as apreciações mais relevantes foram categorizadas e codificadas. O principal resultado obtido é que, apesar dos grandes esforços feitos por algumas das entidades para trabalhar na linha sócio-laboral, os usuários continuam a apresentar necessidades emergentes que devem ser respondidas a fim de alcançar o empoderamento real e integral. Em conclusão, deve notar-se que a falta de orientação social e laboral por parte de outras entidades revela a necessidade de investir maiores recursos na linha de trabalho do Terceiro Sector, uma vez que existe um elevado nível de utentes desempregados, com baixa empregabilidade e défice de competências e capacidade de gestão dos portais de emprego. É necessário promover a intermediação laboral, o trabalho de novas tecnologias para a procura de emprego e a tomada de medidas para conciliar a família e o trabalho.</p>

1. Introduction

The topic studied in the work starts from the effects that are generated in the life of a person being in a situation of unemployment, and especially, in a prolonged situation, and of how this reality affects especially to the woman because of its later incorporation to the labour market and to the gender stereotypes, that, among other things, can come to produce parallel phenomena to the breach of gender in the labour scope.

The socio-labour orientation plays a particularly important role when all european countries have been affected by the economic crisis, and its adverse consequences have been manifested in Spain, in terms of the worst in terms of job losses and unemployment (Eurostat, 2016; Extremera & Rey, 2016). In particular, in 2016, Spain had the second highest unemployment rate in the European Union after Greece (National Statistics Institute, 2016).

Some of the consequences of unemployment are the increase in the frequency of health problems, especially in relation to mental health (Buffel, Van De Straat, & Bracke, 2015), the increase

in alcohol consumption in some countries due to stress (Bosque-Prous, M., Espelt, A., Sordo, L., Guitart, A. M., Brugal, M. T., & Bravo, M. J., 2015), the growth of wage and other benefit cuts and increased poverty, widespread dismantling of the public sector (Bacigalupe, Esnaola, & Martin, 2016), greater incidence of disease and mortality among socioeconomically disadvantaged populations (Marmot, 2014), and worsening health inequalities (Bacigalupe & Escolar-Pujolar, 2014). The comparative study by Buffel, Van de Velde, & Bracke (2015) reveals how in Spain the increase in unemployment generated by the crisis has led to a development of depression, as well as suicidal thinking (Córdoba-Doña, San Sebastián, Escolar-Pujolar, Martínez-Faure, & Gustafsson, 2014). Mental health is affected by unemployment due to deteriorating self-esteem and pessimism about the future (Paul & Moser, 2009), and not only because of this, but also because of loss of income that makes it difficult to access different resources and healthy lifestyles (Schröder, 2013).

One of the social groups particularly affected by this problem has been women (Llinares-Insa, L. I., González-Navarro, P., Córdoba-Iñesta, A. I., &

Zacarés-González, J. J. , 2018). One of the causes of the latter is that women perceive themselves according to traditional gender stereotypes (Carter, 2014); among these stereotypes is the care of the home and the family, due to the lack of shared responsibility between men and women in Spanish households (del Río & Alonso-Villar, 2008). The past crisis has made both vertical and horizontal segregation visible, as well as the increase in the number of people, especially women, who are unemployed (OECD, 2018). In the third quarter of 2018 there were 3,326,000 unemployed people in Spain, compared to 19,528,000 active people; among this data, the unemployment rate in any of the months of the last year was higher for women compared to men, up to a difference of 3.5% more unemployment rate for women (National Statistics Institute, 2018).

To this must be added a risk factor. Some people have a job; however, this job is precarious as it does not satisfy their needs. This is the reality of a high rate of employed women (Laparra, Pérez, García, Iturbide, & Resaño, 2007).

Despite the social evolution following the incorporation of women into the labour market and the overcoming of the Spanish recession continues to show that the unemployment rate has historically been higher for women. This also means that women are a group at risk of social exclusion and may be exposed to a situation of special vulnerability (Vicente & Martínez, 2010).

Due to the existence of this reality and social situation, it was identified the need to carry out the study presented in this paper, in order to identify which were the actions carried out by social entities that provide their services to people in situations of vulnerability. It is well known that this type of community resources are used by people who are unemployed, among other conditions of risk and exclusion. Among these people are women, who, as can be seen in the literature and in the figures, are particularly affected by the unemployment situation. The aim of the study was to detect whether or not socio-labour orientation work was carried out for insertion and reintegration, as measures to alleviate and cushion the problem situation. To this aim, social entities were selected on the basis of their own characteristics.

1.1. Third Sector Entities

International organizations, States and NGOs, including Third Sector entities, develop intervention programs and actions to reduce the gender gap in the labour field and promote the improvement of employment conditions for both men and women,

in order to achieve equal opportunities and equal representation.

The Third Sector is led by NGOs, social intervention entities and associations, which carry out their activities in the service of citizens, without lucrative purposes (Gutiérrez Resa, 1997). All those associations and entities that attend to people in situations of special vulnerability, defend social causes and carry out work of awareness, prevention and intervention without economic goals, are the so-called Third Sector entities. These play an important role in the lives of citizens, since they providing services to counteract the effects of social exclusion (Pérez-Díaz & López-Novo, 2003), defending both individual and group social interests (de Lorenzo García & Cabra de Luna, 2003), carrying out awareness-raising work (Balas Lara, 2012, p. 42), and one way to apply these tasks is the implementation of social and labour orientation tasks, on which the focus of the study carried out falls.

Thus, Third Sector entities are especially important when exercising their tasks of developing employment guidance, since they are a service within the reach of the citizenry, allowing contact with the community for the effective search for employment. In this way, it is necessary to offer socio-labour guidance services to citizens from the Third Sector, in order to promote the acquisition of employability skills, which encourage opportunities towards the search for employment and the reduction of effects such as those described above. This will make it possible to promote representative equality and equal opportunities.

1.2. Other gender gaps in the labour field

Gender stereotypes have had an impact on inequality in the labour sector. Part of the gender gap is caused by phenomena known as *leaky pipeline*, a term explained by Zeng (2011), pointing out that women and minorities, especially people of colour, face barriers throughout their careers, and this implies that they are filtered out before reaching managerial positions; on the other hand, vertical segregation is related to the large representation of women in lower positions (Alkadry, Tower, & Tower, 2014). Along these lines, research by Brollo & Troiano (2012) and Bhalotra, ClotssFigueras, & Iyer (2013) reveal that women are unequally represented in positions of power, even though they generate profits during their legislature. Similarly, the *sticky floor* phenomenon explains the systematic ways in which women are denied the opportunity to promote from a lower position and there is a large wage gap between

each tier of wage distributions (Cotter, Hermesen, Ovadia, & Vanneman, 2001). Parallel to these phenomena is horizontal segregation, which refers to occupational segregation. This is especially true in the educational fields of science, technology, engineering and mathematics, which as Corbett & Hill (2015, p. 92) indicate: "Recruiting women will be truly successful only if women who start in engineering and computing stay in these fields". The research carried out by Verdugo-Castro, Sánchez-Gómez, & García-Holgado (2018) studies the latter form of discrimination on the grounds of gender stereotypes.

2. Objectives and research questions

The general objective of the study was to analyse the main lines of work, with special emphasis and detail of the line of socio-labour work, of the Third Sector entities of the city of Valladolid (Spain) in 2017, which worked with women in situations of social exclusion and/or risk of social exclusion.

The lines of work of an entity correspond to the roadmaps that are followed in the intervention after setting a final objective for the people perceiving the measures implemented. These lines of work in Third Sector entities can be: socio-labour, attention to basic needs, psychological, legal, skill-training, pre-work, occupational, socio-labour training and workshops, etc.

In order to achieve the general objective, two specific objectives were set. The first of them being to find out the predominant profile of the target women of the entities of the study; and the second being to detect if the socio-labour line of the entities was developed in a deficient manner, due to total or partial non-compliance with the programmed objectives. The programmed objectives to which reference is made were the obtaining of a job and the maintenance of the same.

Like research questions:

- Do the women in the study need more specialized socio-labour guidance to achieve integral empowerment?

The concept of "integral empowerment" responds to the development and achievement of autonomy in all spheres of a person's life. When speaking of a line of socio-labour work, attention is focused on the attainment of autonomy in decision-making, economic independence, satisfaction of needs by the person himself and, therefore, the benefits derived from these aspects. Socio-labour

orientation makes it possible to approach obtaining a job, which also has a positive impact on the different dimensions of the individual's life.

- Does the unemployment situation chronicle the social attention from the research entities?

The existence of a chronified social attention from different social entities is known. This phenomenon occurs when the objectives programmed to respond to a specific problem are not achieved. In the case of this research, reference is made to that social intervention that does not give rise totally or partially to adequate socio-labour intervention. When the need persists, it is channeled from other community resources, chronicling the attention from them.

These two questions are answered in the discussion of the paper.

3. Method

3.1. Participants

Nine entities from the Third Sector of Valladolid (Spain) took part in the study. In order to select the entities, a detailed and meticulous survey was carried out of the existing Third Sector associations in the aforementioned context, with the following inclusion criteria: social entities in the Third Sector, in the city of Valladolid, aimed at women in a situation and/or at risk of social exclusion, especially in a situation of unemployment. Following the survey and invitations, nine entities participated (hereinafter participants) out of the initial fourteen entities that met the inclusion criteria. The remaining five entities did not participate in the study, as they fulfilled the following exclusion criteria: not to direct their lines of work specifically to the attention of women within the subject studied.

The users of the entities in the study were mostly women, in some cases even 100% of the population served, with unemployment rates higher than 70%. Four of the entities worked with women who were 100% unemployed (P.4, P.6, P.7 and P.9). P.3 worked with women who in more than 90% of cases were unemployed. And at least P.2 and P.5 had 70% of the unemployed women. Figure 1 shows the main cause of the situation and/or risk of social exclusion of the persons attended from each association.

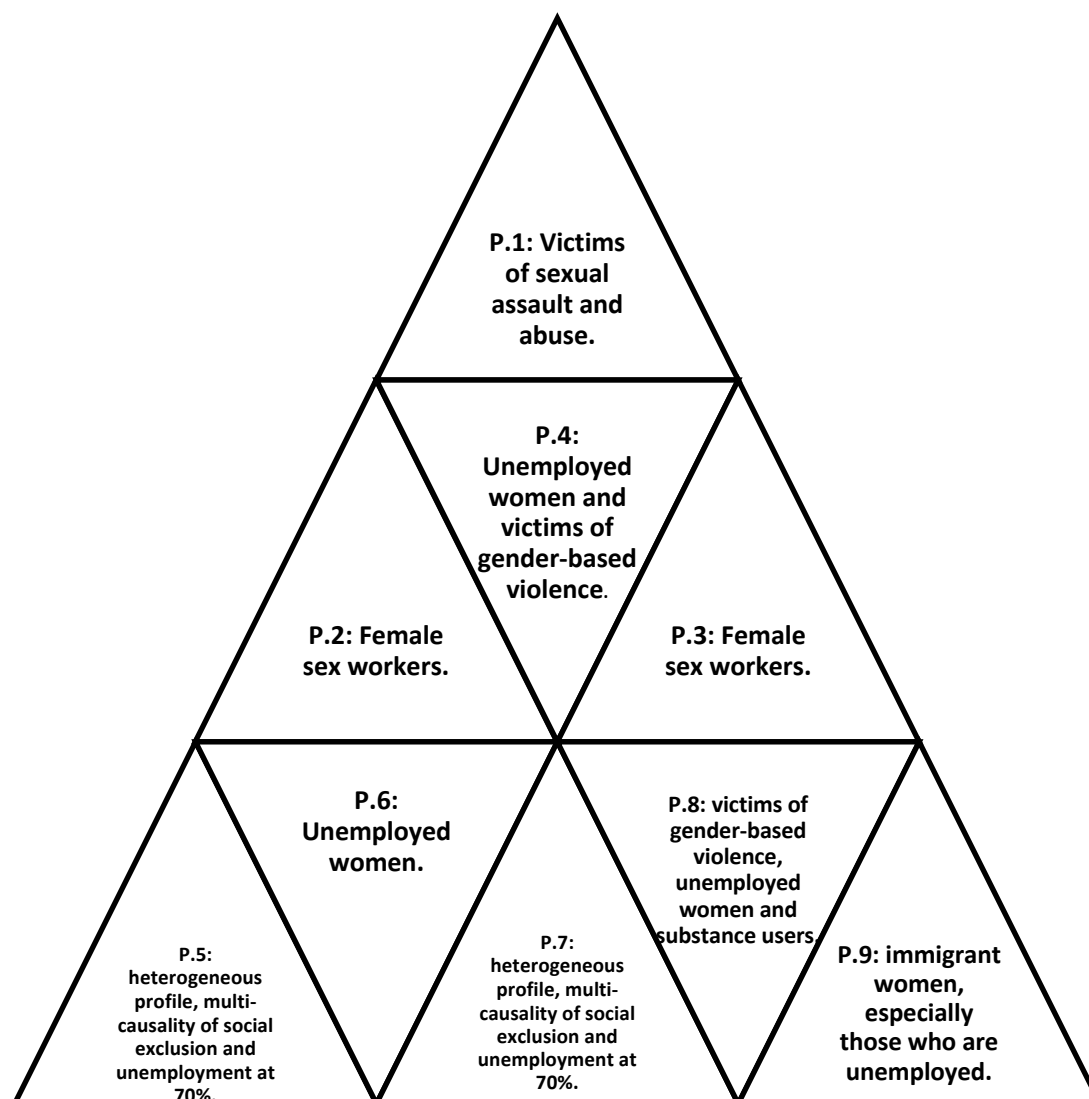


Figure 1. Situation of social exclusion and/or risk of the people attended from each association.
Source: Own elaboration.

Finally, from the sociodemographic data collected and analysed for the design of the predominant profile of women attended in the entities participating in the research, the predominant profile indicated in Figure 2 was identified. These

results respond to the first specific objective set, and the information was obtained by means of semi-structured interviews and the reports provided, where appropriate, from the centres.

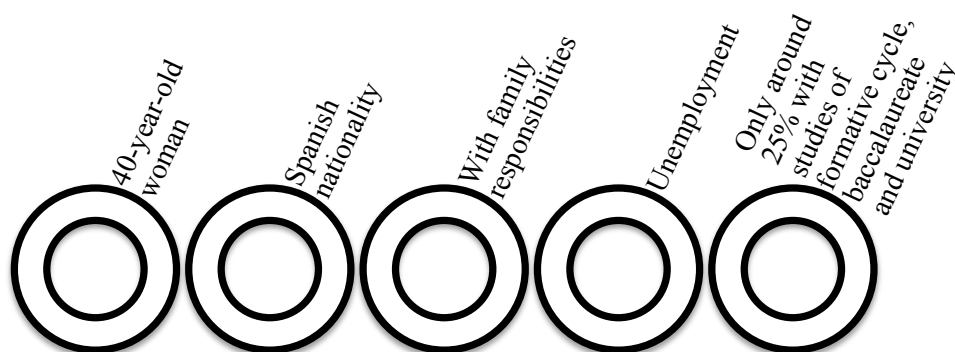


Figure 2. Profile of the woman attended in the study participants. Source: Own elaboration.

3.2. Methodological perspective

A qualitative methodology was used, with the aim of gathering information on the praxis of social intervention from the vision and experience of the workers who are part of the entities analysed. The process of collecting information and analysis was carried out in cascade; this process made it possible to adapt to the changes taking place in a dynamic social reality, subject to constant change. The phenomenological method was used, since the study itself and the analysis of the information emerged from the experiences and opinions of the workers of the participating entities (Anguera, 1999; Colás, 1994).

3.3. Information-gathering techniques

A semi-structured interview was used for the information gathering, which allowed the greatest possible content to be gathered from the individual discourse, favouring simplicity and freedom of expression. Information gathering was based on the snowball strategy.

Each worker in the participating entities was asked to consent to the voice recording of the session. The interviews were recorded in order to make their transcription easier and to have a record of the contents. The purpose of the semi-structured interviews was to get to know the development of the socio-labour line of intervention in the participating associations, as indicated in the general objective.

The qualitative dimensions addressed in the semi-structured interviews were as follows, in accordance with the literature and reviewed research described above:

- Main situations of exclusion and/or risk of social exclusion of women attended through the participating entities.
- Lines of work of the participating entities regarding the causes of exclusion and/or risk of social exclusion: approach and action strategies; socio-labour workshops for socio-labour insertion and reinsertion; motivational work, social and labour skills, labour intermediation of the entity and synergies and agreements with other entities and bodies.
- Professional profile of the workforce of the entities studied and interdisciplinarity of the workforce. This dimension allows us to know the socio-labour specialisation of the professionals who carry out the tasks of socio-labour orientation.

After the transcription of the semi-structured interviews, in the first phase of the qualitative analysis (establishment of categorization) the important ideas expressed were identified, the so-called categories (Delgado-Álvarez, Sánchez Gómez, & Fernández-Dávila Jara, 2012; Martín Cilleros & Sánchez Gómez, 2016). The speeches offered were analysed individually and then the analysis was executed in a global manner. To complete the analysis, the research was supported by physical material offered by the entities, such as databases and informative flyers of their lines of work.

3.4. Data analysis

It consisted of a classic data analysis of content, which configured the organizational structure of the information collected to detect the frequency and occurrence of words, to generate semantic analysis and analyse the issues addressed in the study and the relationship between them. The analysis of the different discourses collected involved a process of listening, reading, reflection, understanding, and interpretation (Conde, 1996). The process derived results on the lines of work of each participating entity, and it was possible to compare the discourse of the nine participants (Andréu Abela, 2000).

Finally, for data analysis, CAQDAS Nvivo 12 was used, which has allowed the transcription of data from audio format. The program has enabled the use of text analysis tools to extract exploratory results, such as searching for specific words and representing them using word trees and word clouds.

4. Results

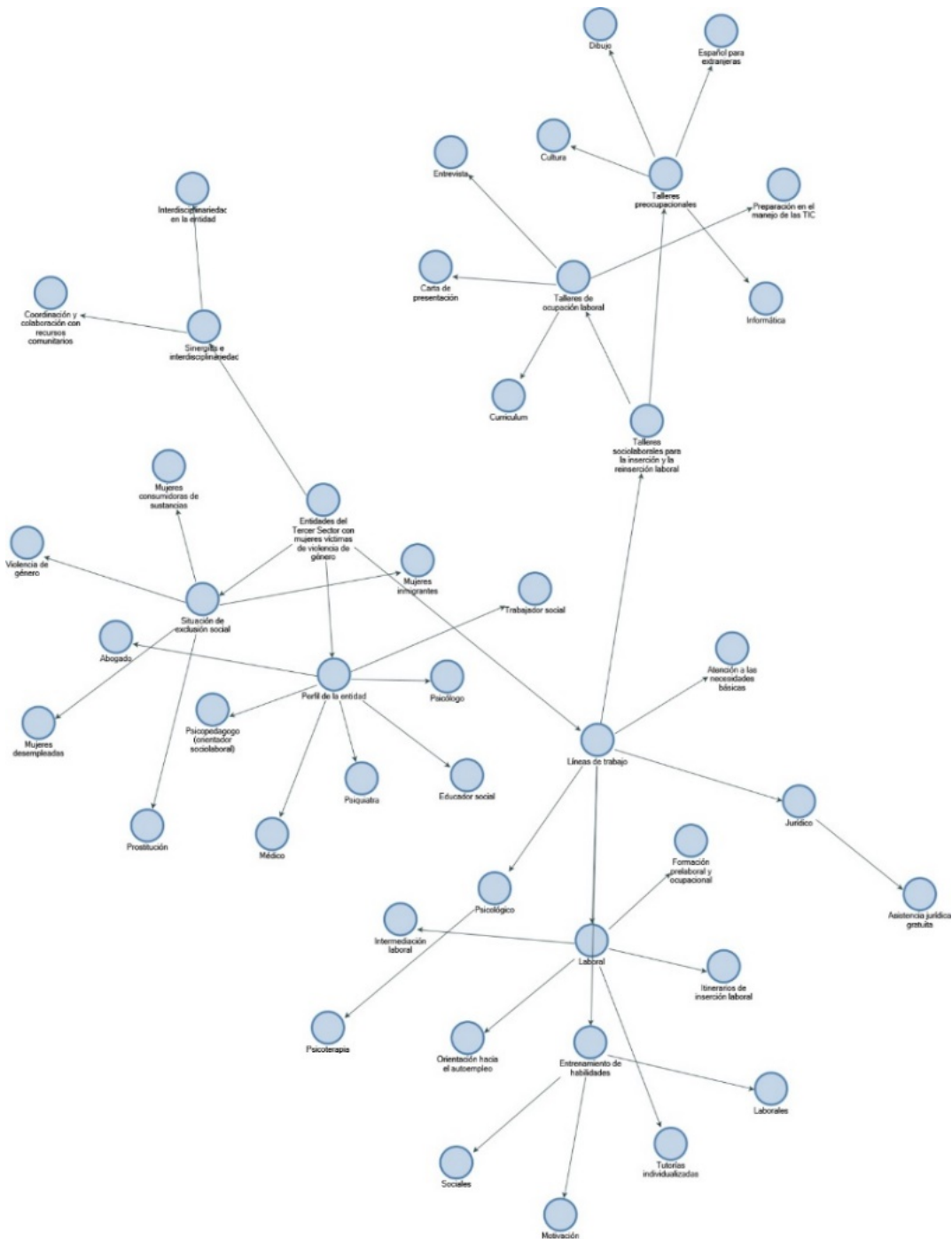
Mainly, and continuing with the subject, the dimensions investigated have been those related to the socio-labour line of the entities of the Third Sector, which will be addressed hereafter. The causes of vulnerability, the professional profile of the entity, synergies and agreements with the share capital, psychological and legal work for comprehensive assistance, and socio-demographic characteristics of the women attended have also been studied for context analysis.

Table 1 and Figure 3 show the map of the nodes analysed during the investigation, through content analysis through CAQDAS Nvivo12.

Table 1. Project nodes

Third Sector Entities	Lines of work	Attention to basic needs
		Skills training - Labour - Motivation - Social
		Legal - Free legal assistance
		Labour - Pre-employment and occupational training - Labour Intermediation - Labour insertion itineraries - Orientation towards self-employment - Individualized tutoring
		Psychological - Psychotherapy
		Socio-labour workshops for insertion and reinsertion into the labour market - Workshops on employment • Letter of presentation • Curriculum • Interview • Preparation in the use of ICTs - Preoccupational workshops • Culture • Drawing • Spanish for foreigners • Computers
	Profile of the entity	- Lawyer - Social Educator - Doctor - Psychologist - Socio-labour counsellor - Psychiatrist - Social Worker
	Synergies and interdisciplinarity	- Coordination and collaboration with community resources - Interdisciplinarity within the entity
	Situation of social exclusion	- Women who use substances - Unemployed women - Immigrant women - Prostitution - Gender-based violence

Source: Own elaboration through CAQDAS Nvivo 12.



The dendrogram in Figure 4 shows the relationship established between the different sources of information in relation to the coding

established in accordance with the content. In it two main ramifications that derive from the coding can be seen.

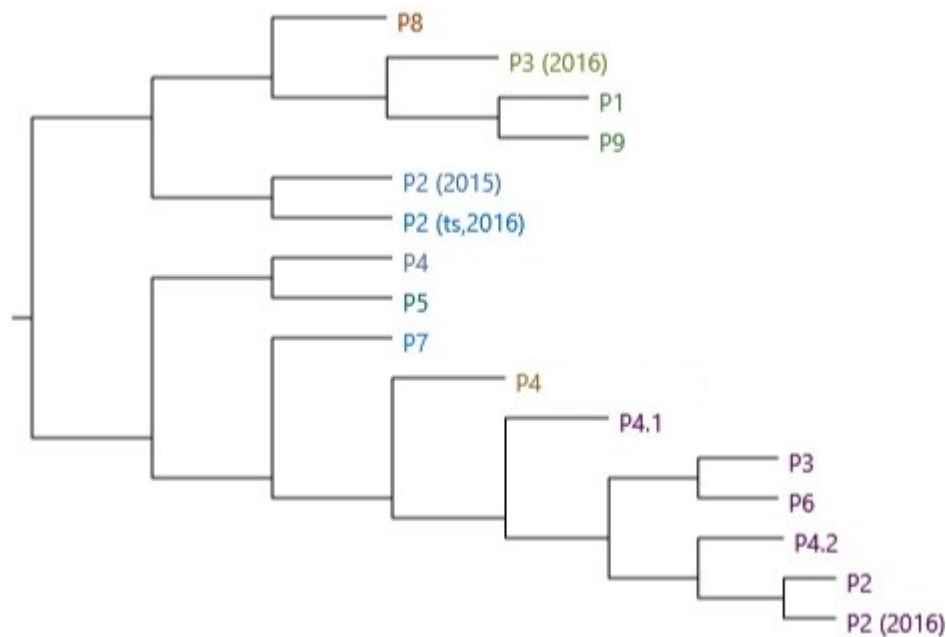


Figure 4. Dendrogram. Source: Own elaboration through CAQDAS Nvivo 12.

The main causes of social vulnerability in the life history of the women targeted by the participating entities are the situation of unemployment, the fundamental axis of this research, together with: being a victim of gender-based violence or being at risk of it; having practiced, practicing or being at risk of practicing prostitution; having consumed substances, consuming them or being at risk of doing so in a way that is dangerous to the health and integrity of the person; and/or being an immigrant woman in a situation of vulnerability.

Following the analysis of the dimensions and interpreted nodes, of the nine entities participating in the study, four of them directed a large part of their discourse to the lines of work that were addressed in the entity. P.2, P.3, P.4 and P.6 gave special importance to the lines of work. The rest focused their discourse on the profile of the users, since the line of work, although it was worked from the entity, was also referred to other resources of the community, since, as was commented during the interviews, there is a high volume of work in relation to the available human and temporary resources. This anticipates one of the possible current weaknesses of the Third Sector system, and

possible diversions to other resources, which as introduced in the research questions, can lead to the chronification of social care.

Within the line of work, an essential part of the socio-labour work is the training of social and labour skills and the promotion of motivation, for the prosperous scope of a job and its maintenance. In this sense, P.2 is the one that stood out in these skills promotion tasks, followed by P.4 and P.6, as opposed to the other entities in which their lines of work did not emphasize the work of these skills.

Other important tasks in the labour line are labour intermediation to put users in contact with possible recruitment companies, individualised itineraries to create an intervention process adjusted to each individual with programmed objectives and adapted to specific needs, individualised tutorials with the aim of following the progress or setbacks produced during the process and orientation towards self-employment (Figure 5). Two of the entities that stood out from the rest in these four tasks were P.2 and P.4, accompanied to a lesser extent by P.3, P.6 and P.8, the latter in relation to individualized tutoring.

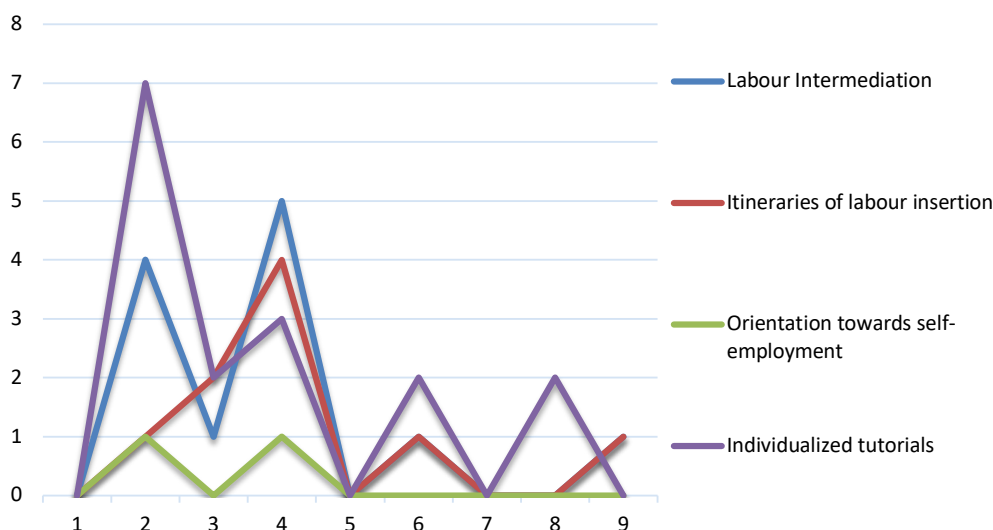


Figure 5. Socio-labour actions from the participants. Source: Own elaboration.

On labour intermediation, P.2 stated: “Yes, it is true that we have sometimes contacted companies. We have a list. We have agreed with them when we have someone to send them. [...] It is true that it is not easy and that it is not the path we usually take, because many of our women are not qualified for this insertion”. In the same sense, P.3 indicated that: “The actions that are carried out are the itineraries of insertion”. On the other hand, as stated in P.4: “The programme is a programme of itineraries and they are intensified itineraries, which are for people of low employability, because they are with groups of greater difficulty compared to the rest of the population, which already has difficulties”. Along the lines of having community resources, P.4 shared that: “And also other orientations for group action can be visits to

city resources on employment issues [...]. Several businessmen have come from the sectors in which we have more or less trained people, to explain the professional profile of the sector”.

Parallel to the tasks analysed so far, the training tasks must be carried out through pre-work and occupational training, which provides women with pre-working skills. However, in order to reach a job position, this training must be simultaneous with socio-work workshops (Figure 6), preoccupational workshops (Figure 7), and occupational workshops (Figure 8). Again, it can be seen that the associations that stood out in these tasks of orientation and socio-labour preparation were P.2, P.3, P.4, P.6, and in a punctual way in pre-labour formation, P.8.

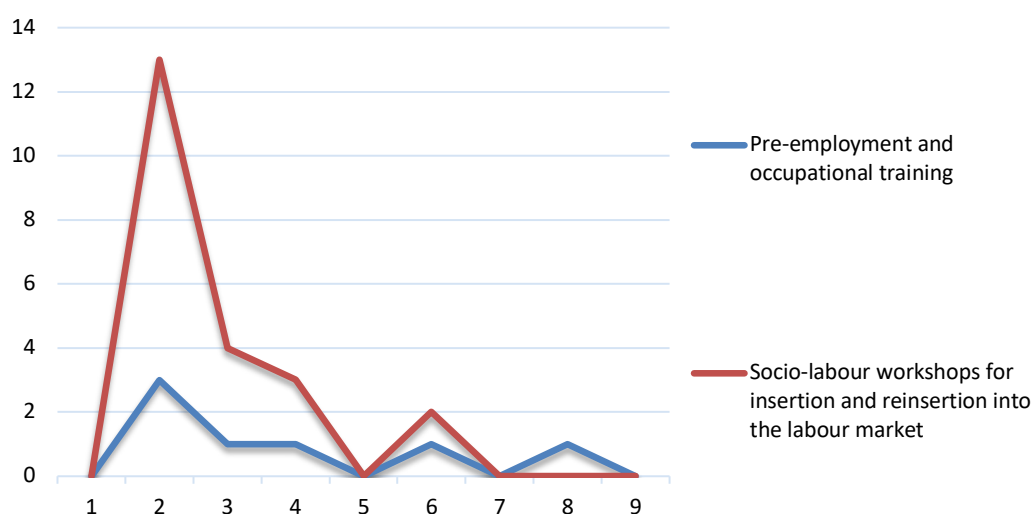


Figure 6. Workshops and training for employment from the participants. Source: Own elaboration.

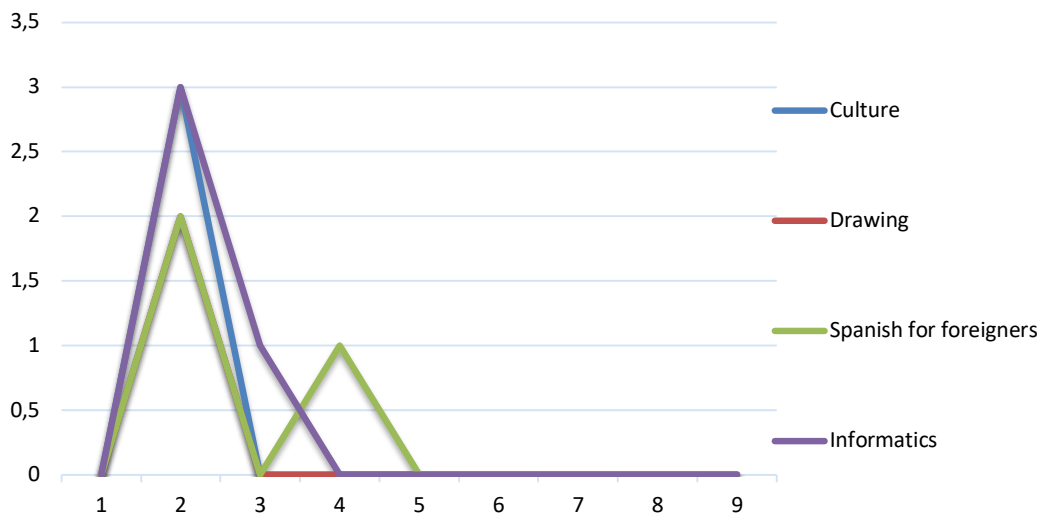


Figure 7. Preoccupational workshops from the participants. Source: Own elaboration.

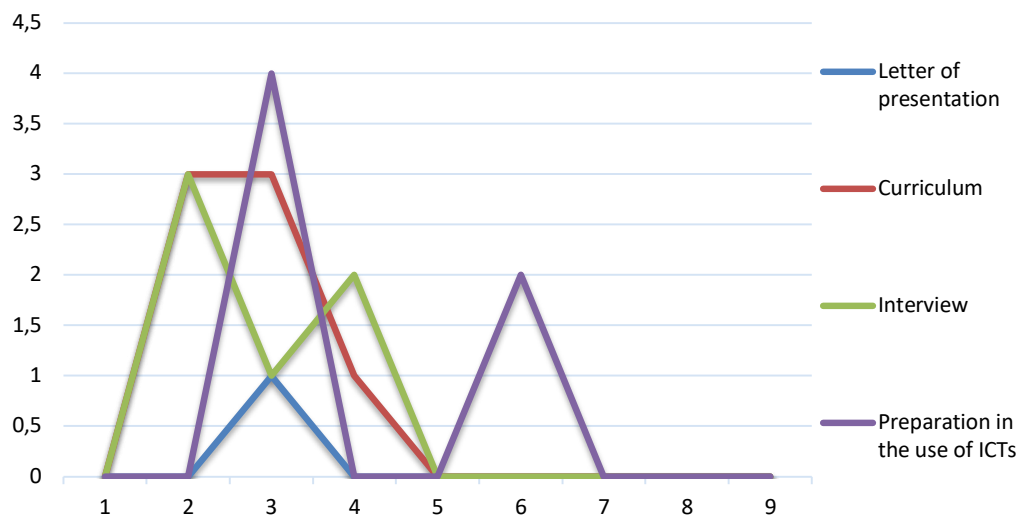


Figure 8. Occupational workshops from the participants. Source: Own elaboration.

In relation to the preoccupational and occupational workshops, P.3 stated that: "Users are also helped in the use of job search tools and job search strategies are offered, one of the tools used for this is the Internet and new technologies". And he continued: "They are also helped to draw up a letter of presentation, the curriculum, the inscription on websites". All of this is important because, as P.6 pointed out, "And I don't say anything to you when you talk about looking for a job on the Internet, it's still something that most people don't control". This same participant revealed an important fact about the use of new technologies for job search: "And then, we work on the whole topic of new technologies, it is that there are many offers to which they do not have access [...] because of ignorance, because they do not trust, because they think that this curriculum will not arrive, they prefer to go to

the physical site and deliver it in hand, rather than enter through employment websites".

In relation to job shadowing workshops, P.2 shared: "We prepare them both for curriculum and interviews". This same participant continued: "On Tuesday mornings we have dedicated them to do what we call 'Reiníciate', which consists of specific workshops on work occupation".

Below are the work tasks carried out by each entity with a special development of the socio-labour line:

Since P.2, there were socio-labour counselors and preoccupational workshops were carried out, social and labour skills and motivation were worked on, occupational workshops were developed, and punctually some contact was made with companies, through agreements with those, since labour intermediation was not implemented.

Through P.3, work was carried out by insertion itineraries, work orientation courses with a twice a year frequency, and during three months a course of computer science and work orientation was carried out. However, as in P.2, there was no labour intermediation, however, in this case there were synergies with other entities, although not agreements.

In the case of P.4, the implementation of the socio-labour activity was widely developed, since all the professionals of this service were socio-labour counsellors. The large blocks worked were: *“orientation, training, intermediation”*, as the entity’s worker related, and self-employment measures; work was done through intensified personal insertion pathways, in this case with women victims of gender-based violence. They worked in Spanish for foreigners; they provided support so that people could obtain a degree in Secondary Education through Adult Education; they prepared curricula and interviews, individual and group orientation, accompaniment and follow-up; they also received visits from city resources; they worked on the handling of new technologies; they promoted skills; they did theoretical preparation of the driving license, the food handling license and the labour risks prevention course. In addition, skills and motivation were worked on, labour intermediation was carried out and there were synergies with other entities.

In P.6, the professionals in the orientation task were also socio-labour counsellors, and they worked on labour insertion through: job bank, training points, work on transversal competences, self-knowledge, conflict resolution; preparation of curricula and job interviews; promotion of the use of ICTs for the active search for employment; work on social and labour skills, and motivation. In addition, there was labour intermediation and synergies with other organizations, and about the workshops *“in addition to the group workshops,*

also individually,” as indicated by the association’s own worker.

Since P.8, his interdisciplinary team included the figure of the socio-labour counsellor. In this case the work dealt with the development of prevention and treatment of substance use, through courses for preparation for working life. The socio-labour work that was carried out was through individualised plans, covering the family, biological, health, socio-labour and educational areas: *“treatments are designed in Individualised Case Plans, as treatment. Be part of the person.”* They worked in women’s groups, mixed groups, individual work with male users and group work with families.

And finally, from P.9 the *“design and application of personalized insertion itineraries”*, individualized tutorials, pre-work and occupational training, accompaniment and labour support in the access to employment, coordination and collaboration in community resources were carried out.

In relation to P.1, P.5 and P.7, it should be remembered that they did not have a potential development of the socio-labour line of work. Among the main reasons, the referral to other resources, which are those studied in this same research, because of scarcity of specialized human resources and space-time resources.

Finally, Figure 9 shows the word cloud generated through the speeches of the different study participants. It is noteworthy that, although each entity has different lines of work and the discourse offered by the workers of the same focuses on different issues, all speeches converge when talking about insertion, labour, social, orientation, itineraries, motivation, group, intermediation, people, programmes, attention, skills, education, methodology, empathy, communication, accompaniment, interviews, employment, curriculum, mediation, competencies, assertiveness, encourage, gender, etc.



Figure 9. Cloud of words from the generated speeches. Source: Own elaboration through CAQDAS Nvivo 12.

5. Conclusions and discussion

As a response to the general objective of the study, as analysed, the main lines of work of the participants were the attention of basic needs, legal, psychological and labour assistance. Of the nine entities, it was P.2, P.3, P.4, P.6 and, in some specific area, P.8 and P.9 that carried out in greater or lesser depth the tasks of socio-labour orientation, as has already been indicated. The P.2, P.3, P.4 and P.6 had resources and a broad interdisciplinary team for the detailed development of the various orientation actions. P.8 and P.9 also stood out for their individualized itineraries and individual tutorials. However, and responding to the second specific objective of the research, the lack of socio-labour orientation on the part of the remaining associations, and the specialization in the casuistry dealt with by the remaining entities of the population, makes it possible to find out the need to invest greater resources in the line of socio-labour work, since, as was manifested in the speeches, there is a high index of unemployed people, with a low level of employability and deficit of skills and capacity to manage the employment websites. This implies the need for the Third Sector to deal transversally with labour guidance for insertion and reinsertion into the labour market, promoting labour intermediation, a greater number of job banks and job shuttles, combining it with measures to reconcile family and work. Attending to labour needs is necessary given the predominant user profile of the participating entities, as mentioned above in response to the first

specific objective of the study: woman of 40 years of age, spanish nationality, with family responsibilities, unemployed and with a low level of training.

Through the network of contacts established with the entities, it has been possible to verify that the users of the entities at the socio-labour level required greater pre-work and employment training, the acquisition of skills for the design of the curriculum, the letter of presentation, the handling of the employment websites, and the efficient and effective search for employment; together with this, the acquisition of social and labour skills was required for the maintenance of the job and the promotion of the commitment to the job. This shows the need to create policies so that people who present such a profile in the future can find a way of reconciling family and work, where there is space for training and employment, shared in balance with the performance of work responsibility, which will facilitate the increase of economic autonomy.

Continuing with the discussion, the research questions posed are answered.

As has been studied in the research, in order to achieve integral empowerment, attention also has to be integral, since in this case it was a profile of low employability, with a lack of skills. In addition, for an individual to be able to enjoy health and satisfy their economic needs, it is necessary to have a job that provides job stability (Extremera & Rey, 2016). This is clearly reflected in the study, since in fact the users of the entities require more specialized guidance, even though the entities have the line of socio-labour and personal

guidance for the performance of these tasks, the needs continue to be evident as explained in the previous lines. Thus, the demand for greater socio-labour orientation is emerging.

Finally, from a social perspective, it should not be forgotten that unemployment affects not only physical but also mental health, generating economic needs, which in a prolonged state could lead to economic dependency (Bacigalupe & Escolar-Pujolar, 2014; Bosque-Prous, M.), Espelt, A., Sordo, L., Guitart, A. M., Brugal, M. T., & Bravo, M. J., 2015; Buffel, V., Van De Straat, V., & Bracke, P. 2015; Córdoba-Doña, J. A., San Sebastián, M., Escolar-Pujolar, A., Martínez-Faure, J. E., & Gustafsson, P. E. 2014; Economou, Madianos, Peppou, Patelakis, & Stefanis, 2013; Keyes, Hatzenbuehler, Grant, & Hasin, 2012; Marmot, 2014; Schröder, 2013). This is directly related to the second research question, since, if the needs are not answered from a comprehensive approach, the degree of autonomy and empowerment necessary to have control over the various spheres of life is not obtained, which perpetuates the assistance from known supporters, in this case the Third Sector entities that have served as a guide for the women served. In addition, as it is transposed in the speeches of the workers of the entities in the semi-structured interviews, many of the women have been going to the entity for years, even to diverse entities, since they do not reach work and economic stability, among other issues, such as

emotional stability, which is required to have control of one's own life.

Lastly, the main limitations that have been encountered in the development of the study have been those related to the participants. Social entities tend to provide little information about the interventions they carry out, and because of temporary difficulties they are not always accessible. These circumstances led the investigation to be prolonged in the period of information collecting.

As a prospective and future vision, it would be interesting to replicate the study in the coming years in the same context, and also in other similar environments in order to carry out comparative studies and identify possible improvements that have occurred, as well as weak points on which to emphasize attention. Also, the results of research such as this one and the like make it possible to put forward proposals for intervention that are appropriate to the context. This would particularly highlight the qualitative research implemented and allow the biopsychosocial action to be adjusted to the existing concrete needs.

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INFORMATION

BOOK REVIEWS

Miravalles, A. F., y Ortega, J. G. (2018).
Resilience in socio-educational environments.
Madrid: Narcea. 167 páginas.
ISBN: 978-84-277-1805-0

Turning to literature on Greek mythology, this book entitled *Resilience in socio-educational environments* leads us through the story of Prometheus and Epimetheus and Pandora and her box, full of divine blessings from Gods, where hope is the only thing that remains inside it at the end of the story. From the list of divine blessings contained in that box the editors chose hope to relate it to resilience, arising after the union of both concepts what they call positive expectations, as long as they go hand in hand with proactivity.

Over the seven chapters that are compiled in this book, the authors celebrate the arrival and reception of resilience in the educational community, presenting as a major goal the construction of multiple networks and circles of positive expectations, both within and outside this context, starting from proactive attitudes on the part of all actors involved.

Whenever professionals of education seek for academic excellence, it will be necessary to leave behind the idea of focusing on the weaknesses of the system and the educational practices. In order to achieve this goal, the authors suggest to conduct an action plan that highlights the implementation of projects which identify and bolster strengths, achieved goals and opportunities for development found in the educational sphere. This way, appreciative schools and socio-educational environments can be generated, enabling and promoting in every member the resources, values and strengths required to deal with diverse

difficulties, reframing situations and assessing positive possibilities, considering the future consequences at any time.

As mentioned before, this book contains different chapters where its authors provide their theoretical reflections and some experiences and good practices successfully conducted in the development of resilience in different environments and educational levels. In the first chapter, the contextualization and background of resilience is introduced, starting from the Anglo-Saxon school and spreading through European and Latin American schools. Subsequently and from this perspective, the author suggests a scenario which invites us to deepen in dynamics and possibilities to promote, work and develop practices and programs on resilience in socio-educational contexts.

In the following chapter, the authors show the importance and necessity of the “pedagogy of the question” and its use, which enabled human beings to raise questions such as “why” and “the purpose” of things, aspects that will not only help us in the acquisition of different learnings but also will give meaning to our experience and to life itself. This questioning of the meaning of life, of things and of our own existence is presented and analyzed by the authors from four different perspectives: i) the meaning from speech therapy by Viktor Frankl, ii) the meaning in the state of well-being, iii) the meaning from the existential realism by Alfredo Rubio and iv) the meaning from resilience.

The third chapter explains how and why humor can be considered as an element of resilience, in fact one of the most important. To illustrate this, both authors present a series of definitions of humor and many other concepts related to this

aspect, stopping to detail its benefits whenever humor relates to resilience. Afterwards, they display different application areas of this humor, ending the chapter with the proposal of several intervention strategies, distinguishing among: i) pedagogical strategies, ii) self-help to deal with problems and iii) helping others; emphasizing the variety of forms that humor intervention can be developed with the aim of promoting resilience.

The next chapter is focused on the role developed by forgiveness in resilience, being the ability to forgive an element of strength in the construction and development of resilience. Along this chapter, and based on diverse contributions from research, both authors provide different concepts of forgiveness, proposing later its close and direct relation with resilience, considering aspects such as: i) what prevents from forgiving, ii) what facilitates forgiving, iii) which is the process of forgiveness and iv) benefits of forgiving. After this presentation, we can distinguish between the vision of forgiveness as a feeling from the vision of forgiveness as the will of continuing life for himself / herself or others, focusing on the latter and locating this capacity as a transverse axis and measure element of the development of resilience.

Regarding the fifth chapter, the authors, belonging to the ADDIMA (association for the promotion and development of resilience), call for the necessity of a change of view, perspective and direction to respond the current reality of the professional educational practices, highlighting the need to elaborate methodologies and models to implement a resilient approach, considering this deficit. In order to collaborate in the solution for this, the authors share with the readers a series of steps to make this change possible and lasting. In parallel, they also offer some strategic proposals drafted by them and based on their professional experience.

In the next chapter the authors retroactively list some of the challenges and achievements related to universities, explaining that even

nowadays new challenges come to this institution such as the construction or improvement of a resilient university, starting from the rapprochement and interconnection of this social organization to two essential axis which are optimism and need, and backing it in the following basic pillars: personal factors, relational factors and community factors; all of them related to resilience and explained in this chapter. Likewise the authors delight us with diverse narratives and practices to perform by the resilient educator, ending with the display of a formative experience conducted in a higher education degree.

The seven and last chapter explains the importance and value of the image and its evolution towards what is now known as audiovisual resources, emphasizing their ability to recall feelings, emotions and memories. For this reason the author highlights the relevance of using cinema as a learning strategy, leading it beyond mere entertainment. Movies that are suited for the work on resilience are enlisted, and finally they display a practical example where work is conducted considering different questions which promote a resilient learning and meet the educational needs of students.

In essence, the theoretical and practice aspects of this book stand out, given that apart from contextualizing resilience -the main topic of this book- it also deepens in elements which support it and that are essential in its development, which enables the widening of the scenario and perspective around it. Likewise, along with the experiences, strategies and resources shared by different authors, this book can perfectly assume a role of guidance for every person reading its words, both from the perspective of education professionals or from a personal perspective, which merely pursues happiness.

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MORÓN MARCHENA, J. A., PÉREZ-PÉREZ, I., PEDRERO GARCÍA, E., (2017). *Education for Health and prevention of psychosocial risks in adolescents and youth*. Madrid: Narcea, S.A. de Ediciones.

Health Education as an essential element to achieve the well-being of the individual has been tackled over time from different perspectives with a common aim focused on promote a change of attitudes and, consequently, of behaviors leading to a healthy personal development.

The sociocultural collection displays a study focused on socio-educational work in terms of health and prevention of psychological and social risks, addressed to adolescents and young people and specially targeting teachers and professionals in the area of direct care. Its twelve chapters tackle the modalities for prevention and intervention in view of risk behaviors related to the consumption of psychoactive substances and criminal conduct, regarding the formal, non-formal and informal field.

The first chapter analyzes the role of the family and the school in the face of the main risk behaviors in adolescence. The importance and positive effect of the relation between family and school is highlighted, so that the second chapter can delve deep into the methodological framework regarding the prevention of problems linked to the consumption of drugs and the prevention of criminal behavior, as well as the levels of prevention and theoretical models where prevention lies.

The following chapters focus on define and conceptualize addictions, drug consumption, addiction to ICTs, bullying and risks linked to sexual practices during adolescence. Besides, the text provides several proposals and intervention projects that guide the development of preventive initiatives or implementations in the same vein.

The authors seek to offer a theoretical, methodological and practical framework for the

development of programs and intervention proposals which aim to promote health and well-being of people, reducing diseases or harmful conducts such as suicide, directly linked to risky behaviors during adolescence, a vital stage.

It is worth highlighting that the present book is an essential and interesting reading, and particularly recommended for all professionals of the educational and social field working directly or indirectly with adolescents and youth, as well as for parents, tutors and every person interested in Health Education, including students with a certain curiosity for the comprehension of conducts considered dangerous for them and their health, understanding this way the optimal development of their health and wellbeing.

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COEXIST WITHOUT BULLYING. SHARING RESPECTFUL RELATIONSHIPS.

Avilés Martínez, J.M. (2019) Madrid. Narcea. 117 páginas. ISBN: 978-84-277-2588-1

The social nature of human being demands an education based on cohabitation, but learning how to live in society and properly interact with other people is not an easy task; what's more, it is a challenge in the educational field. In spite of several decades highlighting the problem of bullying, searching for tools which can enable the detection, prevention and intervention on this phenomenon, it seems to be not enough to adequately manage these situations in educational centers, given that in many occasions there is a shortfall regarding ideas to deal with this phenomenon. The problem of bullying remains, and even when major advances have been made in the detection and intervention on these situations, we live in a moment when the educational environment should tackle this problem globally, holistically and cooperatively, leaving behind reductionisms which address bullying from the perspective of bullies and victims, and trying to target every actor implied, inside and outside the school environment.

In this line, the book *Coexist without bullying* displays the keys to understand the dynamics of bullying along with tools for reflection and management in order to deal with possible cases of bullying. The text is divided into five chapters, and it has been structured in two parts: on the one hand, a theoretical part which enables the comprehension of the dynamics of bullying from the

ecological and collaborative perspective and, on the other, a practical second part, where two scenarios for bullying in the class are proposed. Besides, in the section *To find out more* the author presents a compilation of resources, tools and up-to-date links to turn to. We will give a brief synopsis of each chapter so that the reader can know in more detail the content of the work. The first and second chapters place us before the phenomenon of bullying, tackled from the perspective of eco-coexistence, given that it is clear that bullying must be approached from holistic prevention and intervention frameworks. We find an updated analysis of the *descriptors of coexistence* and indicators that are being handled in order to prevent conflict and bullying situations. Finally, the author presents bullying clarifying and displaying its main concepts and structure. The third chapter invites us to reflect on the moral issue implied in bullying, exemplifying eight forms of moral disconnection in the face of bullying, and the psychological consequences that it causes in any of the participants: victim, bully or witness. The chapter four focuses on intervention, given that tackling the problem of bullying in these moments is an important challenge for the educational community (p. 57). It is important for every educational center to consider certain parameters in order to measure the climate of coexistence; in this sense, some general guidelines targeting the community, the educational center, the living group and the individual level are presented. Besides, there are six stages that an educational community needs to follow in order to create and formalize an anti-bullying project.

Chapter five brings us closer to the nature of this phenomenon; for that purpose, the author presents the analysis of cases as a methodology “that enables the collaborative analysis, using different deepening and zoom levels, regarding topics related to violence” (p.80). Besides, two practical cases are presented with tools to tackle them and give solutions. The first case is focused on physical bullying and cutting; the second deals with the management of a hypothetical situation of bullying in a classroom when it exists or might exist in a latent phase.

In the end, with this book José María Avilés Martínez shows a valuable and worked proposal that addresses the problem of bullying from

a theoretical, practical, moral and collective perspective, tackling it in every aspect such as *political, organizational, theoretical, practical, pragmatic and functional* (p. 11), presenting a series of interventions which can contribute to a decent solution for every actor involved in bullying cases. With regard to the structure and content, this work aims to every professional of education which is dealing with this reality or searching for a reference manual to train both in the individual and global perspective in order to face this phenomenon.

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THESIS ABSTRACT

GARCÍA-TORO, MARITZA (2019). "TAKING CARE OF HER IS NOT THE DIFFICULT PART": CONFIGURATIONS OF FAMILY CAREGIVING IN EARLY-ONSET ALZHEIMER'S DISEASE BY E280A MUTATION. (PHD THESIS). UNIVERSITY OF SALAMANCA (SPAIN)

Director: María Cruz Sánchez-Gómez

Co-director: Ricardo Canal Bedia

The defense of Maritza Garcia-Toro doctoral thesis took place on June 17th 2019, obtaining the grade of Outstanding Cum Laude unanimously. This thesis exposes the experience of a group of family caregivers who take care of people carrying the E280A mutation for Early-onset Alzheimer's Disease.

Family caregivers of people with Early-onset Alzheimer's Disease face several challenges, including the lack of adequate support services because professionals and the community in general, are unaware of their specific needs. The challenges become greater when the disease is genetically inherited, there are multiple affected members in several generations, and the caregiver himself can eventually become a recipient of care when he or she develops the disease.

In this mixed method study, semi-structured interviews were conducted and questionnaires were applied to 50 participants to examine anxiety, depression, burden, self-efficacy, social support, resilience, and coping strategies. In the qualitative component, two categories emerged: Other life experiences that interfere with care and representations about the disease.

It was found that the use of escape-avoidance coping strategies, as well as low self-efficacy to

controlling upsetting thoughts associated to caregiving, and insufficient income are the main risk factors for adverse psychological outcomes such as anxiety, depression and burden. On the other hand, active coping strategies like focusing on the solution of problems and positive evaluation of the situation, high self-efficacy, and social support are associated with resilience and, therefore, operate as psychological protective factors.

The results show that caring for a loved one while simultaneously running the risk of developing the same disease, permeates the caregivers' experience both in a negative and a positive way, because the deterioration of the person with dementia is a constant reminder of one's genetic vulnerability, but it also helps to have greater empathy and devotion in the care.

In previous research, anxiety and depression have shown to be preclinical symptoms of Alzheimer's Disease, this aspect should be seriously considered in caregivers who belong to families carrying a genetic mutation associated with this condition. In the first place, these caregivers could be at risk of accelerating the onset of symptoms, by being exposed to continued emotional stress; second, the early symptoms of Alzheimer's Disease, such as memory loss, attention problems or mood changes, could be confused with the emotional consequences of care, which would interfere with an early diagnosis.

The findings also confirm that caring for a young loved one with dementia exposes family caregivers to specific emotional demands such as the concern to inherit the mutation, changes in future expectations, the interruption of the course of life, and the changes and investment of family roles (especially in spouses and children). That is

why, the professionals who provide support to these caregivers must support the construction of new interpretations focused on the gains, so that they find meaning and enrichment in their care experience, since it has been demonstrated that the caregivers provide a better attention when they interpret the experience as satisfying and rewarding.

For their part, the support programs should be aimed to the entire family group, not only to the caregiver, from a systemic approach, with the purpose of helping assume the changes and stress experienced by the family as understandable and expected, allowing them to overcome the frustration, guilt, and confusion. Specifically,

the programs should be aimed at: 1) create networks of solidarity, promoting cohesion and the balance of the family group and, even, restoring its functioning; 2) develop strategies aimed at family adaptation, including acceptance and construction of new roles and relationships; 3) the maintenance of intergenerational bonds between younger members of the family. This would allow the caregiver to perceive and receive more support from their relatives, because sometimes the other members of their family do not take care of the person with dementia, because they cannot assimilate the emotions associated with the diagnosis, the deterioration of their loved one, and to instrumental care.

