



Pedagogical Methods Promoting Development of the Multi-perspective Attitude in Early Age Children

Ona Monkevičienė¹, Birutė Autukevičienė²

¹ Vytautas Magnus University, Education Academy, Teacher Training institute, T. Ševčenkos g. 31, LT-03111 Vilnius, Lithuania, ona.monkeviciene@vdu.lt

² Vytautas Magnus University, Education Academy, Teacher Training institute, T. Ševčenkos g. 31, LT-03111 Vilnius, Lithuania, birute.autukeviciene@vdu.lt

Abstract. Children's perspective-taking skills and multi-perspective attitudes comprise the basis for their social competence. From the educational point of view, it is particularly important to demonstrate the methods that promote children's understanding of their own and others' perspectives, since these enable them to develop a multi-perspective attitude. The article discusses perspective-taking skills (perceptive, cognitive, affective) and shows the stages of the development of perspective-taking skills in early childhood through discussion of research on social perspective-taking and visuospatial perspective-taking. The article also attempts to synthesise the conclusions of research with respect to the development of perspective-taking and the multi-perspective attitude. Qualitative research is presented through which the methods utilised by teachers to develop the perspective-taking capacities of groups of 5-6 year olds are demonstrated.

Keywords: *perspective-taking, multi-perspective attitude, child, early childhood education.*

Introduction

The understanding of another's perspective involves the imaginary placement of oneself in another's position, seeing objects (situations, people, things) from the position of the other's understanding of his or her thoughts, intentions, and empathising with the emotions she or he experiences, before returning to one's own position (Gülşay-Ogelman, Seçer, & Önder, 2013; Moll et al., 2013). According to Erle and Topolinski (2017),

perspective-taking creates a feeling of self-other overlap, either by projecting the self onto the other person or by incorporating the other person into the self. In such cases an individual identifies with the other's understanding and is able to take his or her perspective (Gülay-Ogelman et al., 2017). A multi-perspective attitude is the ability to see the same situation from several perspectives: from the personal perspective and those of others, or to attend to the situation from the third-person or "generalized other" perspectives (Selman, 1973; Rodriguez, 1992; Pollack, 2016).

The development of skills which enable the child's understanding his or her own and others' perspectives has a significant impact on the child's prosocial behaviour. A child with better perspective-taking skills is more easily accepted among peers, gets faster access to social support, establishes and maintains friendly relations with peers with less difficulty (Gülay-Ogelman, Seçer, & Önder, 2013). The research of Gülay-Ogelman et al. (2017) shows that children with higher perspective-taking skills are more able to engage in peer group activities, are capable of responding in a sound manner to the provocations of peers, exhibit a lower level of aggression and are more sensitive and attentive to the needs and emotions of their peers.

Thus, perspective-taking is a key component of the socio-cognitive development of children. It has been the focus of considerable research. However, the educational aspect of this problem is no less significant. The focus of this kind of research is on how to encourage the development of children's understanding and taking of others' perspective and the expansion of their socio-cognitive competence. The article aims: a) to specify the conclusions of research into children's perspective-taking skills and; b) to cast light on the methods teachers use to promote the development of the multi-perspective attitude in 5-6 year olds.

Perspective-taking and the multi-perspective attitude in childhood

Understanding and perspective-taking are investigated by researchers as separate skills. Citing Eisenberg (1986), and Kurdek and Rodgon (1975), Gülay-Ogelman et al. (2017, p. 60) present three groups of perspective-taking skills (perceptual, cognitive and affective): "the perceptual perspective-taking skill signifies understanding what others see and hear. The cognitive perspective-taking skill involves understanding the intentions, behaviours, and thoughts of others. The affective perspective-taking skill, on the other hand, signifies understanding the emotional states of others". With respect to skills that are employed to understand and to take the perspective of others, the following kinds of perspective-taking can be distinguished: perceptual or visuospatial perspective-taking; cognitive and affective perspective-taking (Moll & Meltzoff, 2011; Moll et al., 2013). According to Erle and Topolinski (2017), during research the division between the

cognitive and affective understanding and perspective-taking tends to become progressively blurred: more common features than different ones are identified. Erle and Topolinski call both types of perspective understanding “psychological perspective-taking”. Other authors refer to cognitive and affective perspective-taking as social perspective-taking, since such skills are particularly relevant to social relations and collaboration in groups (Gehlbach, Brinkworth, & Mang, 2012; Gehlbach et al., 2015).

Traditionally, visuospatial perspective-taking was studied separately from social or psychological perspective-taking, and different empirical methods were used. However, recently researchers have attempted to demonstrate regularities across different kinds of perspective-taking. Referring to Epley and Caruso (2009), Erle and Topolinski (2017, p.p. 683-684) draw attention to general skills of perspective-taking: “a) ascertaining that other social agents actually possess mental states, b) recognizing that these mental states are not necessarily identical to our own, and c) overcoming our innate egocentrism in favour of such a different literal (visuospatial) or metaphorical (psychological) point of view”. According to Erle and Topolinski, their research shows that mechanisms of visuospatial perspective-taking are much more broadly revealed. In psychological perspective-taking, by contrast, it is the initial step, that of “activating perspective-taking” that is demonstrated, as are mechanisms that occur after others’ perspectives have been taken, rather than mechanisms which shed light on how children take perspectives (Erle & Topolinski, 2017; Gehlbach, Brinkworth, Mang, 2012). Searching for mechanisms common across different kinds of perspective-taking, the research conducted by Vander Heyden et al. (2017, p. 70) has particular significance. They aim to show the strategies used by 10-12 year olds to understand visuospatial perspectives of the other. The research shows that when children’s perspectives differ by 90° from the other, children tend mentally to rotate their egocentric reference frame. When the perspective of the other differs from the child’s perspective by 180°, the child inverts their left–right and front–back axes without rotating their mental position. Erle and Topolinski (2017) state that this demonstrates a shared causal mechanism between visuospatial and psychological perspective-taking, because in both cases an individual, ignoring his or her self-perspective, “transfers” himself or herself into the other’s perspective. The latter research reveals a common mechanism of visuospatial and psychological perspective-taking.

Moreover, the stages and processes of understanding perspective-taking in childhood are linked to several other theoretical approaches: with the theory of empathy, which grounds affective perspective-taking, i.e. the ability to empathise with the emotional state of the other and to respond to it (Gülay-Ogelman, Seçer, & Önder, 2013); with the theory of mind, which explains the development of a child’s ability to understand wishes, intentions and thoughts (Premack & Woodruff, 1978; Santiesteban et al., 2012; Wellman & Liu, 2004); and with joint attention theory, which interprets infants’ abilities to maintain their joint attention with another person as scaffolds for the emergence of the understanding of the other’s perspective (Moll & Meltzoff, 2011; Westby & Robinson, 2014).

Researchers who analyse the development of *social or psychological perspective-taking* link this process with the processes of perception of the self and the other, the theory of mind and empathy.

Stage 0: Egocentric role-taking. During this stage, according to Selman (1973), a 4-6-year-old can differentiate self and other as entities, but does not differentiate their perspectives, i.e. does not understand how two different entities can see and interpret the same social situation differently. Rodriguez (1992) refers to this stage as “*undifferentiated and egocentric social perspective-taking*”. This is when a child experiences difficulties differentiating subjective (psychical) and objective (physical) aspects of the surrounding world. From the perspective of the theory of mind, according to Westby and Robinson (2014), the stage “pre-theory of mind: engagement and sense of self” is observed in children aged up to 4 years. At this stage, emotional sharing is characteristic: in situations of joint attention children reflect on emotions that the other’s expressions show and follow shifts in the other’s gaze. Wellman and Liu (2004) conclude that children become aware that the other can have desires with respect to an object that differ from their own when they are rather young (at 2-3 years of age). Thus, it is possible that the *undifferentiated and egocentric social perspective-taking* stage has begun by the age of 2.5-3 years. This agrees with the research based on levels of perspective-taking singled out by Flavell, which shows the development of *visuospatial perspective-taking* at an early age. At the first level of perspective-taking, observed in children of about 2-3 years, a child understands that another person may not see the things that she or he sees and that two people can see different things (Flavell et al., 1981).

Stage 1: Social-informational role-taking. According to Selman (1973), a 6-8-year-old child realizes that others may have a different way of viewing, judging, or interpreting a social action or social situation, depending, in particular, upon the amount of information that the child has. Rodriguez (1992) refers to this stage as one of “*differentiated social perspective-taking*”. He claims that at this stage subjective perspectives of the self and the other are clearly differentiated. Relating of perspectives is conceived of in one-way unilateral terms, of the perspective of, and impact on, one actor. According to Westby and Robinson (2014), starting at age 4, i.e. much earlier than indicated by Selman (1973), “*first-order ToM*” develops, i.e. a child’s understanding of what another person feels and thinks: “I know that you know”. Wellman and Liu (2004) conclude from their review of the research that a 3-4-year-old can demonstrate his or her understanding that she or he and others can have different opinions about the same object. On the basis of research, it is quite possible to accept that the differentiated *social perspective-taking stage* forms at around 3 years of age. This stage coincides with the second *visuospatial perspective-taking* stage distinguished by Flavell (Flavell et al., 1981) and revised by Moll and Meltzoff (2011). At this level children begin to understand two things: that people may not only see different things, but that they may see the same things differently. Flavell et al. (1981) argue that children reach this level at 4-4.5 years. On the basis of their research, Moll and

Meltzoff (2011) divide the second level of perspective-taking, distinguished by Flavell, into two sub-levels. At level 2A), reached by children aged 3, a child is able to understand the other's perspective, i.e. to recognize how another sees. At level 2B) a child is able to compare or confront different perspectives on the same object with each other, i.e. how the same object is seen by the child and another person. This level seems to begin at around 4 years. Experiments with filters, which changed the colour of the visible object, led to the conclusion that a 3-year-old can understand the perspective of the other. The children were able to take into account not only what another person sees but also how another person sees. This encouraged the authors to assume that a 3-year-old can understand the perspective of another individual, but cannot compare and confront visual perspectives of the self and the other. The research confirms that a three-year-old child successfully copes with the task, i.e. correctly points what and how another person sees, when asked to make decisions on the basis of two objects and when it is not necessary to confront own and adult's perspectives.

Stage 2: Self-reflective role-taking. According to Selman (1973), at the age of 8-10 years, a child starts understanding that another child can view the self as a subject and scrutinize his or her own thoughts, actions and feelings just as him or her. A child understands that both she or he and another person consider actions and situations on the basis of their reflections; that another person can consider the intentionality or unintentionality of self's actions just as the self can do with respect to another individual (reciprocity). The ability to see how the other views the self is developed, an ability which agrees with the ability to venture outside of the self and to reflect upon one's own thoughts (self-reflection). A child is thereby able to reflect upon the attitudes of the self and the other, i.e. to compare these two attitudes, and is therefore capable of *understanding conflicting perspectives*. A child starts forecasting the reactions of the other to his or her actions. Rodriguez (1992) calls this the stage of "*self-reflective/reciprocal social perspective-taking*" emphasising the child's understanding that she or he as well as another person can understand the other perspective. According to Westby and Robinson (2014), who deploy the *theory of mind with respect to secondary abilities*, this stage of social perspective-taking, the ability to think about what another person thinks about somebody's thinking, develops at the age of 5. Boyd and Bee (2011, p. 267) state that the ability to understand the mutuality of thinking processes, i.e. the concept of "You know that I know", develops at age 5. In Erle and Topolinski's (2017) view, this second level is close to that attainment which allows the child to "to put him or herself into another person's shoes". i.e. at this stage a child can evaluate how the world looks from the other person's perspective. Wellman and Liu (2004) draw attention to 4-year-old children's *understanding of the contrast between self and the other perspectives*. According to these researchers, starting at age 4, children begin to understand the *contrast of subjective mental states* (i.e. that two persons can have contrasting desires or beliefs in relation to the same thing, phenomenon or situation). It can be assumed that the stage of *self-reflective/reciprocal social perspective-taking* forms

at about the age of 4. A similar phenomenon was identified by Moll and Meltzoff (2011), who, conducting research on *visuospatial perspective-taking*, divide the second level of perspective-taking distinguished by Flavell into two sub-levels. The second embraces the *ability to confront two perspectives on the same object*, i.e. to understand how the same object is seen by the child him or herself and another person. *When one object is used*, and a child has to tell the colour of the object she or he sees and the colour of the object that another person sitting on the other side of the filter sees, i.e. when *a child has to confront perspectives*, understanding that she or he and another person see the same object differently, a 3-year-old child cannot perform this task and takes another perspective, most frequently his or her own. Only at the age of 4-4.5 are children capable of performing such tasks.

Stage 3. Mutual role taking or third-party perspective-taking (according to Pollack, 2016). A 10-12-year old child can differentiate his or her own perspective from the viewpoint likely for the average member of the group. Moreover, such a child can adopt the third-person perspective. She or he can now simultaneously consider his or her own view of others and others' view of him or her, and also the consequences of these perspectives in terms of behaviour and cognition. Rodriguez (1992) refers to this stage as *third-person perspective-taking/mutuality*. According to him, the third-person perspective includes and coordinates both the perspectives of self and other(s). Thus, the situation or system, which includes the self, is viewed from the perspective of a "generalized other". The multi-perspective attitude, which continuously evolves, emerges at this point. Westby and Robinson (2014, p. 365) claim that starting at age 8 children understand multiple embeddings ("He thinks that she hopes that they believe she loves the gift").

Stage 4: Societal role taking (according to Pollack, 2016). The adolescent considers the perspectives of others with reference to the social environment and culture the other person comes from, assuming that the other person will believe and act in accordance with their society's norms and values. Rodriguez (1992) calls this the "multiple systems" stage. In his opinion, the individual can apply the "generalized other" perspective to distinct, multiple abstract systems such as the societal perspective, the moral perspective, etc.

Educational methods promoting understanding and perspective-taking in early childhood

The ability to understand and take on the perspective of the other is particularly useful and contributes to development of a child's social competence. It is therefore important to stimulate the development of child's ability to understand and accept other perspectives. A whole range of methods that promote perspective-taking can be distinguished on the basis of the research conducted in the field.

Gehlbach et al. (2015) claim that the capacities for understanding and for perspective-taking *are strengthened by knowledge of the other perspective* – the more one person knows about the perspectives of another or others, the better she or he understands them. These researchers distinguish the kinds of perspective-taking with respect to: a) the degree of knowledge of the other perspective – whether a person knows a lot, a little or nothing can lead to certain consequences (perspective-taking, consideration of perspective, or conflict with another person); b) the active or passive character of the process of the knowledge acquisition – a person may either passively accept available information or actively acquires knowledge of the other perspective. The research carried out by Gehlbach et al. (2015, p. 523) shows that the passive mode of understanding the other perspective is inefficient. By contrast, when an aspect of the life of the other is simulated via imagination or role-playing, efficient knowledge acquisition occurs.

Santiesteban et al. (2012) investigated the importance of imitation for the development of the theory of mind as well as for the understanding and perspective-taking. The research drew the conclusion that it is the *inhibition of imitation* rather than imitation itself which has an influence on the understanding and perspective-taking. When the tendency to imitate another person's behaviour is inhibited, the observer has to distinguish between his or her own action or intentions and those of the observed person and to carry out their own intention rather than that of the other. The same process of separating the content of one's own mental state from the representation of another's mental state is seen as basis for the understanding and perspective-taking, although the control problem of these processes is the converse of that encountered in imitation inhibition: *one must inhibit one's own mental state and represent that of the other.* (Santiesteban et al., 2012; Brass, Ruby, & Spengler, 2009). The research of Santiesteban et al. (2012) shows that training in imitation inhibition (rather than imitation) results in an improvement in the capacity for perspective-taking.

The researchers think that children learn to understand and take the other perspective *through pretend play*. Pretend play creates possibilities for children to understand that the other person may have a different viewpoint and thus learn to synchronize with the other in the pretend play situations. Pretend play has two levels: "within frame" and "out of frame". Lillard A.S. (1998) claims that acting within frame facilitates theory of mind and perspective-taking: children act in their imaginary world, understanding the desires, actions and emotions of the roles they assume, a process which closely approximates to the understanding of other perspectives. When children act out of the play-frame, they really synchronise their desires and attitudes with those of others. According to Saby, Bouquet and Marshall (2014), at 4 years, children can assume and coordinate roles and actions with partners in joint play and problem-solving: they negotiate and share goals, pursue joint goals and support each other's activities.

Moll and Meltzoff (2011) state that the experience of *joint attention* of a child and adult, and of a child among other children is a prerequisite for the development of a child's

ability to understand, to compare, and to confront his or her own and other perspectives. During development, a child begins to understand those communicative actions of adults which are designed to draw their focus on aspects of shared referents. In consequence, the sharing of attention is enriched to include various perspectives on the shared focus. However, the latter accounts for how a child develops his or her capacity to grasp other perspectives; it does not account for a child's acquisition of the capacity to compare and confront his or her own perspectives with those of others. This last process requires another element. Some researchers argue that a specific kind of discourse scenario is needed here, whereby children jointly attend to an object with a person who sees it in a different way. Attempting to elucidate the nature of miscommunication, children notice such "clashes" of perspectives and, thus, come to understand that different views of the same situation are possible.

Saby, Bouquet and Marshall (2014) assert that the experience of *joint action* - which they understand as the ways in which two or more people work toward a common goal - is an excellent prerequisite for the growth of a child's comprehension of other perspectives. According to Milward, Kita and Apperly (2014), for the performance of a joint action it is important for the participants to have sufficient skills to co-represent goals, intentions and actions and for participants to have the capacity to forecast each other's actions, thereby enabling the performance of complementary actions. Research demonstrates (Hamann, Warneken, & Tomasello, 2012) that 18-24-month-old children are already able to coordinate their actions in collaborative activities with a partner. A two-year-old child will collaborate with another, although only to obtain a personal goal, for instance, to play with a toy. However, once the child has acquired the toy, the collaboration ceases; the desire of the other child to play with the toy falls outside of the first child's capacity to collaborate. By age 3, however, children have developed beyond this limit, demonstrating the capacity to share and play with a toy. They have acquired the capacity to understand and seek a common goal. The research of Milward, Kita, & Apperly (2014) shows that 4-year-olds can already represent intentions and a motor action scheme as well as successfully engage in joint actions.

Thus, co-representation of a shared goal and actions of each partner are viewed as a main mechanism in joint action, perceiving the tasks of one or another participants in joint action. The research demonstrates that the performance of complementary tasks by a participant in a joint activity, in addition to his or her own task, has to be represented. Co-representation involves higher level cognitive abilities, such as explicit perspective-taking or advanced executive function skills (Milward, Kita, & Apperly, 2014; Saby, Bouquet, Marshall, 2014; Atmaca, Sebanz, & Knoblich, 2011; Sebanz, Knoblich, & Prinz, 2003). Studies that have explored a child's ability *to reverse roles with a partner in a joint action* when asked to do so (Saby, Bouquet, Marshall, 2014) have established the origins of the capacity of a child simultaneously to represent the roles of self and other in a joint task. Research with adults has shown that when two adults complete a joint task each person

represents the partner's task in essentially the same way as they represent his or her own task. Specifically, an adult appears to represent a partner's task in a way similar to the way that she or he would if completing the activity alone. Such "co-representation" of a partner's role is thought to facilitate temporal coordination by enabling individuals to prepare their actions in anticipation of their partner's actions. Saby, Bouquet and Marshall (2014) identify this capacity at work when 5 year- olds complete tasks.

Erle & Topolinski (2017, p. 684) refer to the practice of psychologists who investigate psychological perspective-taking by reading a story to a participant or asking him or her to watch a video (most often about a person in distress). They direct the person either to engage in perspective-taking (e.g., "Imagine that you are actually the person in the videotape") or to remain objective (e.g., "Try to take a neutral perspective – be as objective as possible about the situation"). Methods such as this one are efficient ways to teach the skill of perspective-taking. Such research also demonstrates that these methods provide a powerful incentive to empathic response from participants. The resultant perspective-taking leads to the merging of self and other, which in turn precipitates positive social-cognitive outcomes, such as the reduction of expressions of prejudice and use of stereotypes, the motivation of prosocial behaviour and a more positive attitude towards others.

Methodology

The goal of the research is to show the methods deployed by teachers to promote the development of 5-6-year-old's understanding and capacity of taking on the other person's perspective and to foster building up of children's multi-perspective attitude. The research applies a synthesis of Piaget's theory of cognitive constructivism and Vygotsky's theory of social constructivism. The latter theories determined the choice of the interpretational methodological approach. These theories hold that a child constructs his or her own world perception and methods to learn about the world environs through social interaction. The qualitative research approach and content analysis were utilised for data collection and processing.

Participants. Seeking to disclose the methods used by teachers to foster the development of children's capacity of understanding and perspective-taking led the authors of this article to observe the work of 7 teachers working with 147 five to six year olds. The observation permitted the authors both to document the methods the teachers applied and track the situations the teachers created to foster the capacity for understanding and perspective-taking among the children. The method of convenience sampling was applied.

Measurement instruments. Video recording facilities were used to collect data, with all teacher-child and inter-child interactions recorded. In addition, the researchers took notes. During initial observations, the researchers singled out certain situations for

further analysis (situations which were generated by teachers applying certain methods, or situations in which teachers encouraged dual focus among children on their own and the perspectives of one or more others). These situations were then analysed in more depth.

Analysis of research results

The observation of the educational process in early childhood education institutions permits the identification of the principal educational methods tending to promote the capacities for understanding and perspective-taking in children. Educational methods and their influence on these capacities will be further analysed.

Methods that enable children to learn about others' perspectives. A teacher in the group initiated a discussion about homeless people with the questions: "What do you think about homeless people?", "Why don't they [the homeless] have homes?" The answers demonstrated the negative attitude of these 5-6-year-old children towards the homeless. The attitudes were observed to be coupled with negative emotions. Thus, the homeless were judged to live inappropriately, to have chosen their adult paths in childhood, to be destined always to be homeless, to have vices, and to cause the children to be afraid. Here are the responses: "I know that homeless go through people's trash" (Smiltē), "I also have seen one such a homeless man, who used to drink and that is why he was kicked out of his home" (Ieva), "I think, when he was growing up, he decided to start drinking beer in his young days" (Kamīlē), "They can't even earn money and that is why they sleep in the forest" (Joana), "They never learnt, never worked and do not have homes" (Emilē) and "I'm afraid of homeless people" (Joana). The judgements had been reached by the children applying their own perspectives to the homeless and on the basis of their own information about the homeless. Just one child responded empathically, to the situation of a homeless woman: "It is also possible that they are ill and that is why they are thrown out of their homes" (Smiltē). The teacher tried to encourage the children to empathise with the situation of the homeless, but the ensuing discussion did not enable children to look at the situation of homeless people from the perspective of the homeless. The teacher then showed the cartoon film "The Cat's House" to the children. The film is about a cat who throws a party for her friends but does not allow some kittens (her relatives) into the party, although the kittens' home is uninhabitable. After the party, the cat's expensive and pleasant home burns down and the cat becomes homeless. The children responded with empathy to the circumstances of both the kittens and the cat and came to understand that anyone can lose their home. After showing the cartoon the teacher initiated a discussion with the children. The children were able to look at the situation from the perspective of the cat, who had lost her home: "She was lonely" (Joana), "She was cold" (Matas) and "The cat was very frightened and sad" (Emilē) were the responses. After the discussion, the children expressed a more positive and empathetic attitude towards the homeless and even looked

at matters from the perspective of the homeless. Perhaps, the children said, homeless people are in trouble or ill and try but are unable to change their circumstances. Here are their responses: “*Their house may have burned down ... Maybe they lack money and cannot build a house for themselves. They are trying and trying to get money ...and they do not succeed*” (Smiltė), “*You can seriously fall ill and then it can hurt so much that you cannot even build a house*” (Joana) and “*They search for food in the containers. Perhaps something terrible happened to them and they do not have any friends, who could help to build a house*” (Rokas). The children imagined helping the homeless: “*We tried to build a house for homeless kittens*” (Matas). Thus, having mentally and emotionally “placed” themselves in the situation of the formerly rich cat in the cartoon, the children learned more about the causes of homelessness. They were able to approach the situation from the perspective of the other. The children’s comments about the homeless became more positive.

Creative tasks that encourage different interpretations, encouragement of a child to explain his or her own perspective and acceptance of every perspective of children.

Creative tasks involving visible objects promote a variety of perspectives on the object (the concept of the “joint attention object”), and the explanation of a particular perspective to all of the children in a group enables children to comprehend that the same object can be viewed differently and that there can be many, sometimes similar or contrasting, visual perspectives. The truth of these statements was observed in an exercise in which children of 5-6 years gave their responses to a visible object and were encouraged by the teacher to consider other views of it. Through this exercise, a certain discourse scenario was formed, the like of which (according to Moll and Meltzoff, 2011) is necessary for the development of the capacity to compare and confront one’s own and others’ perspectives. Giving equal weight to each child’s perspective on the visual object, the teacher facilitated comprehension of the point that no single perspective is necessarily the correct one. The teacher took a white sheet of paper, crumpled it up, showed it the children and told them: “*Look at this thing. What does it remind you of?*” Martynas responded: “*This is glacier*”. The teacher asked, “*Why do you think that this is glacier?*” (The question was designed to encourage the child to explain the assertion). Martynas (focusing on the object’s colour and form) answered: “*Because it is white and uneven*”. Lukas interrupted Martynas: “*It reminds me of a boat. My dad and I have sailed a boat*” (a perspective based on Lukas’s own experience). The teacher asked Aivaras: “*And what does this thing remind you of?*” Aivaras: “*A ball*”. The teacher: “*Why?*” Aivaras: “*It is round, reminds [me] of a ball and it can be kicked*” (a perspective grounded in observation of the object’s form, Aivaras’s own experience and a forecast of a possible action with the object). The teacher (wishing to articulate for the children the variety of ways of seeing the object) said: “*You are all absolutely right. It really reminds of glacier, of a boat or a ball. It depends on how we see it in our imagination.*”

When a 5-6-year-old is encouraged to explain to others how she or he arrived at a certain idea and what their visualisation intentions were and simultaneously listens to explanations of other children, she or he learns the skill of self-reflection and deepens his or her aptitude for comparing and contrasting his or her own thoughts with those of others.

Initiation and support of children's joint activities to suggest ideas that allow for synchronisation of different perspectives. Children's joint activities promote focus on a joint goal, the synthesis of individual actions with the joint goal, the representation of the others' actions and the synchronisation of the individual's action with the others' actions and the joint goal. Since the joint goal is the object of joint attention, situations emerge in which different perspectives on the object become apparent to the children, leading to acceptance, revision or rejection of the perspectives. The authors observed the response of 5-6-year-old children to a joint goal suggested by a teacher. The teacher had observed that boys from the group, including Augustas, had begun to draw submarines. Thereupon the teacher invited the children to make a submarine out of a large cardboard box.

Situation 1. The achievement of a joint goal where perspective exchange is part of the process. Ieva and Kamilė wanted to decorate the cardboard box submarine by drawing flowers on it. The authors recorded the following discussion. Ieva: "Augustas, can we draw flowers on the ship?" (Request to supplement the joint goal with another action input.) Augustas: "Look, they are drawing flowers on the submarine. This is not the done thing" (a confrontational perspective). The teacher: "Captain, wouldn't you like to create a new kind of submarine that no one has ever seen before?" (A suggestion which potentiates the resolution of the conflict between Ieva and Kamilė and Augustas). Augustas: "OK. Draw whatever you want." (Perspective-taking that revises an earlier perspective). Kamilė: "We are only drawing for girls here. What about drawing something for boys?" (An action suggestion based on perspective-taking of others). Ieva: "Let's draw some cars!" (A suggestion prompted by the perception of a different perspective).

In the first situation the children encountered confronting perspective between boys and girls in respect to the exterior of a model submarine during the submarine-building joint goal activity (*whether it is appropriate to decorate it with flowers or not*). But at the teacher's prompting some of the children accepted a less literal concept of the appearance of a model submarine exterior (a modern submarine). The perspective of the girls who wanted to decorate the exterior was accepted. *Broadening of a stereotypical attitude seeing more opportunities is one of the most important methods of multi-perspective education, which facilitates synchronisation of different perspectives* Additionally, it was observed that, following the resolution of the conflict of perspectives (to decorate or not to decorate the submarine) the girls, inspired by the acceptance of the perspective that they had represented, proceeded to change their activity. Their drawing of cars was a prosocial activity with respect to the boys. The perspective exchange between boys and girls occurred as part of the synchronised progress to the achievement of the goal of the joint action.

Situation 2. Representation of another child's action and forecasting of the child's circumstances. With the help of the teacher, the children made a "porthole" in the box. One by one they tried getting inside the cardboard submarine. During this activity, 3-year-old Julija said: "I haven't tried to get in and out yet". In response, Kamilė said to her: "You will tear the submarine apart". (Representation and forecasting of others' actions and their impact on a joint goal). Ieva: "Let her try". (Understanding of and support of another's desire and intention). Arijus: "She will tear this apart" (points at the hole). Ieva: "We'll make a bigger hole then". (Suggestion as to corrective action). With the group's assistance, Julija successfully got in and out of the box. Ieva: "There! You said she would tear the hole apart". (Observation that forecast consequence did not occur.)

This account of second situation details not simply the actions of the children which led to the achievement of their joint goal but also a) how group members forecast consequences of actions taken and b) group members' retroactivity with respect to whether these forecasts turned out to be accurate or inaccurate. Presenting the stages of theory of mind, Westby and Robinson (2014) assert that at age 5 children's autobiographical memory shows itself, i.e. ability to mentally travel to past, to remember or feel the self through own experience in the past, as well as ability to think about the self in the future, i.e. ability of future time traveling, becomes visible. Future time traveling requires thinking about alternative realities. Some of the 5-6 year olds performed future "time traveling" in the observed situation while simultaneously considering the possible outcomes of the actions of another, younger, child. With respect to this child they assessed the likely consequences of her age and attributes for the outcome of her desired action; and after the fact, they assessed whether these speculations had been correct or wide of the mark.

Establishment of conditions for pretend play, encouragement of children's engagement in the play. The joint pretend play of children can generate situations for the investigation, understanding and adoption of perspectives of others. During play the perspective of the assumed role, the similarities and contrasts between the role assumed and those assumed by other children and the similarities and contrasts between the perspectives of all the children overlap in a complex way.

Game 1. Acceptance of the perspective of the other: the expression of the participant's perspective within the frame of the perspective of the other as integral theme of the game. Domas threw a red handkerchief on a playhouse and shouted: "Help! Fire!" Aivas (who assumed the role of Spiderman) responded: "I'll save you". He ran around, pretending to make a web. Assuming the role of Superman, Jokūbas "flew" with his arms stretched out. In this situation Aivas and Jokūbas understood and accepted the perspective of Domas, which, within the framework of the game, was one of "fire and rescue". Within this frame, the children responded by impersonating superheroes and the actions of superheroes.

Game 2. Multiperspectivity: intervention to make perspectives compatible (the position of the third person). Jokūbas: "I also want to play. I'll be Superman". Gedas: "You do not look like Superman". Jokūbas (emotionally): "But I really really want to ". Aivas: "Let him

play with us". Gedas: "No, we are enough". Jokūbas: "Please". Aivas: "He can play with us". Gedas: "OK". Aivas came to understand Jokūbas' wish to play and Gedas' unwillingness for him to join: that is, he came to adopt the perspectives of each of the other boys. He empathised with the first boy's perspective and therefore attempted to influence the second boy's perspective; he wanted to make the perspective of each compatible with the continuation of the game. The intervention occurred as a result of Aivas taking the perspective of the third person.

Other situations were noted, for example: when one child rejected a game frame because it did not agree with the child's conviction about reality – thus the perspective of another was rejected. In another game, approximation of perspectives was observed when one player in a game adapted a perspective as a result of an encounter with another's perspective. In other games, rules for games were revised following suggestion by members for changes.

Conflict resolution among children; its contribution to the development of children's skills of understanding and perspective-taking. Where conflicts arise between children, there are opportunities for teachers to develop the children's capacity to understand and take others' perspectives, a capacity which encourages children to identify with the attitudes and emotions of others. During the observation, a conflict situation arose among 5-6-year-old children in the playground. The playground had only one swing, so it had to be shared. Otilija suggested to Miglė and Milena, who both wanted to play on it, that they should alternate their occupation of the swing. Kasparas said: "I also want to swing". Otilija: "No, you can't swing. Only we girls can swing". Kasparas asked the teacher for help: "Teacher, Otilija won't let me swing". The teacher advised Kasparas: "Kasparas, say the following to Otilija: 'Otilija, how would you feel if another child was on the swing and wouldn't let you play on it?'" (The teacher suggested to Kasparas that she should ask Otilija to imagine how Otilija would feel if she were the rejected child). Kasparas: "Otilija, if somebody stopped you from swinging, how would you feel?" Here, the teacher taught one child to ask questions that would help the other child to place herself in an other's position and, thus, how better to understand an other's perspective. According to Gehlbach et al. (2015), such situations demonstrate how perspective-taking contributes to conflict resolution. Extent of awareness of another's perspective is also important: the higher the awareness is, the better understood is the perspective.

Conclusions

Observation of teachers' working with 5-6-year-olds showed that teachers utilise a range of methods to create opportunities to enable children better to understand their own perspectives and to understand and come to accept those of others. Teachers also

sought to teach children how to resolve conflicts which arose from clashes of perspectives and how to approximate those perspectives.

It seems that the best pedagogic progress was made when teachers utilised specific methods, for example, films and stories, which encouraged children to emotionally “live out” the perspective of another. They set creative assignments that encouraged children to investigate situations from a variety of perspectives. Teachers also initiated and supported joint activities of children as well as imagination games and encouraged children to engage in such games; teaching children to take on the perspective of others in the situations that arouse from confronting perspectives.

While children were involved in activities, teachers initiated discussions about the feelings and experiences of others which encouraged the children to open themselves to the perspectives of others. Teachers encouraged children to naturally accept all the perspectives of others enabling them to understand that they can be as valid as their own.

The teachers also created multi-perspective situations in which children could see own perspectives and those of others as well as situations, where conflicts between perspectives arose. These allowed the children to understand that there might be several perspectives on the same situation, phenomenon or thing.

The educators also intervened to expand the stereotypical attitude towards perspectives. They created situations in which children had the opportunity to combine different perspectives, represent the joint goal and actions of participants in joint activities and make forecasts about consequences of those actions that might be taken in the situation.

The research shows that the self-reflective acceptance of the role of the other (Stage 2) is characteristic of 5-6-year-old children. This is because they are able to compare their own perspectives with conflicting ones, i.e. to represent and forecast the consequences of the actions of others. In some situations acceptance of the perspective of the third person or mutual acceptance (Stage 3) is observed because children evaluate different perspectives from the third person’s perspective. So far the third person’s position is emphatic understanding about what is right in a specific situation.

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Ikimokyklinio amžiaus vaikų įvairiapusio požiūrio plėtojimą skatinantys pedagoginiai būdai

Ona Monkevičienė¹, Birutė Autukevičienė²

- 1 Vytauto Didžiojo universiteto Švietimo akademija, Mokytojų rengimo institutas, T. Ševčenkos g. 31, 03111 Vilnius, Lietuva, ona.monkeviciene@vdu.lt
- 2 Vytauto Didžiojo universiteto Švietimo akademija, Mokytojų rengimo institutas, T. Ševčenkos g. 31, 03111 Vilnius, Lietuva, birute.autukeviciene@vdu.lt

Santrauka

Gebėjimai priimti kito požiūrį ir įvairiapusis vaikų požiūris yra jų socialinės kompetencijos pagrindas. Edukaciniu požiūriu yra svarbu atskleisti, kokie pedagogų taikomi būdai padeda vaikams ugdytis savo ir kito požiūrio supratimą, kito požiūrio priėmimą bei įvairiapusio požiūrio pradmenis.

Straipsnyje aptariami savo ir kito požiūrio supratimo, kito požiūrio priėmimo gebėjimai (perceptiniai, kognityviniai, afektiniai). Analizuojant kito požiūrio supratimo ir priėmimo raidos etapus ikimokyklinėje vaikystėje, atkreipiamas dėmesys į tai, kad ilgą laiką vizualinio-erdvinio požiūrio priėmimas ir socialinio arba psichologinio požiūrio priėmimas buvo tyrinėjami atskirai, remiantis skirtingais empiriniais metodais. Straipsnyje gretinami tyrėjų atskirai analizuoti socialinio požiūrio priėmimo ir vizualinio-erdvinio požiūrio priėmimo etapai, pateikiant autorių išvalgas apie bendrus raidos dėsniumus. Straipsnyje taip pat sisteminami tyrimai, pagrindžiantys kito požiūrio priėmimo ir įvairiapusio požiūrio ugdymosi ypatumus.

Pristatomas autorių atliktas kokybinis tyrimas, kurio tikslas – atskleisti pedagogų patirtį taikant kito požiūrio priėmimo skatinimo būdus 5–6 metų vaikų ugdymo procese. Tyrimas atskleidė, kad pedagogai taiko daug būdų, padedančių vaikams geriau suprasti savo požiūrį, suprasti ir priimti kito požiūrį, suprasti savo ir kitų priešingus požiūrius ir juos derinti. Tai

yra būdai, padedantys vaikams daugiau sužinoti apie kitokius požiūrius: filmukais ar kitomis formomis pateiktos istorijos, padedančios emociškai įsijausti į kito situaciją; kūrybinės užduotys, skatinančios vaikus interpretuoti skirtingus požiūrius; bendrės vaikų veiklos inicijavimas ir palaikymas; vaizduotę žadinančių žaidimų organizavimas ir vaikų įsitraukimo į šiuos žaidimus skatinimas; mokymas persikelti į kito poziciją situacijose, kuriose susiduria priešingi vaikų požiūriai, ir kt.

Vaikams įsitraukus į tokią veiklą, pedagogai skatina diskusijas apie tai, ką jaučia, patiria, kaip mąsto kiti; skatina atskleisti, paaiškinti savo požiūrį, klausytis kitų, stengiantis suprasti jų požiūrį; natūraliai priima visus požiūrius, leisdami vaikams suprasti, kad visi jie turi vienodą vertę. Pedagogai kuria įvairialypes situacijas, kuriose vaikai mato savo ir kelis kitų požiūrius; kuria priešingus požiūrius atspindinčias situacijas, kad vaikai suprastų, jog gali būti du ar keli skirtingi požiūriai į tą pačią situaciją, reiškinį ar daiktą. Pedagogai teikia pasiūlymus, praplečiančius stereotipinį požiūrį į savo ir kitų veiklą; kuria situacijas, kuriose vaikai mokosi derinti skirtingus požiūrius, reprezentuoti bendrą tikslą, priimti bendros veiklos partnerio veiksmus ir prognozuoti tų veiksmų pasekmes.

Esminiai žodžiai: *vaikas, ikimokyklinis ugdymas, kito požiūrio priėmimas, įvairiapusis požiūris.*

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