

DISCUSSING ACTS OF VIOLENCE IN THE
CLASSROOM:
A Teacher's Perspective

Master's thesis
Laura Salonen

University of Jyväskylä
Department of Language and Communication Studies
English
June 2018

JYVÄSKYLÄN YLIOPISTO

Tiedekunta – Faculty Humanistis-yhteiskuntatieteellinen tiedekunta	Laitos – Department Kieli- ja viestintätieteiden laitos
Tekijä – Author Laura Salonen	
Työn nimi – Title Discussing Acts of Violence in the Classroom: A Teacher’s Perspective	
Oppiaine – Subject Englanti	Työn laji – Level Pro gradu
Aika – Month and year Kesäkuu 2018	Sivumäärä – Number of pages 82 + 2 liitettä
Tiivistelmä – Abstract <p>Tässä pro gradu –työssä tarkastelen eri väkivallan tekojen käsittelyä luokkahuoneessa opettajan näkökulmasta. Tämä työ on luonteeltaan kirjallisuuskatsaus, jossa eri tutkimuskirjallisuuteen perustuen esittelen erilaisia toimintaohjeita kouluille ja opettajille kriisitilanteissa. Tämän tutkielman kohderyhmänä ovat 12-19 –vuotiaiden oppilaiden opettajat, erityisesti kieltenopettajat, sillä yläkoulussa ja lukiossa oppilailla on useimmiten ryhmänohjaaja, joka voi olla minkä tahansa aineen opettaja.</p> <p>Aluksi käyn läpi kriisien ja väkivallan eri muotoja keskittyen erityisesti väkivaltaiseen ekstremismiin ja terrorismiin. Selvitän esimerkiksi, miten eri lähteissä kuvaillaan terroristiryhmien rekrytointikeinoja ja terroristien mahdollisia motiiveja. Kappaleessa 3 esittelen tutkimuksia opettajista jotka ovat käsitelleet väkivaltaisia tapahtumia oppilaidensa kanssa eri tavoin, esimerkiksi USA:n vuoden 2001 9/11 –iskujen jälkeen. Tämän jälkeen tuon esiin materiaaleja, joissa tarkastellaan radikalisoitumisen ja väkivaltaisen ekstremismin ehkäisemistä kouluissa. Keskityn erityisesti Suomen, Yhdistyneen Kuningaskunnan sekä Yhdysvaltojen väkivaltaisen ekstremismin ehkäisystrategioihin ja -ohjelmiin, sekä aiheesta julkaistuihin materiaalipaketteihin opettajille. Keskustelen myös mahdollisesta luokkahuoneessa esiintyvistä vihapuheesta ja kiusaamisesta sekä mahdollisista väkivaltaiseen ekstremismiin liittyvistä varoitusmerkeistä oppilaissa.</p> <p>Kappaleessa 5 esittelen eri lähteistä koostettuja toimintaohjeita opettajille, miten toimia käsitellessä väkivallan tekoja luokkahuoneessa, millaista toimintaa tulisi välttää ja mitkä ovat mahdollisia eettisiä ja ammatillisia ongelmakohtia. Esittelen myös kriisisuunnitelmaohjeita perustuen Suomen Opetushallituksen ohjeistuksiin. Kappaleen lopussa keskustelen käytännön esimerkkinä elokuun 2017 Turun puukotustapauksesta Suomessa. Tähän liittyen analysoin kahden eri kunnan lähettämää toimintaohjeita alueidensa kouluille.</p> <p>Lopuksi yhteenvedossa tuon ilmi opettajiin kohdistuvan tutkimuksen lisäyksen tärkeyttä. Tutkielmaa tehdessä kävi ilmi, että opettajien reaktioita väkivaltaan, kuten esimerkiksi kouluampumisiin tai terrorismiin, on tutkittu suhteellisen vähän. Kuitenkaan opettajien merkitystä ja tärkeyttä koulu yhteisössä ei kukaan voi kiistää.</p>	
Asiasanat – Keywords Koulutus, väkivaltainen ekstremismi, kriisit, opettajat	
Säilytyspaikka – Depository JYX	
Muita tietoja – Additional information	

CONTENTS

CONTENTS 3

Introduction 5

1 **CRISES** 9

 1.1. What is a crisis..... 9

 1.2. Different crisis scenarios 10

 1.3. Individual’s processing phases of a crisis..... 11

 1.4. Social media and its role during crises 12

2 **FORMS OF VIOLENCE** 15

 2.1. Terrorism 15

 2.1.1. The aims of terrorism 17

 2.1.2. Terrorism and war – one and the same?..... 18

 2.1.3. Making a murderer – what makes a terrorist?..... 20

 2.1.4. Fighting terrorism..... 22

 2.2. Extremism & violent extremism..... 24

 2.3. Other forms of violence 26

3 **IN THE FACE OF TERROR – TEACHER EXPERIENCES**..... 29

4 **PREVENTING VIOLENT EXTREMISM THROUGH EDUCATION** 35

 4.1. Governmental prevention strategies of violent extremism around the world 36

 4.1.1. Finland..... 36

 4.1.2. The United Kingdom..... 37

 4.1.3. The United States 38

 4.2. Material and guidelines for teachers..... 39

 4.2.1. Material by the Finnish National Agency for Education 40

 4.2.2. Extreme Dialogue..... 42

 4.2.3. Material by UNESCO 43

4.2.4.	Other resources.....	47
4.3.	Hate speech and bullying among students.....	49
4.4.	What if it is one of my students?	51
5	A SUMMARY OF GUIDELINES FOR TEACHERS	53
5.1.	The dos and don'ts.....	54
5.1.1.	Things to do.....	55
5.1.2.	Things to avoid.....	58
5.2.	Things to consider as a teacher	61
5.3.	Crisis management in Finnish schools	63
5.4.	Violence and schools – why is discussion important	66
5.4.1.	Example case: Turku stabbing in August 2017 and the response in two Finnish cities	68
6	CONCLUSION	71
	REFERENCES.....	73
	APPENDICES.....	83
	Appendix 1 – Education Division of the city of Turku: Instructions for schools after the Turku stabbing on 18 August, 2017.....	83
	Appendix 2 – Educational and Cultural services of the city of Oulu: Instructions sent to principals after the Turku stabbing on 18 August, 2017	84

Introduction

Violence happens all over the world, every day. Violence can have a far reaching impact, affecting an enormous number of communities and individuals – such as schools and teachers. After a violent incident, teachers can often find themselves in the very heart of action, while being surrounded by students. Students, who might be anxious to find information and who can possibly be more vulnerable to traumatic events compared to the teacher. Teachers have to be prepared to assess the situation and help their students to process all the information they are constantly bombarded with. The aim of this thesis is to do just that – gather and discuss information from various sources to give teachers tools and knowledge to help them reflect the possible violent incident themselves and with their students.

When I was working as a teacher for the first time in 2016 in a language course in England, a truck drove into a crowd in Nice, France, killing 86 people and injuring almost 500. I had French students in my class at that time, some of them with family, friends and relatives in Nice. I had no idea what to do, how to help them in their grief and their feelings of helplessness. This is the main incentive for me to write this thesis on this topic – to help myself and other teachers not to shy away from assessing an event like this and providing the students with the support and comfort that they need with the help of professionals and research applicable to a classroom situation.

In this thesis, I wanted to focus on human inflicted violence, thus excluding natural disasters, since they are in most cases in no way preventable, which can lead to people processing them very differently compared to other violent incidents, such as terrorist attacks, school shootings or domestic violence. I also wanted to focus more on violence that happens outside of the school, since it is often given less attention in, for example, schools' crisis management plans.

The target group that could mostly benefit from the guidelines discussed in this thesis is teachers, especially language teachers, who have students aged from 12 to 19. This age group in Finland is usually in either upper level or upper secondary school where there are no specific

classroom teachers, but subject teachers. Every subject teacher might have their own assigned “home class”, which they might see approximately once a week. Thus, if there is a violent incident, all teachers have a shared responsibility to discuss the issue with their students. Regardless of the subject one teaches, teachers also have a role as pedagogues.

As a language teacher, I wanted to compile a comprehensive set of information and instructions for fellow teachers who might have to or feel the need to discuss a traumatic incident, such as a terrorist attack, in the classroom with their students. This thesis is a literature review that discusses different source literature on the topic of violence, crisis events, violent extremism and crisis management from the viewpoint of a language teacher. I also present different guidelines made by governmental institutions, such as the Finnish National Agency for Education. While I have targeted these guidelines for language teachers in Finland, I have gone through materials from Finnish National Agency for Education and also referring to the Finnish National Core Curriculum. As the issues are more or less universal, they can possibly be applied elsewhere in the world as well. The core idea is to help teachers to assess a crisis in a safe, efficient and empathic way.

Below, I will first discuss the notion of crises in chapter one. Chapter two focuses on different forms of violence, such as terrorism and extremism. . I will discuss issues such as the mental state of terrorist and violent extremists, the motives they might have, and how the recruitment processes of terrorist organizations work. Further on, I will discuss other forms of violence, such as school shootings. The aim of the first two chapters is to broaden one’s horizons on the topic beyond the general level of knowledge. The area is prone to misunderstanding and assumptions, which is why it is important to discuss them from different viewpoints.

Chapter three focuses on research on teachers who have experienced and discussed different violent events in their classroom, such as the September 11 attacks in the US in 2001. Unfortunately, not many studies have been conducted or published that focus on teachers – after violent events that affect schools the focus is often on the students and their reactions. The results of the discussed studies have shown that many schools and individual teachers have very different viewpoints and behavioral models, for example, when discussing, or choosing not to discuss, a violent event in the classroom. It is true that younger people can often be more

vulnerable in traumatic events – but for example in a school shooting, the teachers and other school personnel are victims too. A lot is expected from the teacher, and if a violent event happens, there often is no time to plan one's response. Teachers often have to act on instinct in such cases, and as the research discussed in chapter five shows, the approaches can vary greatly between individual teachers and different schools.

The fourth chapter focuses on a current and somewhat controversial theme, which is whether or not it is possible to prevent violent extremism and radicalization through education and different prevention programs. Radicalization is not related to any specific nationality, gender, religion or ethnicity, thus being an important topic for every teacher, since it can happen anywhere and to anyone. I will discuss the governmental prevention programs concerning educational institutions of three countries: Finland, the United Kingdom and the United States. In recent years, much educational material has been published on the topic and some selected ones are introduced and analyzed so that teachers can get some examples of what is available to them and they could possibly use in their own classroom. These materials will be then used as reference material for chapter five.

I also wanted to discuss possible bullying and hate speech, which is a growing problem, for example in Finland, where the amount of hate crimes has risen rapidly in recent years. Violence and terrorism often create mistrust, prejudice and hate between social groups as a byproduct, that can lead to more violence. For this reason, I wanted to bring up the subject of hate speech, as it is intertwined with extremism and can be very visible in schools. School environments can be very homogenous, thus creating a possibly fruitful platform for teachers and educators to intervene to such behavior and encourage tolerance and acceptance. These topics are discussed at the end of chapter four.

In chapter five, I gathered and summarized information from different sources to put together a set of instructions for teachers. I based my summary on the different sources and materials presented in chapter four, including some additional material. My aim is to present most commonly discussed ideas and guidelines on how to discuss acts of violence in the classroom and to view them from a teacher's perspective. The chapter is divided into dos and don'ts according to what different source materials say on how the teacher could discuss a violent

event in their classroom in a safe and effective way. I will also discuss some of the possible issues that can arise for teachers. These include different kinds of ethical and professional problems teachers might face and have to consider in such times. I also present crisis management instructions for Finnish schools by the Finnish National Agency for Education. Next, I argue how violence can affect schools and why discussion and reflection with students after violent events is important. I also present an example case of a terrorist attack in Turku Finland in April 2017 and how the event was managed in Finnish schools. Lastly, in chapter six the different aspects of this thesis are summarized and discussed. I will also reflect on the fact that existing research on teachers and their reactions to violent events is very minimal, an issue that arose during the writing process of this thesis.

1 CRISES

Schools are often very tight-knit and large communities that are strongly affected by different events. In this chapter, different aspects of crises will be explored: crisis as a phenomenon, different possible crisis scenarios that can affect schools, individual's processing phases of a crisis, and how crises can affect an individual, and also a larger community, such as a school. I also wanted to bring up social media and its role during crises; social media is nowadays always present in young people's lives as they use it on a day to day basis. It is an easy and widely used source of information, in both good and in bad.

1.1. What is a crisis

According to Rautava (2017), a crisis is a situation that is caused by sudden, unexpected and extraordinarily strong event. However, one might argue that also something very expected can lead to a crisis, such as death after a long, terminal illness. Nevertheless, when crisis hits it can still feel sudden. As schools are often large communities, there are also a lot of possible sources for crises. Different crisis scenarios are practically endless, but in order for schools to make effective crisis management plans, which are further discussed in section 5.3., it would be wise to make the management plan flexible and easy to modify to fit different situations. Possible crisis scenarios can be caused, for instance, by accidents, violent events, sudden changes in financial or social status, and death (Hill 2003). Schools are especially vulnerable settings in times of crisis, since most students (and possibly some teachers and other personnel) might have little experience of crises due to their young age (Rautava 2017).

Hill (2003: v) states that every teacher she personally knows is a crisis manager. If a teacher has a classroom full of students and teach the same people for a longer period of time, a crisis is bound to happen to at least one of them at some point in time. It is unpredictable how a person reacts in a crisis situation. When a crisis does occur, for a student for instance, it is important for an adult or a teacher to be prepared by establishing procedures and policies on what to do (Hill 2003, 148-149). Being prepared can also bring a sense of calm. Possible crises can also

be discussed in the classroom beforehand, even if the subject is not necessarily crucial at the moment.

An incident does not have to happen physically near to have a strong impact. Because of global mobility, people move around, travel, and migrate, which makes the world more connected. For example, the 9/11 terrorist attack in the US in 2001 had an extremely strong global impact. Many lives were lost and many families and friends fell into grief all around the world for losing loved ones or people they knew, as New York is a very multicultural city with strong international connections. New York is also well represented in popular culture, such as in music, movies and TV series, thus known to people all over the world. Through these factors, among many others, people's sense of safety was compromised. 9/11 had consequences that affected global economics, air travel and security, just to mention a few areas.

1.2. Different crisis scenarios

In this thesis, the main focus is on different crisis events related to human inflicted violence that happen outside of the school, excluding natural disasters such as floods, hurricanes or earthquakes. All Finnish schools are instructed by the Finnish National Agency for Education (2013) to have a crisis management plan, where crisis events in the school are assessed, for example a student's or a staff member's death or difficult illness, a fire or a traffic accident. In this section, a selection of a few different possible crisis scenarios related to human inflicted violence are explored.

One of the most common scenarios that can lead to a crisis in a school nowadays is a terrorist attack. Terrorism is given the most space in this thesis as well and is discussed further in section 2.1.. Currently, terrorist attacks happen approximately every day, and, for example, there were 22,487 attacks in 2017. However, the number of civilian casualties is decreasing (Henman 2018). Terrorist attacks can be divided into two types: those conducted by organized terrorist groups, such as ISIS (also known as IS, ISIL, Islamic state or Daesh) or Al-Qaeda, or "lone wolves", such as probably in the Turku stabbing incident in Finland in August 2017 or the Oslo and Utøya attacks in Norway in July 2011.

In addition to terrorist attacks, random acts of violence or other sudden violent incidents that can lead to a crisis in schools might be, for example, regular traffic accidents. Some incidents might be suspected to be terrorism at first. For example, when a car injured 11 pedestrians in London, UK in October 2017, many people quickly concluded that it was a terrorist attack, similar to those where a car has been driven to a crowd trying to kill and injure people. Similar attacks had already been seen multiple times, such as in London, United Kingdom in March 2017, Barcelona, Spain in August 2017 and Nice, France in July 2016. The London incident had many eyewitnesses and rumors started to circulate immediately since the reaction to the accident was so severe; the area was a popular tourist destination (as in many previous attacks), a large number of police officers arrived to the area immediately and many businesses were put into lockdown (Sawer & Harley, 2017). Other forms of violence, such as school shootings, domestic violence, sexual abuse and kidnappings are further discussed in section 2.3.

1.3. Individual's processing phases of a crisis

Processing a crisis event is always individual and it is important for a teacher to respect everyone's personal way of going through a difficult time. This is something that the students might also need some reminding of. A person usually goes through four different phases in times of crisis, which will be discussed in this section, mostly according to Rautava (2017) and Hammarlund (2001: 98-100). For a teacher, it is good to be aware of this since students might show signs of going through these phases after they have faced a crisis in their life.

Hammarlund (2001) and Rautava (2017) present four processing phases of a crisis; phase one is *the shock phase*, which might last from only a few hours to a few days. In the first phase, people may act irrationally or inappropriately, and it is important to remember that a person going through this phase might not be aware of it. Moving to the second phase, which is *the reaction phase* that can last from a few weeks up to a month. In this phase, the reality is sinking in and denial of what happened lessens. Psychological defense mechanisms start working, but different physical symptoms might appear, such as anxiety, insomnia, aggression or depression. A person might start trying to find different ways to escape the reality, for example, with drugs

or alcohol. These strong emotions might feel unbearable, but are an important part of the healing process.

Phase three is *the processing phase*, or in Hammarlund (2001), *the repair phase*, and it can last from a few months up to a year. What has happened is accepted and time spent processing the crisis event decreases. The event is actively processed and the healing can begin, and the possible defense mechanisms can be discarded as they are no longer as needed as in the previous phases. The fourth and final phase, *the readjustment phase*, is when the final healing happens. A person may never be the same after a crisis, but best case scenario they feel stronger and better prepared to face future hardships. The crisis event is integrated into their personality and the pain has transferred into a memory.

1.4. Social media and its role during crises

Social media has a huge role in distributing news and information at lightning speed. For many people, Facebook, Instagram, Twitter and other social media platforms can be their main source of news. This can be problematic, since not all information shared on social media sites is verified or trustworthy. Fraustino et al. (2012) cites some common reasons on why people use social media in times of crisis, which are for example: for convenience, to seek unfiltered and timely information on the incident and its magnitude, because of social norms or to check with family and friends. Why people might not use social media can be, for example, concerns for privacy, security and accuracy or because of access issues. In addition to media criticism, students should also be instructed on how to act responsibly during and after an incident. In this section, some pros and cons of social media during crisis events are discussed further.

The younger generation is used to receiving information immediately. Owning a smartphone basically gives you an almost unlimited access to everything that is happening around the world, both in good and in bad. Hammarlund (2001: 58) states that today's people receive more information in a week that some people used to receive in their lifetime – though he does emphasize the difference between information and knowledge. Not nearly all the information that circulates after an incident is factual. Young students might not realize this, so for instance

media criticism, critical reading skills and persuasion strategies are very important skills to teach. Helping the students to find trustworthy sources for news and to be critical of social media is vital in modern education. Giving examples of fake news sites, comparing them to credible ones, and explaining and practicing on how to spot some indicators of possible unreliability, such as not citing any sources or giving inaccurate information, could be an example of teaching such an issue.

Dreyfuss (2017) discusses the fact that by publishing or sharing photos, videos and other information, you are also spreading the fear and horror. This is exactly what the terrorists want. They need social media to spread their message, and often people do just that without even realizing it. The police often have to remind people not to take photos on scenes of accidents, since they can also be very damaging and even traumatizing to the families and friends of the possible victims. Hammarlund (2001: 58) also states that when something bad and unexpected happens, the people of today immediately want to find a scapegoat, someone to blame and someone that could have supposedly prevent it from happening. This has led to people and media publishing photos of alleged perpetrators of attacks without any confirmation from authoritative sources. For example, after the Boston marathon bombing in April 2013 many pictures were released by social media users of different people, for instance on Reddit, claiming they were somehow involved in the attack. *New York Post*, for instance, also published incorrect information on the victims and perpetrators (Killoran 2013).

During crises, social media is often quoted in mass media as a source for information (Klausen 2015). This is naturally very risky, since there is no particularly quick way to find out the source's credibility and reliability. This may also lead to circular reporting, where a publication quotes an unverified source and then another publication quotes the first one as a credible source, and so after a few cross-references the original source might get lost in the process. Social media users can provide a lot of first-hand information if they have been present during the incident. This can leave a lot of room for misunderstandings and exaggeration. During crises people may act irrationally, so they might publish something without considering it further, such as a photo of a "suspicious person" that can then begin to circulate around the internet. This sort of misinformation might also make police investigations more difficult (Dreyfuss 2017). Young people might be especially prone to this sort of behavior, since they are often used to using social media as a way to convey and receive information. Nowadays most people

carry their phones with them, and when something happens, one of people's first reactions is to take out their phone.

Social media can also prove to be very useful in a positive way for spreading information quickly. One example could be Facebook's Safety Check feature, where Facebook asks you if you are safe during an incident, for example an earthquake, a building collapse or a mass shooting, if you are around that area. Some of your Facebook friends will then receive a notification that you are safe and that is also visible on your Facebook wall according to Facebook's Help Centre. Even though the feature might be very helpful on informing one's family and friends that they are safe, what if someone is not? According to Fraustino et al. (2012), a study made by American Red Cross found that 75% expected help to arrive in an hour if they posted about their distress on social media, for example in a violent incident. This means that instead of calling for help themselves, they essentially wait for someone else to do it instead. This again highlights the importance of teaching how to use social media responsibly.

2 FORMS OF VIOLENCE

In this chapter, different forms of violence are explored and why being aware of them is important for teachers. Violence is universal and often unpredictable, sudden and shocking. Every teacher may encounter a situation or an incident they need to handle with their students. Violence has many forms, and in this chapter terrorism, extremism and violent extremism are discussed the most, in addition to other forms of violence, such as domestic violence, school shootings, and sexual violence. I have chosen these since they are often on the news and make the headlines, which may lead to students being curious about them and wanting to know more. For a teacher, factual knowledge and being aware of the underlying context of violent events is important. In addition, the context and reasoning behind a violent event is also often what the students want to know more about.

2.1. Terrorism

To discuss terrorist attacks, one should first understand what terrorism actually is and what the term contains. In the classroom, students might be especially curious about the psychology of terrorism, where do terrorists come from and “what is wrong with them”. For teachers, it is naturally beneficial to educate themselves on the matter, since the public opinion can be very far from the truth. In this section, the concept of terrorism, terrorist groups and terrorism in general is explored more and some common myths about terrorists are discussed. Townshend (2002: 3) states that terrorism is very difficult to define, since the term is often given to a group from the outside and not voluntarily adopted by the group itself. It is said that one man’s terrorist is another one’s freedom fighter, so a terrorist or the community they operate in might not see them as such.

A simplified and summarized definition for terrorism could be that a group or an individual intends to do or does physical, material and/or psychological harm because of ideological, political or religious reasons, based on the sources referenced in this section. Legal definitions

for terrorism are multiple, each nation having a slightly different variation. For example, in the UK Terrorism Act 2000 terrorism is defined, in short, as the use or threat of action where a person tries to influence the government or to intimidate the public. It can also involve serious damage to a person, property or an electronic system, endanger a person's life or public safety and health. In the United States, the term "terrorism" is defined as "premeditated, politically motivated violence perpetrated against non-combatant targets by subnational groups or clandestine agents" (Title 22 of the United States Code, Section 2656f). But, due to the random, indiscriminate and sudden nature of terrorism, there are numerous definitions.

From the point of view of an individual, terrorism is a complex psychological phenomenon. One of humans' basic assumptions is that they are a good person – everyone believes they themselves are fighting on the side of right and that their intentions are good, even though their actions might not be (Hammarlund 2001: 14). It is said that people judge others by their worst actions, but themselves by their best intentions. But what makes people believe that killing seemingly innocent people is justified? This is further discussed in section 2.1.4..

Motives for terrorism are multiple, but religious and political motives are on the rise (Townshend 2002: 96-97). Many active terrorist groups, such as Islamic state, Al-Qaeda, Taliban, and Boko Haram can be identified as religious terrorist groups since their agendas and motives are strongly related to religion, for example the Bible, the Quran or the sharia-law, and most group members are religious extremists. The motives of the groups could also be argued to be political. For example, in many, if not in most, Middle-Eastern states politics and religion are so intertwined it is difficult to distinguish them from one another. For example, many laws originate from religious texts, such as the Quran.

What makes extremism and terrorism especially dangerous and frightening is the selection of targets: basically anyone outside of the group is an enemy and thus their killing is justified, since "infidels" or wrong-believers must be eliminated (Townshend 2002: 98-99). The targets for terrorist attacks are seemingly random, which makes it also very unpredictable. It is good to be aware that there are also many types of terrorism and many ways to categorize it; for example Europol (2017) categorizes terrorism according to the perpetrators and what kind of ideology they represent. These categories include jihadist terrorism, ethno-nationalist and

separatist terrorism, left-wing and anarchist terrorism, right-wing terrorism and single issue terrorism.

In some cases, it has turned out to be difficult to define whether an act of violence is considered terrorism or not, such as in the Las Vegas massacre, Nevada US, in October 2017, where a man opened fire from a hotel window, killing 58 and injuring 851 people. In the Las Vegas massacre whether it can be labelled as terrorism might be questionable, since the perpetrator's motives remain unknown for now and usually terrorism is strongly linked to promoting a certain ideology, for example political or religious. In a protest in Charlottesville, Virginia US, in August 2017, a man drove a car into a crowd of anti-protesters in a Unite the Right rally, killing one person and injuring 19. The perpetrator was a supporter of the far-right movement that was rallying in Charlottesville on that day, making the act of violence a deliberate attack to kill or injure people who think differently. This was domestic terrorism for some, but others disagreed, or just avoided giving the attack the stamp of terrorism, for instance, President Trump (Wilson, Helmore & Swaine 2017.) Both Las Vegas and Charlottesville attacks happened in the US and the perpetrator was an American citizen. Even though the act might fit into the definition of terrorism, often if the perpetrator does not fit into the stereotypical image of a terrorist, describing the act as terrorism is avoided, for example, in media.

2.1.1. The aims of terrorism

The main aim of terrorism is, simply put, to incite fear and terror (Bongar 2007). By killing people in random public places, such as the subway, a market place or a busy street, the terrorists send a message that no one is safe. Terrorist attacks often gain a lot of media attention, especially if it happens in the Western world, which aids in spreading the message. Bongar (2007) states that it can be said that terrorists have primary targets and secondary targets: the primary targets are those who are killed or injured, which can be just a random selection of people who happen to be present during the attack. The secondary target is the nation or the community – terrorism affects people's sense of security and makes them wary of the future. As many primary victims as possible create even more secondary victims and psychological consequences. For example, in the year 2004, three years after the 9/11 attacks, more than three-

quarters of Americans expected their country to have a major terrorist attack in the near future (Council of Excellence in Government 2004, cited in Atran 2004).

It has been argued that the most important tool of a terrorist is fear, not a gun or a bomb (Murphy 2004, cited in Bongar 2007: 8). By creating fear, the terrorists might hope the country would invest money and resources in improving security, and then them omitting those enhanced security measures thus creating even more fear (Bongar 2007). The threat of a new attack is ever present. No country's resources are endless and are always taken from somewhere else, in this case, for example, monitoring drug trade or smaller crimes, such as burglaries. This then creates distrust towards the government and towards people who seemingly represent the terrorists, for example, a religious community or immigrants. By creating this atmosphere of hate, distrust and even segregation the terrorists enhance their own status, and this way the reactions to terrorism may be even more dangerous than terrorism itself (McCauley 2007).

Townshend (2002: 13-14) cites Most's *Philosophy of the Bomb* and applies its ideas to what terrorists might be aiming for: First, the violence and terrorist attacks will get the attention of the public, which then creates turmoil about political issues, such as safety. The violence is then used as "a cleansing force" and becomes a tool for empowerment – repeating violence is a threat to the state and might cause delegitimizing reactions. The violence will push society towards a social breakdown, or at least destabilize the social order. In the final stage, according to Most (Townshend 2002: 13), "the people reject government and turn to the 'terrorists'". Townshend states that terrorists simply use violence as a political strategy and their belief in it is strong, possibly because it is shocking, gains a lot of attention very quickly and spreads wide.

2.1.2. Terrorism and war – one and the same?

In many countries, the army is compulsory for a certain group of people, often the male population. People might also be strongly encouraged to join the army. In a state of war, this basically means that it is possible for the soldiers to die for their country and to be demanded to kill others. Moreover, plainly, in war, one of the soldiers' primary goals is to kill or eliminate the enemy. Atran (2004) points out that even though this is a common way of thinking, for

example for religious terrorist groups, such as jihadists, the crisis is ongoing. Religious terrorist groups can see that sacrifices, such as suicide bombings, are considered necessary as long as there are non-believers in the world.

Townshend (2002: 6-7) distinguishes terrorism from war by stating that war is something that states do, and terrorism is done by people too weak to openly resist or contest the state. However, he adds that this definition is far from comprehensive. Terrorists are also ready to attack random, unarmed targets, whereas in war the targets are usually selected and civilian casualties avoided. But if we think of for example the dropping of the atomic bombs to Hiroshima and Nagasaki in Japan during World War II, which killed approximately 129 000 people, most of who were civilians, this statement loses its validity.

Terrorism and war might use similar tactics, for example dehumanizing the enemy. Dehumanizing strategies can be used, for example, in propaganda, social media releases and speech amongst the in-group members. This is a psychological strategy to help a person not to suffer from guilt and shame that comes from killing another person by taking away their individuality, autonomy, and personality. People are lead to believe that the other side is somehow different and less of a human. They are given a label, which groups them all together as indistinguishable mass. People on all sides of conflicts do this all the time, by referring to other people as animals: dogs, pigs, rats or insects, or as bad people who do not deserve to live (Haslam 2006.) For example, jihadist or other religious terrorist organizations often refer to the out-group as “infidels”, as they represent a different religion, or a different interpretation of the same religion (Botha & Abdile 2014). As Townshend (2002: 16) puts it, there is neither “killing in cold blood” nor “heat of the battle”, but stripping the other side of its human qualities.

What we can gather from all of this, is that war and terrorism are both ugly. After a civil war people look back in horror on how they were capable of suddenly turning against their own neighbors. People may think: never again will we allow something like this to happen – but everyone has different opinions and might see some battles as more justified than others. Townshend (2002: 15) states that war is more physical, whereas terrorism is more mental. In terrorism, creating fear and terror is often the main goal, whereas in war it can be just a byproduct. McCauley (2007) argues quite accurately that everyone is capable of doing terrorist

acts under the right circumstances and that no one blames their own soldiers or police of terrorism after they have killed someone, as if the nature of killing is somehow different when done for the right reasons for them. Terrorists can see their own actions just as justified.

2.1.3. Making a murderer – what makes a terrorist?

After a terrorist attack, the general public, and possibly many of the students, might want to know as much as possible about the perpetrator(s). It is difficult for a person to understand what drives someone to do something so atrocious and horrible, such as a bombing at a subway station or driving a van or a truck into a crowd on purpose. People want to assume that there is something wrong with them, that they are somehow mental, crazy or just born evil. The questions of why and how one becomes a terrorist are examined in this section.

Studies have yet to find “a terrorist personality”. It has been observed that people who are considered terrorists are often very ordinary people (Townshend 2002: 20-21, McCauley 2007, Bongar 2007). A common misconception about terrorists is that they are a certain gender, ethnicity and age. This has not been proven to be correct. McCauley (2007) also gives interesting information about the 9/11 terrorist attacks’ perpetrators: most were highly educated and came from regular middle-class families. He points out though that some lone attackers who do not operate in a group might suffer from some form of psychological issues. Also many lonely attackers have, for example, an online support group that can encourage violence (Ministry of the Interior 2015). What they may also experience, for instance, is deep hatred, frustration and anger, but it has also been said that terrorist acts often derive from love for the in-group, not from hate for the out-group.

Terrorists are created by circumstances. Strong group dynamics are at play by favoring the members and discriminating the outsiders and differences between the two groups are strongly exaggerated (Moghaddam, 2007). Sometimes the motivation to become a terrorist might be money to lift one’s family out of poverty. However, the perception that most terrorists come from poor families and are uneducated is false and not a sufficient explanation for why a person becomes a terrorist (McCauley 2007). As previously stated, terrorists are not usually motivated

by personal problems or persecution, but by persecution towards the group, for example a religious group (Bongar 2007). For example, the perpetrators of the 9/11 attack were allegedly not motivated by hatred towards the US, but by love towards God and their religious beliefs. This claim is supported by documents that were found after the attack in the perpetrators' luggage: in these documents there are clear indications that the act was done to please God (McCauley 2007). It has also been pointed out that some suicide bombers or attackers might not be aware that they themselves are going to die in the attack, whereas some are willingly sacrificing themselves (Atran 2006: 128).

Botha and Abdile (2014) found that the reasons for joining a terrorist organization are far from simple: some people might be frustrated with the nation's governance and feel the need for a change, some people might join for economic reasons. For example, in a country such as Somalia, which has one of the lowest GDPs (Gross Domestic Product) in the world terrorism might be seen as a viable, or the only, option for work (The World Bank, 2016). Botha and Abdile (2014) give an example of a 14-year old boy who reported his main reason for joining the terrorist organization al-Shabaab in Somalia was that his friends had told him he would receive a mobile phone and 50 dollars a month. Organizations often target young people, aged from 12 to 22, who are often the most impressionable and vulnerable to propaganda. Joining a terrorist group happens gradually and might not always even be a conscious decision.

McCauley (2007) also gives focus to "the power of comrades" and compares joining a terrorist organization to joining a cult. Those with relationships outside of the group are more likely to leave, and those with close ties to multiple people inside of the group are most likely to stay, which is also why people joining terrorist organizations are encouraged to sever all ties to their previous lives and their families. In terrorist groups, group values and dynamics are often intense and strong. People want to surround themselves with others who share similar ideas on what is good or evil, what is worth living, working, or dying for. In death, people want to see that their life had a meaning and that their death is also meaningful (McCauley 2007.) In terrorist attacks, the cause is often symbolic: by destroying a part of the enemy, I have given my life meaning by strengthening the position of my group and comrades. Most major religions believe in life after death, a kind of immortality. This immortal state can be reached by being "a good person" by the standards of the group. A goal, such as reaching that immortality, can

act as a powerful incentive and give meaning to life. By being a member of the group, a person might also gain more self-worth, acceptance and a sense of solidarity (Botha & Abdile 2014).

Terrorist organizations can recruit their members in multiple ways. One of the most used tactics is through a friendship network (Townshend 2002: 70). The use of peer pressure is an effective tactic, which probably many young people can relate to – probably everyone has done stupid things because of their friends. Terrorist recruitment and networking can happen in universities, mosques and churches, and other places where people try to find others to connect with. Townshend (2002: 109) also states that oppression of a group often accelerates recruitment. This could be one reason why for example Islamic State tries to incite hate against Muslims. Threatening with violence can also be a factor when joining or when a person decides they no longer want to be a part of the group. Recruitment happens online as well and can be targeted, for example, towards immigrants who are struggling to integrate to their new home country and its culture (Botha & Abdile 2014.) Multiple terrorist organizations have their own social media sites and use the internet to spread information, train their members as well as plan attacks (Klausen 2015).

2.1.4. Fighting terrorism

To fight terrorism, people, governments and communities should take action on several fronts. Many countries have already been woken up by the growing problem of radicalization of young people and have begun prevention programs, for example in educational institutions (discussed later in chapter 4) and established counterterrorism strategies. The research on terrorism and related phenomenon is not on the level it should be at this stage when the problem is growing each day (Flynn 2004, cited in Bongar 2007: 10). Social exclusion and alienation of young people should be fought – though a fulfilling and meaningful life cannot guarantee preventing radicalization completely, as discussed in the previous section. McCauley (2007) also brings up that the reaction to terrorism can often be even more harmful than terrorism itself.

The study of the psychology of terrorism and how to apply existing knowledge on for example social psychology to terrorism is vital. For example, Bongar (2007) mentions recognizing

different patterns in behavior, such as facial expressions, to help identify suicide bombers before they detonate. Detecting possible terrorist via psychological indicators has already shown promising results in Israel (Atran, 2004). According to Darwish and Huber (2003), for Western people understanding why a person wants to take their own or someone else's life can be difficult to understand, since Western communities are often seen as very individuality-driven – my personal needs come before my community's. In the East, communities can have a very strong sense of connection, self-sacrifice might be encouraged and the needs of the community can be seen as more important than an individual's. Understanding this can serve as an important aspect of understanding terrorism and terrorist groups' recruitment processes. The study of group dynamics might prove useful, since terrorist groups and their hierarchy might often indicate regular group dynamics but in intensified ways.

Terrorist groups often rely heavily on strong social networks. Especially in the recruitment process, the support from a community is important, and Atran (2004) states that sometimes terrorist groups may, for example, provide better and ampler healthcare and education than the government. Winning people over like this helps to gain the trust of individuals and then starting to promote the group's ideology, for example via propaganda. Undermining terrorist groups' effectiveness and making them seem useless is the key to defeating terrorism, according to Atran (2004). For example, in poorer countries, such as Somalia, economic reasons might be a factor that leads to joining a terrorist organization – if those people were offered another place to find income, they might not have joined at all (Botha & Abdile 2014). Murphy (2004, cited in Bongar 2007) also brings up that relying on their networks so strongly, for example on getting weapons, information and basic sustenance, is what makes terrorist organizations so vulnerable. Attacking or infiltrating them through these networks could be a possible way to eradicate them.

Fighting terrorism is where democracy education (“demokratiakasvatus”) might prove its importance as well. The National Core Curriculum of Finland (Finnish National Agency for Education 2014a: 15-16, 18-20) enhances the importance of educating the students about their role and possibilities to make a difference in a democratic society. This can happen not only in social studies, but in education in general. Schools should also promote and support democracy, by for example practicing concrete things how to make positive changes and improvements in the school community or in society. Transparency is also important – addressing the faults and

shortcomings of democracy also, paradoxically, promotes democracy. Students should be taught to distinguish the difference between propaganda and candor.

Atran (2004: 86) also puts weight on the fact that certain countries, such as the US “has to stop insisting on planetary rights on interference in the belief that our vision of civilization is humanity’s one last hope”. We have to understand that there is no one right way of governance or one right religion. Accepting different world views and realizing the fact that no single country or organization is responsible, or necessarily even capable of removing all violence and evil from the world is a part of the necessary course of events. Townshend (2002: 116) also gives some dystrophic examples of what might happen if counterterrorism is taken too far, such as actively changing legal procedures and making them easier to evade, spying on every citizen and even resorting to torture or inhuman questioning methods when trying to get intelligence on terrorist activity – a world view similar to Orwell’s novel *1984*. Townshend also cites Simon (Townshend 2002: 117-118) that terrorism should not always be fought so fiercely and investing valuable resources to, since the battle is never-ending and “the war on terror” a huge expense. Waving an imaginary sword, shouting big promises to eliminate all terrorists is, in reality, like Don Quixote battling windmills – though in this case, the threat is real. And in the case of terrorism, the real enemy and target is not as easy and simple to identify, locate and eliminate.

2.2. Extremism & violent extremism

Insarova (2014) defines extremism as devotion and commitment to strict views, opinions and actions, allure towards destruction and destructive tendencies while finding justification for oneself. The Finnish Ministry of the Interior (2017) defines extremism as the use and encouragement of violence and to use it as a threat, and that it is justified on the basis of one’s ideology in their biannual report of the situation of violent extremism in Finland in 2017. Ideology is a shared construct of thoughts and interpretations of, for example, demographic, religious or ethnic groups, dignity, and ideas of what is sacred and non-sacred, and similar beliefs that guide human action (Ministry of the Interior 2017).

However, as with terrorism, no clear, comprehensive and all-inclusive definition for the term “extremism” exists. According the Finnish Ministry of the Interior (2012), extremism is often characterized as having a very black-and-white image of us versus them. In addition to this characteristic, the definitions of extremism and terrorism, as discussed in section 2.1.1., are often very similar. In comparison, extremism could be seen as a “milder version” of terrorism, and for some people even as a stepping stone towards terrorism, though very few people with extremist world views ever actually use serious violence towards others, according to the Ministry of the Interior (2012).

Probably the biggest cause for extremism and radicalization has been argued to be social exclusion and possibly oppression towards a person’s community or social group. This phenomenon is mostly affecting young men. Social exclusion can lead to a person feeling empty and thus finding ways to fill that emptiness and finding a sense of belonging, togetherness and unity. For example, in Finland people mostly feel that everyone is equal in front of the law and people trust the authorities and the justice system, which leads to there being relatively little oppression towards minority groups and radicalization is not very common in Finnish youth. However, right-wing extremism is on the rise since some people perceive rising immigration in Finland as a threat, such as the “civil patrol group” The Soldiers of Odin. (The Ministry of the Interior 2012: 18-19)

Actions related to extremism could be vandalism, threatening or intimidating behavior towards other people or representatives of specific social, ethnic, political or minority groups, and incitement to ethnic or racial hatred (Ministry of the Interior 2012: 10). Violent extremism naturally entails violence, often physical, but possibly also psychological. The most common violent extremist crime in Finland is assault (Ministry of the Interior 2016: 13). Even though having extremist world views is technically not illegal, they usually stem from hate and indiscriminate, which can be a reason to be concerned.

Insarova (2014) introduces three very famous experiments on humans’ capability of doing discriminatory, aggressive and violent deeds towards innocent victims in different circumstances. The experiments were Phillip Zimbardo’s “Stanford Prison Experiment” in

1971, Stanley Milgram's experiment "The Milgram experiment on obedience to authority figures" (also known as "The Milgram experiment for short) and Ron Jones' "The Third Wave experiment". In the prison experiment, a group of people were simulating a prison, where some participants acted as guards and others as prisoners. The experiment had to be ended prematurely when the guards began using excessive force as well as physical and psychological abuse towards the prisoners. In Milgram's experiment, the participants were told to give electric shocks to a person they assumed to be in another room if they failed to perform different tasks. Some participants gave the assumed person even lethal shocks on command. In "The Third Wave experiment" a teacher applied a fascist regimen to their own classroom. He gave the students different titles, ranks and roles and taught them propagandist catchphrases and songs. Soon the whole school wanted to join the experiment, even though the setting was unfair to some students who had a lower rank.

All the experiments mentioned above help us understand just how easy it is to convince an individual or a community to discriminate and to commit violent acts towards others. The experiments also simulate, for example, how discriminatory and extreme regimes, such as the Nazis, have been able to rise to power without much opposition. Though the participants might have seen the experiment as a sort of game, the consequences and results were very real in some cases.

2.3. Other forms of violence

In this section, other forms of violence and their impact upon the feelings of safety in young people will be discussed. As already mentioned in section 2.1.1., sometimes the distinction between terrorism and random violence is not that clear. For example, in some school shootings or mass murders, such as the Las Vegas massacre on 1 October 2017, the motive has not been clear (or yet remains unclear). Therefore, the incident cannot be directly called terrorism. When random acts of violence happen from time to time, the perpetrator might not have as strong a goal or an incentive as a terrorist group or a lone wolf attacker might have. Sometimes it might be difficult to determine whether an incident should be regarded as terrorism. Examples are school shootings where there often is only one perpetrator, such as Jokela and Kauhajoki shootings in Finland in 2007 and 2008. These cases are usually not referred to as terrorism, for

example in the media, but as school killings or school shootings. According to the Finnish Ministry of the Interior (2017), school shootings are categorized as extremist, and thus a level of terrorism, if the perpetrator shows signs of, for example, admiring previous school shooter or mass murderers, manifests and misanthropy and internet activity.

Mental health problems or bullying can be found from the killer's background in most school shooting cases (The Ministry of the Interior 2012). Langman (2009: 23-24, 27) partly disagrees; he analyzed ten school shooters who had attacked their own school in the US 1997-2007. Most of the attackers who were analyzed did well in school, had friends and participated in extra-curricular activities – but nine out of ten suffered from depression and had suicidal thoughts. Again, people want to find logical explanations for violence, such as mental health problems, loneliness, oppression and revenge. Langman (2009) explains that there might not be a clear reason for why a young person wants to kill, since not all people who have been bullied or are depressed ever commit violent acts. A logical explanation could be that the perpetrator has been abused as a child or suffers from a mental illness – a young boy from a good family who admires Hitler does not seem like a logical explanation. Langman (2009: 184) distinguishes three types of school shooters; psychopathic, psychotic and traumatized, but also states that there might be more and a shooter can also belong to several categories. In some cases school killings might have multiple perpetrators, such as Columbine high school massacre in 1999, where there were two people working together. Langman (2009: 29) also notes that most school shootings have happened in smaller towns and communities, which adds to the fact that mental health problems or bullying cannot be seen as the sole explanation for violence.

An unfortunately common form of violence that often makes the headlines is domestic violence. One especially tragic case happened in Rautavaara, Finland on 26 October 2014, when a woman drove headlong onto an oncoming bus. She had her three children with her and all of them perished in the accident. The father of two of the children was on the bus, and the apparent motive for the woman's deed was that she and the man had had an argument before, which led to her killing herself and her children by a moment's impulse. (Kaleva 30 December 2014) Reports on such extreme cases might stir fear and nervousness in young people, whether or not they have experienced domestic violence in their own families or not.

Another form of violence to take into consideration is sexual violence and sexual abuse. In the teaching profession, sex and sexuality still remains as somewhat taboo subjects, so for a teacher it might be difficult to discuss these kinds of topics in the classroom. From time to time, rape or sexual assault make it to the headlines, or it might even happen in the school's own community. This type of incident requires a lot of tact, discretion and sensitivity from the teacher and a supportive response. The issue of sexual assault is a very important topic but it is not discussed to further extent here as it would require a lot more attention and research. For further reading on the issue, see for example Quadara (2008).

Another cruel form of violence that falls somewhere in between sexual and domestic violence are cases where parent(s) have been found to have their own children as captives and have possibly also had incestuous relationships with them. These kind of cases might especially affect young students, even more so if the incident has happened near or in their own community or if they can somehow relate to the victims. Examples of this form of violence and abuse that have gained a lot of media attention, The Fritzl case, which emerged in April 2008, and a more recent case, The Turpin case from January 2018. These sort of incidents are relatively very rare, but all the more shocking.

3 IN THE FACE OF TERROR – TEACHER EXPERIENCES

In this section, I will present and discuss different studies conducted on teachers during and after a terrorist attack or a violent event, such as the September 11 attack in the United States in 2001. One study was conducted in Israel and focused on two Israeli teachers and their coping strategies with war and terror. Not a lot of research exists on the reactions of teachers after violent events, and most research on this topic often focuses on the students. Adults, children and adolescents often cope with death and trauma differently, since their perceptions of death can be different – children can often fail to understand that death is permanent, and young students might not see the bigger picture behind, for example, a terrorist attack. Adults may have the capability to understand and to find more information, but of course can still be strongly affected by violent events.

A study by Bisland (2006) focuses on 18 elementary teachers who were teaching in Queens, New York during the 9/11 attack in the US in 2001. Queens was not in immediate danger, but it was not known during the attack. Some teachers were even able to see the Twin Towers and Manhattan from their classroom windows, which created a strong sense of danger. It was also not immediately known that the event was a terrorist attack. The study was conducted by analyzing the teachers' journals that they wrote in February 2002 about the events on September 11. The journals included notions on their emotions, actions, capability to perform as well as what kind of instructions they received from administration, if any. Bisland (2006) distinguished three themes that arose in the journals: how the teacher learned about the attack, their personal response and their professional response. Even though some time had passed since the attack of 9/11, every teacher participating in the study was able to remember that day relatively clearly and with detail. The age of the students of the teachers participating varied from nursery level to higher than fifth grade.

When the attack happened, most teachers reported that they were not able to receive a lot of information. Cellphone lines were down and most did not have access to television or radio in their schools. The teachers who could see the towers from their classroom windows reported

not being able to believe their eyes and trying to comprehend on what was happening – whether it was an accident or something else. When some teachers found out (mostly from other school personnel) that the attack was on the World Trade Center, they expressed strong concerns about their students' parents, since many of them knew they worked somewhere in Manhattan, but did not know the exact location of their workplace. Some parents came to collect their children to take them home during the school day, which raised questions in the other students. The teachers' initial personal responses were in most cases emotions of fear, shock, grief and anger.

Administrative instructions and actions on informing the students also varied. Either the principal informed the students (via a loud speaker or in an assembly), the principal instructed the teachers not to discuss the attack with the students, or the teacher made the decision themselves whether or not to discuss the event with the students with no instructions from the principal or administration. In the case where the principal told the teachers not to mention the attack, the teachers expressed frustration and confusion on what to tell the children on, for example, why some of their classmates were picked up early from school. These teachers felt like they had to lie to their students and felt uncomfortable because of that. No teacher made the decision themselves not to tell the students about the event.

The teachers who discussed the situation with their students reported doing, or trying to do it, in a calm manner. The teachers wanted to provide the students with the facts, but also to explain to them that they do not yet know much about who did the attack and why. The teachers also tried to console their students and assure them that they are safe. One teacher also reported hugging each of their students. Some teachers also had a discussion with their students about terrorism and what it is. One teacher reported being extremely worried about their husband because they were not able to contact them to make sure that they are safe. She commented: "I also knew that some of my children had parents that worked in Manhattan, if I lost it then they would lose it" (Bisland 2006: 391). Many other teachers also reported that they tried to remain as calm as possible as not to scare the students.

Some teachers only found out about the full extent of the attack after the school day when they were able to turn on the radio or TV. Many of the teachers also had family or friends working in the World Trade Center or in Manhattan area, but were mostly not able to contact them during

the day. When their workday ended, the whole world had changed. They knew that the day was historical and people would talk about for years to come.

In the article Bisland (2006) emphasizes the role of a teacher as a public servant – all of the teachers who participated in the study stayed in their workplace until the end of day and made sure that all of their students found their way home safely. Not until after that were they able to find out if their own friends and family were safe. All of the teachers showed their commitment, but none made the decision to stay at work consciously – as if it was not even a question for them. They put aside their personal fears and worries, focused on their students and being there for them even though they were under extreme stress.

Noppe, Noppe & Bartell (2006) have also studied teachers' reactions to the events of September 11 in 2001 in the US. The 150 middle school and high school teachers who replied to their survey were located in Northeastern Wisconsin, US. Noppe et al. (2006) found three themes on the teachers' methods on discussing the events of 9/11 in their classrooms: they either told the students as much as possible or as little as possible, whereas some made the event a learning experience, for example about Islamic religion and the Middle East. 62 percent of the respondents received directions from the administration on what to tell the students at the time of the attack and 19 percent were told not to tell them too much (Noppe et al 2006: 48). Many teachers reported being surprised about how angry some of their students got – one reported that their student said that they wanted to kill everyone in Middle East. The survey was also conducted on students, and the researchers were also surprised by the amount of anger visible in the students' responses in the open-ended questions. Some teachers also reported feeling a little frustrated since some of their students were not expressing concern about the attack. One teacher wrote: "A 14-year old's world only exists in a 2 meter sphere around them. This is not their first concern." (Noppe etl al 2006: 53).

Many teachers reported that even if they did discuss the attack with their students, they still tried to keep the normal classroom routines up. At the time of when the survey was conducted, which was several months after the attack, the teachers reported that they felt that many of the students, as well as some teachers, wish that they could already return to normal and not to dwell on the tragedy too much.

A study by Brody & Baum (2015) focused on two Israeli kindergarten teachers and their ways of dealing with violent events with their students over the course of one year during the 2002-2003 school term. The study was conducted with monthly interviews, classroom videotaping and additional interviews after each terrorist attack that happened during that school term. Israel is in constant turmoil because of the conflict between the country of Israel, Arabs and Palestinians. Suicide bombings are common and terrorist attacks happen almost weekly (Brody & Baum 2015: 10). During the time of the study there were three suicide bus bombings, the murder of a two-year old child by her father, the death of an Israeli astronaut, Ilan Ramon, when the space shuttle Columbia exploded, and the American invasion of Iraq. Brody and Baum (2015) emphasize the importance of resilience for a preschool teacher, since even though they experience fear and stress, they still have to be able to do their work in the classroom.

The two teachers' methods were very different from one another: the first teacher, Batya, was very open about the violent events with her students, whereas the second teacher, Lillian, wanted to avoid discussing the ongoing violence. Both teachers had 25 students aged from 5 to 6 years old and both have had close people being killed in terrorist incidents.

Batya reported that she felt that by explaining and discussing the violent events with her students she would help them to be better prepared to face adversities in the real world in the future. Batya also expressed a feeling of being constantly afraid and anxious that a shooter would enter her school building. However, she highlighted the importance of being calm and not expressing these fears to the children, even though she reported this being extremely energy-consuming. When a terrorist attack happened, Batya would start a discussion by asking the children if they knew what had happened and letting them tell their own views about the matter, by for example playing, drawing and speaking. She would try to help them identify their feelings and to understand them. Later, she would tell the children what actually happened objectively and informatively, explaining the terms and words the children might not understand, such as "a suicide bomber". She would end the discussion with a message of hope by reading a chapter of Psalms. One time, she did not open a discussion about an incident when a person known to her was killed in a bus bombing. She felt that the event was too personally close to her and was afraid she might not be able to discuss it objectively. Batya explained that her reasons for discussing the violent events openly with the children lay in the fact that media

often provides a very sterile take on what has happened. She felt that as a teacher it is her job to put it into context and explain it in a way that a child will understand. She also reported thinking that it is important for a teacher to provide the children with comfort and support in difficult times.

Lillian's attitude towards discussing violence with her students was negative. She felt that only if the children brought up the matter she would answer their questions, but focusing on only the facts, not the emotional side. She wanted to keep her classroom as a safe and happy place, a comfort zone for the children and herself. She reported that she felt that if she would discuss all the terrorism and other violent events that were happening, she would have to talk about violence all the time. She wanted to distance the children from the violence, which can also be seen as a need to distance herself, since she had experienced a lot of hurt and lost people important to her. Lillian was very aware of her choices and actions, but the researcher commented that it felt that the reasons behind them were not entirely clear to Lillian herself (Brody & Baum 2015: 21). Her own emotional control was very important to her, as was to Batya. A certain hopelessness could be seen from her answers: for example she did not want to connect religion to violent events, because she felt that if she would tell the children to trust God and that God would protect them, and then there would be another attack the next day with more people dead, what would she say then (Brody & Baum 2015: 27-28)?

There is no way to tell which method, Batya's or Lillian's, is more effective, since there is no research available on the long-term effects and there is no way to evaluate it. These two teachers among many others have had to develop their own theories and practices to deal with the surrounding violence. With more research, teachers could create explicit practices from implicit ones, so that they could know that what they do is actually helpful for the students – but then again, what works for one individual student might not work for another.

The school shootings of Jokela in 2007 and Kauhajoki in 2008 in Finland were shocking in many ways. Both attacks happened in relatively small communities and less than a year apart. Often after a violent situation in a school, the research on reactions and the effects on people is focused on the students and less on teachers and other school personnel, even though they are victims just the same. School shootings have been argued to be traumatizing for students even

in schools where no shootings have happened, since it is an environment where they spent a significant amount of time almost daily – and the same thing applies to teachers. As a teacher, even though your relationship with your students is professional, you still often establish a connection to them. There is no curtain for the teacher to hide behind, and as Batya expressed above, it is extremely energy-consuming to try to hide or mask your true feelings from your students (Brody & Baum 2015). This can even be harmful and counterproductive – school violence affects teachers' motivation, which can lead to poorer quality teaching, increasing teacher turnover, teachers having poorer relationships with students, increased number of sick days and higher absenteeism rate, just to name a few (Ting, Sanders, & Smith 2002: 1008, Espelage 2013: 77).

I could not find a single piece of research about teachers' reactions and their healing processes after the school shootings in Finland, or anywhere else, even though there are plenty of such incidents, as well as shootings where a teacher or a school staff member has been killed. For example, Langman (2009: 36-38) analyzed ten school shootings that happened in the US during years 1997-2007, and six out of ten had teachers or the principle killed or wounded. Langman (2009: 46-47, 199) states that school shooters can see teachers as a representative of the school and thus the thing that they hate, which he argues to be one reason why teachers can be selected as school shooting victims. For example, one shooter expressed that they hated teachers because they wanted to control them, and one because the teachers had authority over them.

Teachers are naturally an essential part of the education system and school life. But even when they show up for work every day, meet their students every day, and suffer through hardships with them, they are overlooked in this area of research. They are people who are affected by violence just as the students are, where ever it happens – in the school or elsewhere. Teachers are often the only adults in the classroom, responsible for the students. In that moment, peer support is rarely available. The mental strength the teachers in the above-mentioned studies have shown is something that needs more focus – how it could be trained and promoted already in teacher training, for example, and how to promote effective coping strategies, resilience and tools or teachers after traumatic and violent events. Without teachers there would be no schools, a fact that should be enough in itself to highlight their importance to society.

4 PREVENTING VIOLENT EXTREMISM THROUGH EDUCATION

In this chapter, I will present different prevention strategies of violent extremism from three different countries: Finland, The United Kingdom and The United States. I will also present guidelines and materials made for teachers on how to implement these prevention strategies to their classrooms. The aims of the materials are mainly to educate students on terminology, reasons and consequences of violent extremism. These presented governmental strategies, guidelines and educational materials act as data and a base for the following chapter. In chapter five, I have gathered and summarized a set of instructions for teachers on how to discuss violent events in their classrooms. This, and the following chapter are the main literature review parts of this thesis.

If you want to prevent students from doing something potentially harmful and dangerous, you educate them on the possible negative consequences; drugs, alcohol, unprotected sex, for instance. The same goes with extremism: if you want to prevent it, you have to make people aware of how it affects them, their loved ones and their surroundings. Prevention can also be seen as a part of crisis preparation for teachers. If the students are already familiar with the concept of violent extremism, it might even help them process violent events in the future. Preventing violent extremism through education is a vital aspect of a modern teacher's job, which is why I have chosen to discuss it as a part of this thesis.

UNESCO's (2016) definition of violent extremism and radicalization is using or supporting violence motivated by religious, political or ideological views. Extremism is not tied to any specific gender, culture, community age group or religion. The term "radicalization" is used to describe the process when a person or a group begins to see violence as acceptable and justifiable behavior (UNESCO 2016). As discussed in section 2.1.3., radicalization cannot be predicted by either a person's socio-economic status or education. Groups that are associated with violent extremism include, for example, Ku Klux Klan, Boko Haram, ISIS, Neo Nazis and Soldiers of Odin.

The prevention of the issue of violent extremism, such as terrorism, begins early. By educating children about violent extremism, what leads to it and what the consequences are can be an effective way to cut the problem at its roots. We have to treat the cause, not the symptom – in this, early intervention plays a key role. Young people can often be especially vulnerable to propaganda from extremist groups or terrorist organizations. They do not necessarily have the skills to look at information critically, which is why integrating this aspect to education is essential (UNESCO 2016). In this chapter, I will first look at governmental prevention strategies in Finland, the United Kingdom and the United States. Following that, I will present some other publications, materials and guidelines made for teachers about preventing of radicalization and extremism. I also discuss the suggestions presented in the literature on how to recognise a student at risk joining an extremist group and how different sources instruct to act as a teacher in such a situation.

4.1. Governmental prevention strategies of violent extremism around the world

4.1.1. Finland

In November 2011, the Government of Finland started preparing the International Security Programme, which led to the appointment of a group of experts to draft a Programme of Measures for the prevention of violent extremism (The Ministry of the Interior 2012: 7). In Finland, the prevention of terrorism is administered by the Ministry of the Interior and organized by the police. However, some of the responsibility lies on the shoulders of parents, pedagogues and educators, as well as communities and organizations. The Finnish Ministry of the Interior (2010) mentions key factors to prevent radicalization and violent attacks that could possibly follow: equality, human rights, democracy, prevention of social exclusion, and acceptance of multiculturalism.

Even though the threat of extremism in Finland is relatively low, the Finnish government has taken steps towards a more active approach towards the issue, since it is on the rise in Europe.

The Ministry of the Interior publishes biannual reports on the status of extremism in Finland. According to them, the biggest threats concerning extremism in Finland are due to the fact that the distinction between fact and opinion has blurred. This has led to an increasing amount of hate speech and fake news, which then increase polarization between different demographic groups. This polarization can help some people find justification for extremist ideologies and actions. (The Ministry of the Interior 2017: 9)

4.1.2. The United Kingdom

Since 2015, different authorities (including teachers) in The UK have had to by law practice what is called “Prevent duty”. For teachers, this means having to educate their students about extremism and to do what they can to prevent them from radicalization and being drawn into extremism and terrorism (HM Government 2015). *The Prevent Duty Guidance: for England and Wales* is “Guidance for specified authorities in England and Wales on the duty in the Counter-Terrorism and Security Act 2015 to have due regard to the need to prevent people from being drawn into terrorism.” In relation to Prevent duty, the Prevention of Violent Extremism –program (PVE) is a part of the UK’s anti-terrorism project CONTEST (HM Government 2011). CONTEST consists of four elements: Pursue, Prevent, Protect and Prepare.

However, Prevent duty has been criticized for being too focused on young Muslims, thus making itself counterproductive by highlighting the fact that some terrorist attacks that have happened in The UK have been conducted by British Muslims (Thomas 2010, Kundnani 2009). Thomas (2010) argues that Prevent is a “failed and friendless” project, but with originally good intentions. The counter productivity of the project stems from labelling the entire Muslim community as especially vulnerable to radicalization, as Prevent duty has done. However, it is also stated that only a few individuals from British Muslim communities are actually involved in terrorist activity (HM Government 2015). By giving so much emphasis on a certain religious group as being somehow susceptible to radicalization naturally raises suspicion, mistrust and prejudice in the surrounding community. Kundnani (2009: 6) also found that the amount of funding for Prevent was directly connected to the amount of Muslims living in the area. This can be seen as a clear sign of Prevent seeing Muslim communities as somehow in need of more support than others.

There are multiple organizations doing anti-terrorism work by, for example, helping the families of those affected by terrorist organizations or extremist groups. Examples of these organizations are Counterextremism.org Project, ConnectJustice, ConnectFuture, Women without Borders with their campaign SAVE (Sisters against Violent Extremism), and Active Change Foundation. For example, the Active Change Foundation helped a British mother and their family when her son left for Kenya to join the terrorist organization Al Shabaab. The son later died when fighting for the organization. Her and her family's story has been made into a BAFTA-winning documentary *My Son the Jihadi* in 2015, which might also be an interesting watch in the classroom.

4.1.3. The United States

The United States is implementing Countering Violent Extremism Task Force, CVE, which tries to diminish the effects and efforts of violent extremist groups (U.S. Department of Homeland Security 2018). Stakeholders of the CVE Task Force include actors from both the public and private sectors, such as educators, non-governmental organizations, law enforcement, et cetera. The CVE includes a wide array of different strategies, sectors and subdivisions, such as Empowering Local Partners to Prevent Violent Extremism in the United States and Strategy for Countering Violent extremism by the Department of Homeland Security. These are discussed below.

According to the U.S. Department of Homeland Security (DHS) (2011), the main strategy of the US is to strengthen existing programs in order to enhance communities, families and institutions. This is done, for example, by preventing gang activity, increasing trust between the people and the police and increasing school safety and students' health, communality increases. These actions are hoped to help creating an environment, ideologically, where extremism is not needed. It should be noted though that this publication is from the time when Barack Obama was president. His views on many issues may differ from the current president's, Donald Trump's.

The DHS (2011: 8) states eight main principles the government implements to counterattack the threat of violent extremism. The first is examining and studying different extremist groups in order to be aware and better understand them. Factors that are also emphasized are protecting American citizens while taking care of their civil rights and liberties, thus stopping extremist from dividing the community by encouraging people against one another, building partnerships and enhancing mutual support and respect between people. It is also stated that the actions of a few individuals should not be generalized to apply to the entire community that they represent. For example, religious beliefs, no matter how strong they are, do not equal extremism. Freedom of religion is every citizen's right, as is the freedom to criticize the government. It is democracy – everyone has a right to be dissatisfied with the selected governance. This should not be seen as unpatriotic. Supporting a wide array of national and local prevention programs, thus harnessing local knowledge of the area's demographic, are also mentioned as one of the main principles.

The US government also has numerous other programs related to preventing violent extremism, terrorism, and violence in general, such as the *If you see something, say something*, *Safe Schools/Healthy Students* and *Active Shooter Preparedness* campaigns. The Office of Partner Engagement of the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) (2016) has also published material for schools about preventing violent extremism. They state that high school students are especially vulnerable targets for extremist propaganda, which is why they should be educated on its possible forms, actions and consequences. Teachers are in contact with the students almost daily, so they have a prime opportunity to affect the students' attitudes and mindsets by promoting diversity, tolerance and acceptance. By assessing different drivers towards violent extremism schools can have a major impact on the prevention of extremism in the US.

4.2. Material and guidelines for teachers

Both online and printed material has been made in the recent years for prevention purposes for teachers to use in the classroom. In this section, I wanted to bring up a small selection of them to discuss and analyze as examples for both of those unfamiliar with such material and for those interested in the topic in general. First set of material by the Finnish National Agency for

Education in section 4.2.1. is mostly a general guide for teachers on the issue of violent extremism. The rest of the introduced materials in sections 4.2.2. through to 4.2.4. include concrete exercises, mostly ready to be used in the classroom as they are, but can of course be modified by the teacher to fit their and their students' needs. The materials discussed in section 4.2.4. have all been created as a part of Prevent duty in the UK, but could be used elsewhere in the world, often with minimal adaptation. Much educational material on the internet is often connected to Prevent duty, which implies that it is a very active and extensive program at least compared to the two other countries discussed in this chapter, Finland and the US.

4.2.1. Material by the Finnish National Agency for Education

Violent extremism has increased around Europe according to the Finnish National Agency for Education (2017b). Therefore, the Finnish National Agency for Education has put together a set of material for teachers to be used in the as a guide for prevention of violent extremism and radicalization called *Rakentavaa vuorovaikutusta: Opas demokraattisen osallisuuden vahvistamiseen, vihapuheen ja radikalismien ennaltaehkäisyyn*, which consists of eight articles discussing different aspects of radicalization and extremism in Finland and in Europe. The aim of the material is to help the teacher to develop young people's knowledge, skills and attitudes that help them to dispute and resist propaganda from violent extremist groups and to help teachers to create a learning environment that encourages critical thinking and respectful conversation. The articles themselves do not give ready-to-be-used material for the classroom, but general guidelines and different viewpoints to consider as a teacher. There is an attachment in the set of materials though, which is a translation of the exercise part of *Teaching Controversial Issues* by The Council of Europe (2015). This does have a body of a lesson plan on class discussion on controversial issues. Below, three out of the eight articles in *Rakentavaa vuorovaikutusta* (Finnish National Agency for Education 2017b) are chosen for further discussion: Edel (2017), Mankkinen (2017) and Mattila (2017).

Edel (2017) emphasizes that teachers should not get the impression that their main job is to monitor possible radicalization, but because the Finnish education system reaches practically every young person in Finland, it is important to be aware of. If a young student gets a sense of

connection and belonging during their school years and finds their place in the community, it can have a strong impact. It might altogether prevent their radicalization, since one of the main reasons for a person to join an extremist group is to feel connection and respect with the other group members. This is why it is important for the teacher to make a class of students a unified group where everyone can feel safe and accepted. This can of course sometimes be difficult if a student tries to be provocative on purpose. Still, according to Edel (2017), they should not be excluded as a possible threat. Edel (2017) also emphasizes that all students should feel that they matter and that they are seen and heard.

Mankkinen (2017) highlights the fact that no one is born a violent extremist. People often tend to think that evil exists and comes from somewhere else. As previously discussed in section 2.1., terrorists are often easily deemed as mentally ill or alienated, as to make sense of their horrible deeds. Mankkinen (2017) mentions that before the Norway attack in 2011, violent extremism was most often linked to violent jihadists and especially Al-Qaeda. However, after the Norway attacks, the focus has widened to include other forms as well, such as far-right and far-left movements, other religious extremism and lone-wolf attackers, as the perpetrator of the Norway attack was. Different groups have very different views on what counts as the key factor that justifies violence and makes someone their target. Mankkinen (2017) also highlights the importance of the education system to prevent radicalization. In Finland however, it is not as clearly a part of the teachers' job as for example in the UK, where prevent duty is required by law (HM Government 2015).

Mattila (2017) discusses the aspect of language, language education and its significance in relation to radicalization and extremism. Mattila (2017) states that basically everyone is linguistically and culturally diverse – practically all Finnish students know at least three languages, Finnish, English and Swedish (or, in some cases, Sami or Finnish or Swedish sign language), which are compulsory for all, including immigrant students, according to the National Core Curriculum of Finland (Finnish National Agency for Education 2014a: 87-89). It is important for a student to experience learning in a language that most matters to them, which can be, for example, their native language. This can provide a challenge for the education system if the student's native language is a less spoken language in Finland or if the school does not have a teacher who is familiar with that language. If that student does not receive education in their own language, they might get fewer experiences of capability and

sensibleness, according to Mattila (2017). It is important for teachers to create a dialogue between themselves and their students, as well as ensuring it is honest and open. If this does not happen and the teacher constantly keeps speaking “past” the student, it can give the student the impression that that issue does not concern them and they do not even need to bother themselves with it. As previously mentioned, unsuccessful integration for an immigrant student, for example not learning a language properly, can act as a catalyst for radicalization, but a lack of communication can affect a native student just the same.

Practically all of the articles in *Rakentavaa vuorovaikutusta* by the Finnish National Agency for Education emphasize the importance of constructive discussion and debate. The Finnish school system has long emphasized openness and giving room for discussion, which is an even more important of a value today. Xenophobia, intolerance and prejudice should be taken seriously and assessed in the classroom as well as in the entire school environment.

4.2.2. Extreme Dialogue

Extreme Dialogue (extremedialogue.org) (2017) is a project funded by different organizations around Canada and Europe. It is a set of educational resources intended to encourage discussion around extremism in the classroom setting. There are seven short films that tell the stories of different people and their struggle with radicalization and extremism – for instance, a mother whose son died fighting for Islamic State in Syria, former members of extremist groups and refugees and all present a different point of view to the issue. The films are aimed to students aged from 14 to 18. All stories are equipped with a Prezi-presentation in which the short film is divided into sections and linked with different activities, as well as a lesson plan where all the exercises and activities are explained. On the website, there are also feedback forms for both teachers and students to fill out before and after the lesson. You can also find a facilitator guide with additional information, tips and activities.

Next, I will present one of the seven stories in *Extreme Dialogue* as an example – the story of Adam Deen. Ethnically, he is Turkish but grew up in London, England. He got interested in Islam and eventually joined Al-Muhajiroun, a terrorist organization based in the UK. The six

minute film about Adam is cut up to shorter clips and spread through a Prezi-presentation where Adam's story progresses and is reflected. The presentation is divided into sections titled "Introduction", "From Boy to Extremist", "Getting Out" and "Reflections". In the Introduction, we get to know Adam and his background as well as the 9/11 attack. In the following section, Adam explains how he gradually got involved with the organization and what different factors lead to it. Other extremist groups are also introduced – their ideologies and members, such as Hammerskin Nation, Provisional Irish Republic Army and Euskadi ta Askatasuna. Next, there is an exercise on how to figuratively boil a frog, which acts as a metaphor on how a person is lured into extremism – if you want to boil a frog, you do not drop it straight into hot water, but into cool water which you start heating slowly. When the water starts to boil, the frog is already half dead and does not have the strength to jump out of the water. In the "Getting Out" section the students get to practice different persuading and resisting tactics. In the last section, "Reflections", there is a clip included where Adam tells how he finally managed to leave the group and became a social outcast, since all his friends and social contacts revolved around the extremist group, and how his life has changed since then.

This type of a set of materials could be very useful and beneficial for students, since they get to see the actual people telling about their own, authentic experiences. There are also many different and lesser known extremist groups used in the stories, thus expanding the students view of how multifaceted extremism really is. Many of the other material packs discussed in this chapter lack photos and other visual aids. They are mostly in text form, so the people behind the comments and stories remain ambiguous and anonymous – or are just plain fictional.

4.2.3. Material by UNESCO

On UNESCO's website, unesco.org, preventing violent extremism is listed as one of their main themes. There is a lot of material on the topic, but three selected ones are introduced: *A Teacher's Guide to Preventing Violent Extremism*, *Guidelines for Intercultural Education* and *Youth Waging Peace: Youth Led Guide on Prevention of Violent Extremism Through Education*. I chose these three because they seem the most relevant for teachers as well as comprehensive and extensive out of the ones that can be found on UNESCO's website.

UNESCO's (2016) *A Teacher's Guide to Preventing Violent Extremism* gives three categories that the learning goals for a discussion about violent extremism should cover: cognitive, socio-emotional and behavioral, which will be discussed further in the next paragraphs. These three categories can be helpful for students and lead them towards a more educated worldview. According to UNESCO (2016), the discussion should not take place in a random time and should have a clear purpose. The teacher should also highlight their role in the conversation for the students and express it explicitly. For example, the teacher could be playing "the devil's advocate" to stir up the conversation, an objective chairperson, or just being themselves.

In UNESCO (2016), the presented cognitive learning goals are, for example, to develop critical thinking and critical analysis skills and to learn about global issues and co-dependent relationships between nations and communities. Recognizing different ways of manipulation, separating objective facts from subjective opinions are important cognitive skills for the students to practice. According to UNESCO (2016), these skills are also helpful in being aware of the complexity of different issues that are connected with violent extremism. Socio-emotional goals are for the students to learn about basic human rights that include everyone and for them to see that we all share similar world views and values. This gives the students a sense of connection and unity as well as develops their multicultural teamwork skills. The students should be able to recognize different emotions expressed by others as well. Communicating their opinions effectively and responsibly in both their own classroom and with people from other cultures in different settings is also an important skill. This of course might be difficult for the teacher to assess if the classroom is not multicultural, though classrooms nowadays are rarely not.

For behavioral goals, UNESCO (2016) gives good manners as an example. The students should be able to express themselves confidently and have a positive attitude towards others. The students should also be able to listen and pay attention to others' different views and opinions and be able to evaluate them in addition to their own. They should also express the need to act responsibly. These examples for learning goals in UNESCO (2016) might seem quite high-level and students might reach them on different standards. The students can be on varying levels of maturity as well, which can affect the overall experience for the whole class – some might not be as eager and ready to formulate and express their opinion on controversial and

complicated matters. Nonetheless, every student should be actively encouraged to try to participate in the discussion, since it is an important and needed skill that can be improved with practice.

One of the key elements in preventing extremism is learning to accept the fact that people's worldviews might be different, but that it should be seen as a richness, not as an obstacle (Insarova 2014). For this reason, among others, intercultural education is important in terms of preventive work, and as one of language teacher's roles is also being a teacher of culture, I wanted to include UNESCO's (2006) *Guidelines on Intercultural Education*. The goal of the guidelines is stated to be promoting unity, togetherness, tolerance, and the universality of humanity and thus working towards maintaining peace. As discussed in multiple sections in this thesis, understanding people's different ideas, worldviews, religions and cultures is a key element in preventing conflict between people. The guidelines (UNESCO 2006) emphasize that intercultural education should not be an afterthought, for example a piece of a single lesson. It should be incorporated to all parts of school life, from curriculum and governance to lesson plans and teaching materials.

UNESCO (2006: 32-38) presents three principles for intercultural education:

Principle I: Intercultural Education respects the cultural identity of the learner through the provision of culturally appropriate and responsive quality education for all.

Principle II: Intercultural Education provides every learner with the cultural knowledge, attitudes and skills necessary to achieve active and full participation in society.

Principle III: Intercultural Education provides all learners with cultural knowledge, attitudes and skills that enable them to contribute to respect, understanding and solidarity among individuals, ethnic, social, cultural and religious groups and nations.

Each principle is then elaborated further: how it can be incorporated, for example, in learning and teaching materials. The principles and actions suggested are very high-level, and as much as they mean well, there are very few actual, concrete suggestions on how to realize them in

everyday school life. In this aspect, the guidelines could fall short on their intended meaning. Of course for teachers leading by example is very important, but how to convey the ideas to students in a more straightforward manner?

The next set of materials has been published by the Mahatma Gandhi Institute of Education for Peace and Sustainable Development (MGIEP), which is an integral part of UNESCO. *Youth Waging Peace: Youth Led Guide on Prevention of Violent Extremism Through Education* (UNESCO MGIEP 2017) focuses on bringing the voices of young contributors into action and harnessing them to create a new kind of guide on prevention of violent extremism. In contrast to *Guidelines on Intercultural Education* (UNESCO 2006), this set of materials provides a lot of actual exercises and tasks to execute in the classroom or in another school setting. In addition to teachers, policy makers, parents and guardians and religious leaders, et cetera, are also addressed as key contributors to prevention of violent extremism and given different guidelines for what they can do.

One claim of the material is that “peace, empathy and compassion cannot be taught” (UNESCO MGIEP 2017: 11), but they can be learned through personal experience. The set of materials gives multiple examples of different opportunities for students to experience and practice empathy, for example through art, different types of events or projects. These can also reinforce the students’ sense of active citizenship, cultural literacy and inclusiveness, among other things. Stories and comments by young people as well as case studies from different parts of the world are also included, which could also be adapted to be used as teaching material about how extremism manifests itself in different ways around the world. The youth contributors’ voices are present throughout the material.

Youth Waging Peace: Youth Led Guide on Prevention of Violent Extremism Through Education is a very comprehensive and extensive set of materials, the most extensive of the ones mentioned in this thesis, made for all teachers and people working with youth in general. It has many viewpoints to consider and many activities, possible to adopt and adapt to one’s own teaching.

4.2.4. Other resources

A collection of different resources can be found on *Educate against Hate's* website, educateagainsthate.com. Links to different external exercises and material packs are included, as well as some frequently asked questions about teaching about extremism from the viewpoints of teachers, parents and school leaders. *Educate against Hate* has been developed by the Department of Education and the Home Office of The UK as part of Prevent duty. Prevent duty has been criticized for being too prominently focused on Muslim communities and Islam, which is discussed in section 4.1.2.. This was visible on *Educate against Hate* as well, as they have Islamist extremism listed as a separate category to filter your search results by, but no other religions at the time this thesis was written. This has the possibility to send a message that no other religion is particularly concern-worthy, as they have not been mentioned at all. Besides Islamist extremism, the other categories are far-right extremism and “Promoting Fundamental British Values”.

One of the resources on *Educate against Hate* is a set of Tower Hamlets' (a borough in London, England) lesson plans in PowerPoint form (Tower Hamlets council 2018). For example, under “Secondary Prevent Resources” there are seven different lessons for 6th form students: British values, electronic safety, extremism and the far right, faith and hate crime, homophobia, Islamist extremism and propaganda. The PowerPoints are not particularly professional looking, but provide some interesting ideas for classrooms discussion – though again, Islam is under the microscope in many parts of the materials. However, the lesson about extremism and the far right contains different images and the goal is to get the students to think about the distinction between extremism and violent extremism. The PowerPoint of the lesson introduces different extremist groups, such as Neo-Nazis and Britain First, showing the students that there are other types of extremism in addition to the stereotypical image of a terrorist. The stated idea of the materials is not to tell the students what to think, but to inform them and get them to think – however, with young students they may often adopt the views presented to them without a lot of consideration.

Another website that has gathered a number of different material packs is *Prevent for Schools* (preventforschools.org). *Prevent for Schools* has also been developed as a part of Prevent duty

in the UK by Lancashire City Council and other contributors. Lessons and materials found on the site have been divided according to their target age group: primary school, secondary school, and further education and higher education (FE and HE). For example, under secondary school resources there is a material pack by Centre for Urban Education (CUE) (2018) *Learning Together to be Safe*, which includes five lesson plans and resource packs for them. Links can be found at the end of this thesis under References.

The five lessons by CUE have been planned to be executed as a whole as they are all connected to one another. The first lesson is about the United Nation's Convention about the Rights of the Child and discussing it in addition to values and responsibilities and what they are. The second lesson is about personal identity and recognizing some of your individual traits. This includes a discussion about three items the students have had to bring to schools and why they chose them. The third and fourth lessons revolve around the book/movie *The Boy in the Striped Pyjamas*, which tells about the Holocaust through the eyes of a young child who lives near a concentration camp. Lesson three has exercises on identifying differences between me and others, whereas lesson four about similarities with supporting clips and extracts from the movie and the book. Lesson five focuses on communities and students coming up with ideas on how their community could be made more cohesive, as well as the terms of terrorism and extremism. For each lesson, there are also warm-up activities, work sheets and other extra material. For example, the warm-up activity for lesson five is for the students to agree on a favorite flavor of chips – first alone, then in pairs, then in larger groups, and in the end the whole class has to agree on a flavor.

Personal, Health, Social and Economic (PSHE) Association has compiled a four-lesson set, also created as a part of Prevent duty in the UK. The set includes teacher's notes, the four lesson plans and other resources, such as PowerPoint presentations for each lesson. The teacher's notes explain the core concept of the set of lessons and gives some instructions that might be useful to take into account. These include for example establishing the ground rules for the lessons, such as not using discriminatory language, confidentiality, and being respectful towards others. The lesson plans are clearly constructed and include explanations of the context of the lesson, learning objectives, a list of needed resources, activities, and the estimated timing for each activity.

The first lesson, titled “Understanding and preventing extremism”, acts as an introduction to the topic of extremism. The key themes are relevant terminology, such as “terrorism”, “radicalization” and “extremism”, contributing factors of extremist ideologies and discussion on how the students themselves can decrease the threat of extremism in their own communities. Lesson two is titled “How can language divide us?” During the lesson students will discuss their national identity, presentation of different groups, such as immigrants, in the media, and how to recognize manipulative language by evaluating different source material. The idea is to get the students to think and realize how media can affect our perception of different groups of people.

Lesson three, titled “How can people’s actions be affected by others’ influence?”, focuses on how charismatic speakers, using Martin Luther King Jr. and Barack Obama as examples, can change our way of thinking, and how group thinking and diffusion of responsibility works through imaginary example cases and role play. At the end, the connection between the discussed phenomena and extremism is established. The fourth and final lesson is titled “How can I help my community?” The key idea of the lesson is to reflect and apply the previously learned on thinking about how the students could support and be a positive, contributing member of their own community. For the end, there is also a self-evaluation sheet.

4.3. Hate speech and bullying among students

For the teacher, it is very important not to accept hate speech or bullying of any kind, since it can have a huge impact on the overall atmosphere of the classroom and also on the individual students. Hate speech includes all forms of expression that spread, incite, encourage, justify or promote ethnic hate, opposing foreigners, anti-Semitism or other kind of hate that is based on discrimination (Council of Europe, cited in Nissinen 2017: 28). Other kind of hate can, for example, include discrimination based on sexuality, disability or gender identity. Sometimes students themselves might not be aware of their offensive language or attitudes, so the teacher should be prepared to challenge and question these in a constructive way. In this section, I will

look at what kind of possibly challenging behavior can emerge in the classroom and possible ways for a teacher to intervene.

According to *Extreme Dialogue's* (2017) Facilitator Guide, punishing the misbehaving students is often not a very fruitful approach, since it can make them feel excluded and further distance them from learning new attitudes. The Facilitator Guide gives a few example situations, which are going to be discussed next, on negative behavior and comments and how to assess them, at the same time engaging the student and not by simply telling them off. The teaching material of *Extreme Dialogue* is discussed in section 4.2.2..

One example of hate speech is using offensive language and racial slurs, such as the n-word. This can be challenged by the teacher by asking if the student knows where the word originates and why it is seen as unacceptable. The student might be reluctant to reply, so the teacher might then ask the other students or even explain it themselves, making it “a teachable moment”, which are discussed further in section 5.4.. The students may also make offensive comments or generalizations about certain groups, such as “all white people are racist” or “all immigrants are potential terrorists”. Useful response could be simply to ask why they are making that statement and how can they know that. The Facilitator Guide (Extreme Dialogue 2017) also suggests for the teacher to give their own positive example about a person they have met that belong to that group and to ask whether the student actually knows anyone from that group. It is also important to emphasize how negative and misinformed stereotypes and spreading them can affect everyone who belongs to that group. It is important to keep in mind that the student does not necessarily think that way themselves, but they could have learned that attitude from, for example, an important adult figure in their life, such their parent or a celebrity.

The students can also target individuals, such as other students in the group. This could be, for example, because of a different nationality or ethnicity. The Facilitator Guide (Extreme Dialogue 2017) suggests challenging negative comments by for example asking what their intention is when making that remark, or to ask how they themselves feel when someone makes negative comments about them. Challenging the students in this way might lead to lengthy discussions, which should not been seen as a hindrance or as something that take the focus of the main lesson content. In a discussion on topics like terrorism and extremism, students may

have very different views and attitudes and their levels of maturity might be various. For a teacher, it is essential to educate the students on hate speech and its effects. It might seem harmless in the student's opinion since it is "just words", but it also reflects the overall state of society – what is valued and what attitudes are held towards different groups (Nissinen 2017). Hate speech is also a punishable offence. Mankkinen (2017) reports that hate crimes have increased by 50% since the previous year in 2015 in Finland – an alarming rate. It is important to explain to the students that hate speech and hate crimes increase extremism and radicalization of young people, since it increases prosecution and social exclusion of young people from certain groups, which then again increases hate speech. The cycle is vicious and affects everyone, not only those in direct contact with it.

4.4. What if it is one of my students?

Sometimes a teacher might notice a student of theirs is somehow drifting away. Their attitude, appearance and group of friends might have changed rapidly. This may raise concerns, and is important for a teacher to note. Extremism and radicalization are not tied to any certain ethnicity, nationality, gender or age, so it could happen anywhere (UNESCO 2016). In this section, some early signs of possible radicalization are discussed on the basis of different source material. This is to help teachers to notice if their student(s) is in danger of alienation and social exclusion. Not any one thing is a sign of possible radicalization, but if several things mentioned here occur, the teachers and other adults of the student in question should be aware of the situation and its possible reasons and turnouts. As schools are often very close-knit communities and teachers are in contact with their students weekly, some even daily, it is important for them to take responsibility and take action if they notice that one of their students is especially vulnerable and easily affected by extremist groups and their propaganda. Teachers, for example language teachers, might have several groups and over a hundred students. In this case, the teacher might think that maybe someone else will report the strange behavior of a student and shy away from expressing concern, omitting their responsibility. This division of responsibility might lead to that no one actually takes the steps to help a student possibly alienating themselves from society.

One of the most common signs that may be visible also for the teacher is sudden and radical

change in the student's life. According to UNESCO (2016), for example cutting ties with long-standing friends and other antisocial behavior might be red flags. Their attitude and behavior might be the total opposite of what they have been before, though not be confused with normal changes during puberty. They might start to skip school a lot or even drop out completely and start to reject authorities, such as teachers, their parents or the police. Preferences in food, clothing and appearance might change, for example by not shaving or cutting their hair, or by cutting their hair of completely. Of course the teacher has to be sensitive about this since everyone is entitled to modify their own appearance as they like. But again, if the changes in appearance and behavior seem very strange and not like the student at all, the teacher should be alert and maybe discuss their concerns with the student's parents or other teachers. A website developed as a part of The UK's Prevent Strategy called *Let's Talk about It* (2018), Itai.info, gives a list of possible signs that one might be especially susceptible to adopting extremist views. These signs are:

Susceptibility to indoctrination, being influenced or controlled by a group, a desire for status, a desire for political, social or moral change, feeling under threat, social networks involvement in extremism, opportunistic involvement, feelings of grievance and injustice, need for identity, meaning and belonging, a desire for excitement and adventure, being at a transitional time of life, mental health issues, a need to dominate and control others.

UNESCO (2016) states that, for example, sharing material on social media that glorifies terrorism or violence and visiting terrorist or extremist organizations' websites often might be reasons for concern. The student might also create such material of their own that, for instance, tries to justify violence and discrimination. This should not be taken lightly by teachers, although sometimes a student might do this just to get attention and create a shock effect, or just to annoy a teacher they dislike. Another sign of possible radicalization could be wearing symbols of a terrorist organization or an extremist group, for example a hoodie bearing a logo, a tattoo, or a piece of jewelry, of, for instance, Nazi symbolism, such as the swastika. A thing to remember as a teacher is also what the law says about giving out information about the students. However, according to the Education Act of Finland, §40, a teacher has the responsibility to report a threat to a person's health and life to police if they have received information that gives them a reason to suspect a person is in danger of being a victim to violence.

5 A SUMMARY OF GUIDELINES FOR TEACHERS

In this chapter, I attempt to summarize on what different experts, studies and sources say about how teachers should discuss violence and traumatic events with their students. I will base my discussion on the sources mentioned above as well as some additional material. I aim my discussion particularly for Finnish teachers working in language classrooms with students aged from 12 to 19. This age group usually has multiple different teachers for different subjects. The teachers might also change from period to period depending on the size of the school. For these reasons, all teachers should be prepared and trained in crisis management as one can never know when they encounter such a situation.

When a violent event happens, it is unexpected in most cases – there is no time to prepare and your emotions can rise to the surface. As a teacher, one might feel confused, helpless and unsure of what to do. Teachers are usually not mental health experts, so they might not feel adequately trained to discuss traumatic events in the classroom, but they do not have to be. The key is empathy and being present. The teacher might have to reflect on some ethical and moral questions about themselves and their students, which I will discuss below. I will also present crisis management instructions for Finnish schools, mostly by the Finnish National Agency for Education. I will also argue why discussion on violence is important to do in the classroom, as well as provide an example case of a terrorist attack in Turku, Finland in August 2017 and how two Finnish cities responded to the incident.

Additional discussion outside of the planned curriculum is often overlooked or even tried to steer away from, since it takes time from the actual subject matters. Teachers can often feel pressured to stick to the curriculum as they also have a limited amount of time to go through all required subject matters. I wanted to highlight how these types of additional discussions can also be made learning experiments in themselves and can act as valuable lesson about life, tolerance and world affairs for the students.

5.1. The dos and don'ts

In this section, ideas from different sources and what they say about what teachers should and should not do when assessing crises in the classroom are gathered and summarized. However, it should be noted that some sources may contradict each other, since in a topic like this there rarely are clear right or wrong answers. New research brings new information on how crisis management should be done most effectively while doing the least harm. In some cases, certain procedures that have been seen as good might turn out to be bad, and vice versa. Many scenarios are related to a time and a place, as well as to a class and a teacher. The intention of this list is to help see and understand general guidelines to better prepare oneself as a teacher when a crisis situation occurs. As mentioned earlier, a crisis breeds anxiety, confusion and panic, which is why teachers as educators must be prepared as well as possible (Rautava 2017). In most cases, teachers are not mental health professionals. However, since one is not always available in all schools and especially in times of a mass incident when there are so many that are affected, a teacher can sometimes be the only one available to help the students in a sudden, unexpected situation. According to research, social support has been proven to have a positive impact in recovering from a traumatic event, and to prevent the development of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Beutler et al. 2007). Of course even if there would be a mental health professional available, the teacher would most likely still play a significant role in the students' recovery process. It does not require formal training to be an empathic human being.

According to the Finnish National Agency for Education (2014c), the teacher is the authority figure in the classroom and for them distributing knowledge comes naturally. Teachers usually know their students, their unique characteristics and personalities quite well, depending on how often they have lessons with them. The teacher might have a very good understanding of the overall atmosphere in the class, whether it is open and supportive or closed and hostile, or something in between. In crisis management, it is up to the teacher to judge what kind of an approach works best for a certain group and what kind of things should be emphasized and focused on – for example if there are several students with anxiety or are prone to worry a lot.

According to Silvola (2007), for a young person the reactions to a crisis can be very polar. Sometimes they might need to be alone and take some time to process things by themselves,

other times they might want to be physically close and to go through the events and their feelings with someone. For a young person going through adolescence, their emotions are the strongest because they are *their own*, Silvola (2007, own emphasis) describes. To summarize: go away – but be nearby. Grief can come in waves, with highs and lows that can be extremely strong. During these times, the teacher should be accessible for the student if and when they need them.

5.1.1. Things to do

As the teacher is often the only adult in the classroom, their role is vital during crises. The teacher should remember though that their job is not to “heal” the students and somehow make them forget what has happened, but to focus on providing comfort and support (Beutler et al. 2007). The first step is to be present as an empathic human being and to listen (Hammarlund 2001: 63). Hammarlund (2001: 63) also states that an important thing is to “make unreal feelings real” – what has happened might be difficult to believe and to internalize, but it still happened and we have to learn to accept and cope with the fact. Most people recover on their own and everyone’s recovery process is different, which is important to remember (Beutler et al. 2007).

One of the most important things for a teacher is to get the facts straight. It is usually assumed that the teacher possesses the most knowledge and that the knowledge is factual, also because of their role as an adult. If no long a time has passed since the incident that is being assessed, many rumors and fake news are bound to circulate, not all of them true or accurate. Being critical of questionable information is crucial, and teachers should teach and instruct students to do the same and provide them with tools to do so, for example by giving examples of trustworthy news websites. In the times of social media, information spreads in seconds and many news sources might publish unverified information. Crisis psychologist Eija Palosaari advises in an interview by Rinta-Tassi 2017 (2017) that it might be smart to take a break from social media altogether, or at least try to limit its use. The Finnish National Agency for Education (2014a) emphasizes critical media reading skills in the National Core Curriculum for both compulsory school and upper secondary school. In cases of missing pieces of information, it is also possible for one’s imagination to start filling in the gaps, often assuming the worst

(Rautava 2017). For a teacher, being up to date on the event and accepting the fact that not all information is necessarily yet available is also something to be especially mindful of, and also to bring it to the students' attention. The police might also withhold some information for investigative reasons. The role of social media in crisis situations is further discussed in section 1.4..

Physical contact has lately been under a lot of scrutiny in Finland. The main issue has been whether teachers should touch their students or not. Physical touch is a natural part of human communication, but the acceptable amount varies greatly between cultures and individuals. The Ethical Committee for the Teaching Profession in Finland (2015) published a statement of opinion about what kind of physical contact is appropriate in a school environment. The Committee (2015) states that what is most important is the student's own experience of whether or not they want to be touched. The teacher has to be sensitive and also make sure that the students do not feel uncomfortable – the school might also have a certain policy for, for example, teachers hugging the students. The Committee (2015) also states that the school should not be “a sterile and formal island where physical touch would not be allowed” and that touching can also be used to create a positive and caring atmosphere, in addition to encouraging words and looks. Hammarlund (2001: 63) also agrees that touching may help some people in calming them down in difficult times and send a message of presence and caring. Silvola (2007) compares a young person's body to an open wound, which should not be touched, especially without permission. It might be a good idea to simply refrain from hugging, unless the students themselves initiate it. Placing a hand on their shoulder can serve as a sign of empathy and support without being too intrusive or violating their personal space too much. Again, if the teacher knows their group and the students well enough, their own personal judgment can prove to be the best guideline whether to touch students or not.

For many people, it is important to be assured that they are safe and that the school is a safe environment (Rinta-Tassi 2017). The incident happened, yes, but it is over now and it will most likely not happen again anytime soon. Knowing that terrorist attacks are still relatively rare and people are constantly working on to prevent them might be beneficial for the teacher to put into words to calm the students down. Fear of death and fear in general in a crisis situation is natural and a part of our psychological defense mechanisms, but they should not be blocked from one's mind completely, since repression of negative feelings might prove to be even more harmful in

the long run (Hammarlund 2001: 39, 65-66). Sometimes there is no explanation for horrible acts that people do to each other, which the teacher can admit openly if the students feel desperate at finding answer to why an incident has happened.

To possibly try to lift the students' spirits up and give hope for the future, it might be helpful for the teacher to bring up the fact that every time there is a terrorist attack or a violent incident, there are always people who rush to help. For example, after the Manchester attack in the UK in May 2017 people were offering free rides around the areas to help them get home safely or offering their homes as shelter for people who were waiting for the shock and panic to pass (Malkin 2017). People rush to donate clothes, food and blood and are showing unity. Showing that despite the evil that is happening, there is always love as the opposing force might make the students feel a little bit better and hopeful.

During terrorist attacks, people often use the word "jihad" or "jihadist", which the students might be unfamiliar with. They might also hear a lot of talk about Islam, for example if an attack has been linked with ISIS. In such a situation, it is important for the teacher to remind the students that the jihadists' view of Islam is very twisted and extreme and very far from the true nature of Islam. However, if the teacher themselves are not Muslim or do not have a lot of knowledge about Islam in general, it might be wise not to start giving their own interpretations on religion, since it is such a sensitive matter and might be offensive if there are for example Muslim students in the school. In this case, the teacher could bring this to the students' attention and the issue could be researched further as a class or even bring in an outside expert to discuss the matter. It is also important to remember that terrorism and terrorist acts are not related to any specific religion, but appear throughout society. Other possible terrorist groups can be right-wing extremists, anarchists or left-wing extremists. Often when a terrorist attack or another violent incident has been executed by a Christian, for example, their religion is not mentioned, making the reporting biased.

Keeping up the normal routines is important and sticking to the regular school rules (Rinta-Tassi 2017: Finnish National Agency for Education 2016a). Hammarlund (2001: 62-63) states that unnecessary stress should be avoided, but the people affected still should not be "overprotected" and shielded from the world too much. So for a teacher it might be wise to

move some deadlines for bigger schoolwork, but otherwise live life as normal. The world is full of distractions which might hinder the grieving process. The teacher should let the students go through their own process and also let them talk and wonder about death and accidents openly (Finnish National Agency for Education 2014b). Some reactions might be sudden or unexpected and the students should be helped to cope with these as well. Some might wonder why they do not feel sad or want to cry, or the teacher might wonder why the students do not show as strong emotions as they anticipated, even if many people have died – this is natural, and the absence of crying does not mean absence of grief (Hammarlund 2001: 39).

For a group discussion on terrorism or other violent incident, it is sometimes necessary for the teacher to set some ground rules, especially if some students are especially anxious and on edge. In some cases, for example, it might be necessary to emphasize that showing emotions is allowed, but no one should use that against them later by making mean comments or laugh if someone is making themselves vulnerable. Hate speech and bullying in these kinds of scenarios is further discussed in section 4.3. By creating a safe space the students can possibly feel a bit more at ease and more eager to talk. UNESCO (2016) gives examples of a set of rules on how to discuss radicalization and extremism in the classroom, which are also applicable for this scenario and complicated discussions in general. In short, the key is for everyone to be respectful and let everyone's voice be heard. The students, as well as the teacher, should remember to keep an open mind and try not to be judgmental. The role of the teacher, while participating in the discussion, is to keep track that everyone who wants to say something gets their turn and that the conversation stays on topic.

5.1.2. Things to avoid

Beutler et al. (2007) argue that the initial discussion of the traumatic event should not be focused on emotions, even though it might initially seem like a good idea. For example the Finnish National Agency for Education (2014d) suggests going through the emotions and reactions during the crisis event as a possible conversation topic after a sudden crisis event, which in light of the research cited in Beutler et al. (2007), should be avoided. Making the students re-live the moment or warning them about symptoms of PTSD are not advised either (Beutler et al. 2007).

A thing to do avoid, which might be difficult sometimes when talking to younger students, is to “sugarcoat” the events, even though they might be violent and tragic. Students’ questions should be answered with honesty and sincerity, but keeping the discussion age-appropriate. According to clinical psychologist Citron (cited in Sellgren 2017), there is no need to go into explicit detail by describing the victims’ injuries or by showing pictures of the scene, but to tell what is relevant and necessary. If the students ask questions, for example if something similar could happen again, they should be answered truthfully, but also emphasizing that incidents, such as terrorist attacks, are relatively rare, Citron states (cited in Sellgren 2017). Vague language and metaphors should be avoided, such as referring to death as “sleeping” (Finnish National Agency for Education 2016a).

A risk for a teacher is to become over-involved in helping the students. The students should be encouraged to use their own inner resources, seek support from family members and friends, and if needed, a mental health professional, such as the school social worker or a psychologist if they, for instance, begin to rely on the teacher’s support too intensely (Beutler et al. 2007, Hammarlund 2001: 63; 75). A simple “pull yourself together” will not do though, according to Hammarlund (2001: 59). Silvola (2007) also reports that young people often find clichés such as “time will heal your wounds”, “I know how you feel” or “it will be ok” unhelpful and even annoying. The people interviewed in Silvola (2007) mostly emphasize that the most important thing for the helper is to show that they care and are present. As a helper, the teacher needs to remember that they themselves might need some time to reflect on their own feelings and reactions to what has happened and not to get too caught-up on helping others. Another thing to consider as a teacher is one’s professionalism. The line between being an empathic person and still remembering your role as a teacher and an employee of a school is sometimes very thin in traumatic or otherwise difficult situations. The teacher of course has to remember trying to keep their composure with the students, but being overly professional and formal might be harmful when discussing with the students (Beutler et al. 2007). The students might see the teacher as too clinical and even “robotic”, which might make seeking support difficult. The teacher should not hide behind their professional role and use it as a mask.

If a student begins to cry, the first natural reaction is usually to rush to console them and possibly to tell them not to cry. This should be avoided, and instead letting the student cry as long as

they need to (Hammarlund 2001: 131). By telling a student not to cry or by hovering over them can make them feel uncomfortable and sends a message that crying is somehow an unwanted reaction. A crying student should be left alone, unless they express otherwise. Crying has also been proven to relieve stress and anxiety, so it might actually do them good.

The teacher should avoid judging or condemning the students' opinions or reactions right away, even though something they might say could be controversial or even false. Saying things like "you can't say that" or "you cannot possibly think that way" can be very discouraging for the student and stop the conversation short (UNESCO 2006). What the teacher could do instead is challenge the student by making them elaborate on their comment and then providing some issues to consider on the matter. The teacher is a model for civil and respectful behavior for the students and should try to stay focused on this (UNESCO 2006). Challenging students' possible controversial thoughts is also discussed in section 4.3..

The teacher should be careful with their language when talking about the perpetrators of a violent attack or an incident – by emphasizing them, you are giving them power and promoting fear and hysteria (Peck 2017). Teachers should not exaggerate the possible outcomes or goals of terrorism. As an example of that, Peck (2017) gives Jeb Bush, a former Governor of Florida, saying that terrorists are trying to carry out "an organized attempt to destroy Western civilization". Whether to talk about the perpetrators by name is up to the teacher to decide – for example in this thesis the names of all the perpetrators of discussed attacks and incidents have been consciously left out. They should not be granted the fame and glory that they were possibly seeking. It is also advised not to talk about "bad people", but "bad acts" that have been done by people who might have been angry, brainwashed, frustrated or confused, since it might incite more fear and create an image that some people are just born evil, which is not the case (Peck 2017). Blaming an ethnic, religious, political or social group is also strictly not okay, since those few individuals that have conducted a terrorist attack or other violent act do not represent the ideology of the entire group. Accusations during crises are not productive in general, neither by the teacher, by the student, or anyone else (Hammarlund 2001: 74).

5.2. Things to consider as a teacher

Times of crisis are difficult not only for the students, but for the teacher as well. Teachers have to face many difficult questions on how to assess the situation with their students, but also how they themselves see and interpret the situation. It is sometimes impossible to evaluate how one will react to crisis events – how one will be able to be the authority, the adult, in a difficult conversation. UNESCO (2016) advises teachers not to have a discussion which they are not mentally and professionally prepared to have, but in reality a teacher might not always have a choice. Sometimes an event is so tragic it has to be brought up, even though the teacher themselves might be very strongly affected by the incident. Leaving it without any reflection might be very confusing for the students and make it seem it is somehow forbidden to discuss. For example, a fellow teacher and I had very different experiences after the 9/11 attack in the US in 2001. We were both in elementary school at that time, but can remember the school day after the attack had happened quite well. My teacher's sister was living in the US at that time and she was very upset about the incident and cried during our classroom discussion. I remember feeling very sad while understanding why this event very far away from my home had worldwide consequences. In contrast, my colleague had had a minute's silence in her classroom, but no one explained to her or her classmates why. They were left feeling very confused about the whole case, since no discussion was had.

Teachers are shaped by their own experiences, religion, upbringing and communities, as are any other individuals (UNESCO 2017: 119-120). This can lead to many ethical dilemmas, in terms of, for example, what is seen as forbidden in some religions or communities. In cases of ethical problems or conflicts, what should always be seen first are basic human rights. Teachers should be aware of their own possible prejudices and reflect on them with themselves, possibly other teachers, and their students. Teacher training often includes this sort of reflection and configuring one's own "teaching philosophy", at least in Finland.

It is natural for a teacher to have their own emotional reactions. It can often even be seen as beneficial to show them to the students, thus "leading by example" in a way. For the students, seeing the teacher as an empathic person with similar feelings as themselves may also be helpful in justifying their own reactions while being encouraged to express them. It is up to the teachers

themselves to consider how transparent they want to keep themselves and how clearly they want to separate their personal from their professional lives. As crisis psychologist Salli Saari states (see appendix 1) in the instructions for schools after the Turku stabbing in Finland in 2017, it is important for teachers to get together and discuss their emotions and reactions with other adults first before going in to the classroom, so they can let out their own possible frustration, fear and anger. It lets them be vulnerable first, but then when it is time to face the students, they have already had a change to let out their initial reactions and reflect on them in a less vulnerable company – other adults. That way teachers may have more strength to “be the adult” in a crisis management discussion with the students.

Hammarlund (2001: 64-65) lists factors that can interfere or hinder crisis treatment, which are applicable to a teacher’s crisis discussion with students. There are three main categories of factors; situation, individualism and other circumstances. The situation can incite passiveness and helplessness in the students (and also in the teacher). If the incident has, for example, happened nearby, the danger can feel very prominent. If the students are in a different environment that they are used to, for example on a language course in a foreign country, the sense of danger can be even stronger. Individualistic character traits such as age and gender can also be affecting factors. Students might (and most likely do) have different abilities of stress tolerance – others start to show signs of stress by very little stimulus, others are more able to cope. Students might also have other existing sources of stress, such as school work or relationship problems. Other circumstances that might make crisis treatment difficult are, for instance, lack of social contact and support from peers, parents, or environment in general, and lack of crisis treatment as well, for example if the treatment has been delayed.

Teacher training in Finland rarely touches upon crises in schools or provides tools on how to cope with traumatic events. Of course, the school’s crisis management plan includes information on evacuation and alerting the officials, but how to act in a time of grief, confusion, and even hate is not discussed often. Many of my teacher colleagues have mentioned how helpless they felt when they were faced with a situation where they had to explain and assess a horrible event to the students. This is why preparation on the teacher’s, and the school’s, part is essential to do before something happens, not during or after. This absence of training and knowledge was one of the main incentives for me to write my thesis on this topic.

In some cases, a teacher might have a very strong view of the incident, for example for political reasons. According to the Citizenship Foundation (2003), in this case it is important for them to separate their personal views from their role as public educators and bring it to the students' attention that they might be biased on the matter. The teacher should be mindful of this and give equal space to different views on the matter, remembering that not all students or people in general agree with them. Keeping facts and opinions separate and that opinions are open to qualification and questioning is important, and also emphasizing that the teacher is not a know-it-all authority and expert on all matters. The Citizenship Foundation (2003) mentions that even though the teacher should not actively promote their own personal world views, they can still openly disapprove of prosecution and injustice, for example racism or violation of human rights. Teachers also have the same rights as any other citizens, so during their free time they may show their support to different causes they find important by, for example, participating in marches and protests, though during school time this type of promotion might even be legally prohibited (Citizenship Foundation 2003).

5.3. Crisis management in Finnish schools

From the year 2003, The Finnish National Core Curriculum (Finnish National Agency for Education 2014a: 83-84) has required all schools to have a crisis management plan. The plan should include procedures to prevent, notice and assess crises (Lassila-Merisalo 2015). The Finnish National Agency for Education (2013) instructs the crisis management plan to include the following:

- Crisis prevention and preparation
- Cooperation and allocation of jobs and responsibilities in crisis preparation and crisis situations
- Cohesion of the school's rescue plan, regulations and other safety instructions
- Procedures in sudden crisis situations
- Communicational guidelines and principles for administration, internal and external communication and the communication between the schools and the educational provider

- Arrangement of psychosocial support and aftercare
- Informing about the crisis management plan, familiarization and revision
- Updating and evaluating the crisis management plan

The Finnish National Agency for Education has also produced material to support schools and teachers in times of crisis. This material is examined in this section. A part of the material is a general guideline on how to assess a crisis when it happens somewhere else, for example a terrorist attack in another country (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2017a). In the guidelines a crisis psychologist Eija Palosaari gives some tips for teachers on how to discuss a sudden accident, incident or a crisis with the students. According to the article, it is vital that teachers as adults of the school are ready to discuss sudden crisis events. Assessing the situation while it is fresh helps the students to analyze and reflect it further. Palosaari gives seven possible topics to discuss in the classroom (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2017a):

1. What has really happened: confirmed facts about the situation at that moment
2. How did you find out: where were you, what were you doing at the time of the crisis
3. What went through your mind: what thoughts did it evoke when you found out about the crisis
4. How did you feel: Emotions might arise later, often at first there is only confusion and bewilderment, or lack of emotions
5. How did your body react: You might notice some physical reactions, such as tension, pain or restlessness, but your body will return to normal in time
6. How to help yourself/others to move on: talking, reminiscing, exercising, regular everyday life
7. What happens after school: informing homes that the crisis has been discussed in school and encouraging to continue the conversation at home

Topic number can be seen as one of critical importance, since rumors often circulate around sudden crisis events and false information spreads easily, for example, via social media. The teacher should act as an expert in this situation and make sure the students have actual, confirmed facts. This also helps to prevent possible hate speech and blaming innocent people. In times of crisis, people often want information as fast as possible and might turn to

questionable sources (Rinta-Tassi 2017, Council of Europe 2015). The role of social media in crisis situations is further discussed in section 1.4..

Topics two to six are to help the students to understand their and others' emotions and give them justification. For example, it is normal to feel certain "lack of emotions" and it does not mean that one does not care (Hammarlund 2001: 39). Giving the students tools to help them reflect on the event and the discussion later can also be beneficial. Palosaari (Finnish National Agency for Education 2017a) also brings up that even though the teacher is the adult in the situation, they do not have to have answers to all the questions or to know everything. However, according to Beutler et al. (2007), it might actually be harmful to make the students re-live the situation.

The Finnish National Agency for Education (2014c) provides an example model to assess a crisis in the classroom. It includes five phases, which are summarized below:

1. Opening the discussion ("Avaus")

Here, the ground rules should be set and the purpose of the discussion established. The teacher should bring up that no one is required to speak unless they want to. Crying and being sad is allowed, but no bullying or negative comments about anything anyone has said or done is tolerated.

2. Explaining the situation, clearing things out ("Selvitys vaihe")

The teacher should provide factual information, tell what has actually happened and what is known so far. Rumors and unverified information should be discussed and corrected. Open conversation should be encouraged.

3. Normalization stage & confirming survival methods ("Normalisointivaihe ja selviytymiskeinojen vahvistaminen")

The goal here is to help the students understand different reactions to crisis events and that they are all normal and acceptable. In this phase, it should be mentioned that the Finnish National Agency for Education suggests that questions like "how did you feel when you found out about the incident" should be avoided, even though in some

material it is suggested. This can make the information in the document seem contradictory, and therefore somewhat questionable.

4. Looking towards the future (“Tulevaisuuteen katsominen”)

The teacher should emphasize that talking about different emotions and feelings is completely acceptable and encouraged. What happens next in the following days should be discussed so that the students have a sense that life still goes on.

5. Ending the discussion (“Päätösvaihe”)

When concluding the discussion, the teacher can ask for follow-up questions and if something is still unclear. If the teacher has noticed a student is reacting very strongly to the event, they can discuss it with them further in private. The teacher can also guide to students to seek further help, such as a school social worker or a crisis hotline, if they so wish.

Finnish National Agency for Education (2014c) also gives some example activities to help the students process a crisis event, such as “finish the sentence” type exercises, writing down their thoughts, and drawing. It is important to give the students possibilities for different types of expression and processing their emotions (Finnish National Agency for Education 2014b).

5.4. Violence and schools – why is discussion important

UNESCO’s (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) *A Teacher’s Guide on the Prevention of Violent Extremism* (2016) gives many valid points on why classroom discussion on difficult issues is so important. First of all, being aware of complex issues is a vital part of being an educated and informed global citizen, and it is also an important part of democracy education. Adults might sometimes undermine young peoples’ capabilities and interest in such issues, such as terrorism. If trusted adults, such as parents or teachers, do not give the young the answers they want and need they might turn to questionable and unreliable sources. If a teacher is not willing to discuss these difficult issues, it might lead to problems such as false information spreading among the students while having no adult to

reflect the information with. Students might also not be aware of certain global issues and the reasons behind them, thus missing the “bigger picture”.

For a teacher, it is important to be aware of current issues and how to reflect on them in the classroom. Classroom discussion on issues such as violence, extremism, radicalization and terrorism also has the opportunity to educate the students on many important life values, human rights, and develop their argumentative skills. During such a discussion, the students might express many different views and disagree with each other on certain issues. This can help them learn to understand different opinions and respect them, as well as teaching them how to voice their own opinions on difficult issues, with the help of a competent teacher. Teachable moments might pop up multiple times in the discussion, which the teacher has an opportunity to highlight. UNESCO (2016) explains teachable moments as random, spontaneous moments when, for example, a conflict happens or someone does something extraordinarily well. For example, if a student provides a very insightful comment it can be used for the teacher as an example on how to formulate your opinion well, or if a student uses a racist slur the teacher can explain its history and why it should not be used. Therefore, a teachable moment can arise from both negative and positive incidents and they can happen anywhere in the school environment.

The Council of Europe (2015) gives nine reasons on why teaching controversial issues is important; the main reasons are, such as in the article mentioned in the previous paragraphs by UNESCO (2016), that being able to discuss controversial issues, such as terrorism, radicalization and extremism, the students can enforce their role as responsible and active members of a democratic society and it should be an essential part of any young person’s social and political education. It can help develop open-mindedness, tolerance and curiosity towards current events and capabilities for peaceful conflict resolution. Young people receive a lot of information on different issues all the time, so they should be given tools to help them understand them and to recognize if a source is, for example, biased. The media can present different issues in a very black-and-white way, so the students should be taught to see through this. Critical thinking and analytical skills are also mentioned as an important part of education, and practicing them through a discussion like this gives the students better abilities to cope with future issues and controversy later in life. Participating in a discussion that has no clear right or wrong answers and people might have very different opinions also helps with emotional

development and might give a clearer understanding of one's own values and what is important for them in life.

Discussion on tragic and violent events can also help the students to deal with difficult and possibly traumatic events. It might also aid them in their own recovery process. For some students, the teacher can be a very important adult figure in their lives. Therefore, getting emotional support from them can be very beneficial and helpful. A time when a teacher has helped them through a difficult situation can stay in their mind for a long time, reminding them on how important it was when somebody cared about them and their well-being.

5.4.1. Example case: Turku stabbing in August 2017 and the response in two Finnish cities

The Turku stabbing incident in Finland in August 2017 can be regarded as the first Jihadi terrorist attack in Finland. Ten years after the school shootings of Kauhajoki and Jokela, the event shook the whole nation and the EU, since Finland is regarded the safest country in the world (World Economic Forum, 2017). This event and how schools reacted to it is discussed in this section. I have gathered instructions sent out from the Education Division of the cities of Turku and Oulu specifically made for this incident (see Appendices 1 and 2). These instructions are also discussed and analyzed. E-mails requesting for such instructions were also sent to the Education Divisions of Helsinki and Tampere, but without reply. The city of Jyväskylä replied, but they did not have a specific set of instructions for this incident, though they sent me the general crisis plan of high schools' and other upper secondary schools' of Jyväskylä.

The city of Turku was naturally most affected by the incident. A set of instructions were written by a crisis psychologist Salli Saari, and were sent out the schools of Turku region as a briefing e-mail two days after the incident (see Appendix 1 – Education Division of the city of Turku: Instructions for schools after the Turku stabbing on 18 August, 2017). In the incident, a male started to stab random passers-by, mostly targeting females. There were ten victims in total, two of which died. The incident happened in the center of town, so it had many eyewitnesses. Saari states that some of the students and teachers might have been present as well. The Finnish

media was full of reports after the incident, so she states that everyone must have known about it. Saari's instructions have two parts: first, a set of topics to discuss with teachers only, second, what to discuss with the students.

In the briefing e-mail (see Appendix 1) Saari emphasizes that the teachers should discuss the incident first amongst themselves before going to the classroom. She also states that assessing the matter is crucial, since it has affected the whole city so strongly and talking about it might help to get back to normal school routines. As Turku is a relatively small city and the attack happened during a busy time in the center of town, it is entirely possible that a teacher was present during the incident as well. In this case the discussion among adults is even more important, so that the teacher also gets a change to share their feelings, thoughts and possible fears. The discussion between teachers also helps them to reflect their own thoughts first and then possibly have more of a clear mind before beginning the discussion with the students. During the teacher discussion the possible school crisis team or mental health professional can distribute further instructions on how to assess the situation in the classroom.

Saari provides some example topics the teachers should discuss with their students: was someone present during the incident? What did they see and experience? What kind of feelings does the incident evoke in them? Are they scared or feeling unsafe and why? What could make them feel better? Saari also highlights the importance of emphasizing for the students that an incident like this is extremely rare, it is now over and Turku might be safer now than before the incident. In light of the research discussed more in chapter 5, some of Saari's instructions might be very beneficial, some even harmful. For example putting the students who were present during the incident in the spotlight and making them relive possibly a very traumatic incident might make them really distressed and encourage the development of PTSD (Beutler et al. 2007). Their friends might already be asking them a lot of questions, so as a teacher I would advise them to leave those people alone unless they themselves feel like talking about their experience. Assessing the students' feelings of insecurity might be the most important thing for them to discuss and share. Then again, the teacher should not make exaggerated promises of added safety, since no one ever knows when and where a new attack happens.

Instructions e-mailed to the principals of the city of Oulu were written by the head of The

Department of Educational and Cultural Services of the city of Oulu, but he often quotes a crisis psychotherapist Eija Palosaari from Palosaari's interview that day's *Kaleva* (see Appendix 2 – Educational and Cultural services of the city of Oulu: Instructions sent to principals after the Turku stabbing. He also links two news articles where another crisis psychotherapist, Soili Poijula, is interviewed on terrorism and how to explain it to children (Kallunki 2017, Laurila 2017). In the quote by Palosaari she states it is important for the teacher to facilitate the discussion in the classroom, since if the students only discuss the incident amongst themselves, the discussion might go out of control and increase fear. Palosaari also instructs the teacher to calm the students and verify that they are safe, that the school is safe and there is no danger of a new attack at the moment. Even though the actual set of instructions sent out from the city of Oulu are actually rather concise, the articles linked provide plenty of useful information from an actual mental health professional. For example, the article by Laurila (2017), published in a non-scientific periodical magazine, explains many questions what children and adolescents might have about terrorism.

In the crisis management plan for students of the city of Jyväskylä (“Opiskelijoiden kriisisuunnitelma”, Opiskeluhooltosuunnitelman liite nro 1, 2015), there is only a very short section on crisis situations outside of the school. Examples given are a traffic accident, a fire, a destructive accident that has happened in the area or some other crisis situation that strongly affects the society. According to the plan, the advised steps to be taken are to inform the school's principal, the department's director and the Head of Education. The information should be verified from a credible source and the crisis management team should meet if necessary. The communication is principal's responsibility and the staff and the students should be informed if necessary. The instructions can be argued not to be very comprehensive, though for example the crisis management team might have some additional training and information to give to school staff if the need for such arises.

6 CONCLUSION

One of the most challenging parts of the teaching profession is to keep up with the ever-changing world. The increasing amount of mass violence is one of those changes, which I have tried to discuss in this thesis in a comprehensive way from the viewpoint of a teacher. The main aim of this thesis is to discuss literature and summarize some of the guidelines presented. Through this discussion it may be easier to understand the possible reasons and motives of people who inflict violence on others and in what way should teachers to convey that information to their students. By trying to learn and understand the phenomena connected to violence, the fear that a possible terrorist threat or a violent incident can incite might even be reduced.

In chapter one, different aspects of crises were discussed and how they are related to education and the job of teachers. The role of social media during crises was also brought up, as I feel it is definitely something that many people are still trying to learn the ropes of, especially how to use it responsibly. In chapter two, I discussed different forms of violence, such as terrorism as a phenomenon, some of the complexities behind it and why they are something that the modern teacher should educate themselves in.

In chapter three, I presented some existing research on teachers' reactions to public tragedies, such as the September 11 terrorist attack in the US. Violence is not a pleasant or an easy topic, which is probably why people can often shy away from discussing it. Most teachers who were studied in the research discussed felt challenged by the situation, but faced it bravely and professionally. Learning about situations like these and getting to know the scientific research conducted on the topic can give one better tools to face it if and when the time comes. Teacher training and self-studying can give teachers more confidence when it comes to discussing violent incidents in the classroom. Teachers play an important role in their students' life and are responsible for them, so they should not bury their head in the sand when something unpleasant and controversial needs to be assessed in the classroom. Teachers can often have enormous mental capabilities, as shown in the discussed research in chapter three.

As pointed out above, education has a major role in contributing towards a more peaceful future. By learning about other cultures, religions and worldviews the younger generation can understand and accept that we are different, and see that it is a positive thing. On one hand, governmental prevention strategies against violent extremism and instructions for teachers can make implementing prevention easier. On the other hand, it can also provide teachers with more work and more challenges. In chapter four, I presented strategic guidelines and programmes from three different countries: Finland, the United Kingdom and the United States. There were differences between the extensiveness and coverage of the different strategies, but the underlying message was more or less the same: promoting tolerance, acceptance and inclusiveness.

Chapter five focused on giving concrete guidelines gathered from different sources on what to do as a teacher in case of a violent event. Teachers can have a fear that they are doing or saying something wrong when discussing violent events with their students. However, the teacher's presence, comments and opinions are often very important to the students. The teacher's role for the students is, naturally, to provide them with factual information and controversies to think about, as well as explaining the context surrounding the event. The fear that may be present among the teachers can also be seen from the administrators' instructions when they have told the teacher not to discuss an event in the classroom in the research discussed in chapter three. Fear is natural, but giving into it gives it more power. Fear is often the incentive for violence, as discussed in section 2.1.1., which is why it should not be given into. By not letting fear control our lives, we show courage, which could be a possible antidote for violence.

During the writing process of this thesis, I feel that my own level of professionalism as a teacher has evolved tremendously. I started this process with a desire to learn more about how I should act as a teacher when I have to face a situation when something horrible has happened and my students want to know more and might need to be consoled. Now, I feel much more capable and prepared for different situations I might encounter in my future teaching career after reviewing the source material used in this thesis. I hope that this piece of text is found beneficial by other teachers as well and maybe encourage and help them with their classroom discussions.

REFERENCES

- Atran, S. (2004). Mishandling Suicide Terrorism. *The Washington Quarterly* [online] 27 (3), 65-90. <http://www.mtholyoke.edu/~jwestern/SS%20303/suicide%20terrorism.pdf>. (14 November, 2017)
- Atran, S. (2006). The Moral Logic and Growth of Suicide Terrorism. *The Washington Quarterly* [online] 29 (2), 127-147. https://jeannicod.ccsd.cnrs.fr/ijn_00000676/document. (14 November, 2017)
- BBC News (2012). Anders Behring Breivik: Norway court finds him sane. *BBC News* [online] 24 August, 2012. <http://www.bbc.com/news/world-europe-19365616>. (30 November, 2017)
- Beutler, L., Reyes, G., Franco, C., Housley, J. (2007). The Need for Proficient Mental Health Professionals in the Study of Terrorism. *Psychology of terrorism*. Edited by Bongar, B., Brown, M., Beutler, L., Breckenridge, J., & Zimbardo, P. Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press, 32-55.
- Bisland, B. (2006). At the Edge of Danger: Elementary Teachers in Queens, New York, September 11, 2001. *Education and Urban Society* [online] 2006, 38 (4), 375-397. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013124506287913>. (4 April, 2018)
- Bongar, B. (2007). The Psychology of Terrorism. Defining the Need and Describing the Goals. *Psychology of terrorism*. Edited by Bongar, B., Brown, M., Beutler, L., Breckenridge, J., & Zimbardo, P. Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press, 3-12.
- Botha, A. & Abdile, M. (2014). *Radicalisation and al-Shabaab Recruitment in Somalia*. <https://issafrica.s3.amazonaws.com/site/uploads/Paper266.pdf>. (17 April, 2018)
- Brody, D. & Baum, N. (2015). Israeli Kindergarten Teachers Cope with Terror and War: Two Implicit Models of Resilience. *Curriculum Inquiry* [online] 37 (1), 9-31. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-873X.2007.00379.x>. (4 April, 2018)

Centre for Urban Education (2018). *'Learning Together to be Safe': Lesson plans, learning resources and background information to support schools in combating violent extremism and achieving the aims of the DfCSF toolkit on PREVENT* [online]. Centre for Urban Education, Institute of Education & Manchester Metropolitan University.

http://www.preventforschools.org/index.php?category_id=47 and <http://www.preventforschools.org/download/file/mmu-learning-together-to-be-safe.pdf>. (17 April, 2018)

Citizenship Foundation (2003). *Teaching about controversial issues: guidance for schools* [online]. <https://www.youngcitizens.org/controversial-issues-guidance-for-schools>. (17 April, 2018)

Council of Europe (2015). *Living with Controversy: Teaching Controversial Issues Through Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights (EDC/HRE): Training Pack for Teachers* [online]. <https://rm.coe.int/16806948b6>. (7 June, 2018)

Darwish, A-F. & Huber, G. (2003). Individualism vs Collectivism in Different Cultures: a cross-cultural study. *Intercultural Education* [online] 14 (1), 47-56. doi: 10.1080/1467598032000044647. (7 June, 2018)

Dreyfuss, E. (2017). *Think Before You Tweet in the Wake of an Attack* [online]. <https://www.wired.com/2017/05/think-tweet-wake-attack/>. (27 February, 2018)

Edel, M. (2017). Suomi vuonna 2025. *Rakentavaa vuorovaikutusta: Opas demokraattisen osallisuuden vahvistamiseen, vihapuheen ja väkivaltaisen ekstremismin ennaltaehkäisyyn*, 6-10. Finnish National Agency for Education.

Education Act of Finland, §40 (2010). Henkilötietojen salassapito ja käsittely. <https://www.finlex.fi/fi/laki/ajantasa/1998/19980628?search%5Btype%5D=pika&search%5Bpika%5D=perusopetuslaki>.

Ethical Committee for the Teaching Profession (Opetusalan eettinen neuvosto) (2015). *Millainen fyysinen vuorovaikutus on sopivaa kouluympäristössä?* [online]. <http://www.oaj.fi/cs/oaj/neuvottelukunnan%20julkaisut>. (17 April, 2018)

Europol (2017). *European Union Terrorism Situation and Trend Report 2017*. European Union Agency for Law Enforcement Cooperation [online].

<https://www.europol.europa.eu/activities-services/main-reports/eu-terrorism-situation-and-trend-report-te-sat-2017>. (28 February, 2018)

Espelage, D. (2013). Understanding and preventing violence directed against teachers: Recommendations for a national research, practice, and policy agenda. *The American Psychologist* [online] 68 (2), 75-87. doi: 10.1037/a0031307. (7 June, 2018)

Extreme Dialogue (2017). Extreme Dialogue Facilitator Guide [online].

<http://extremedialogue.org/educational-resources>. (17 April, 2018)

Finnish National Agency for Education (2013). *Opetustoimen ja varhaiskasvatuksen turvallisuusopas* [online]. http://www.oph.fi/opetustoimen_turvallisuusopas. (19 April, 2018)

Finnish National Agency for Education (2014a). *Perusopetuksen opetussuunnitelman perusteet 2014*.

Finnish National Agency for Education (2015). *Lukion opetussuunnitelman perusteet 2015*.

Finnish National Agency for Education (2017a). *Muulla tapahtuneen kriisin käsittely* [online].

http://www.oph.fi/saadokset_ja_ohjeet/turvallisuus_ja_oppilashuolto/kriisitilanteisiin_varautuminen/muulla_tapahtuneen_kriisin_kasittely. (17 April, 2018)

Finnish National Agency for Education (2017b). *Opetushallitus kokosi kouluille materiaalia väkivaltaisen ekstremismin ennaltaehkäisyyn tueksi* [online].

http://www.oph.fi/ajankohtaista/verkkouutiset/101/0/opetushallitus_kokosi_kouluille_materiaalia_vakivaltaisen_ekstremismin_ennaltaehkaysyn_tueksi. (31 October, 2017)

Finnish National Agency for Education (2016a). *Psykososiaalinen tuki äkillisissä kriiseissä* [online]. <http://www.oph.fi/kriisiaineisto>. (17 March, 2018)

Nuori äkillisessä kriisissä: ohjeita kohtaamiseen (2014b)

http://www.oph.fi/kriisiaineisto/psykososiaalisen_tuen_jarjestaminen/ohjeita_ja_toimintamalleja_kriisin_kasittelyyn/nuori_akillisessa_kriisissa

Traumaattisten tapahtumien käsittely luokassa (2014c)

http://www.oph.fi/kriisiaineisto/psykososiaalisen_tuen_jarjestaminen/ohjeita_ja

[toimintamalleja kriisin kasittelyyn/traumaattisten tapahtumien kasittely luokassa](#)

Keskusteluaiheita koululuokkaan äkillisen kriisin jälkeen (2014d)

http://www.oph.fi/kriisiaineisto/psykososiaalisen_tuen_jarjestaminen/ohjeita_ja_toimintamalleja_kriisin_kasittelyyn/keskusteluaiheita_koululuokkaan_kriisin_jalkeen

Finnish National Agency for Education (2016b). Oppilas- ja opiskelijahuollon opas. Äkilliset kriisit sekä uhka- ja vaaratilanteet ja niihin varautuminen [online].

http://www.oph.fi/oppilashuollon_opas/yhteisollinen_oppilashuolto/akilliset_kriisit_uhka-ja_vaaratilanteet. (18 April, 2018)

Fraustino, Daisy, J., Liu, B. and Jin, Y. (2012). *Social Media Use during Disasters: A Review of the Knowledge Base and Gaps*. Final Report to Human Factors/Behavioral Sciences Division, Science and Technology Directorate, U.S. Department of Homeland Security [online]. College Park, MD: START, 2012.

https://www.start.umd.edu/sites/default/files/files/publications/START_SocialMediaUseduringDisasters_LitReview.pdf. (18 April, 2018)

Hammarlund, C-O. (2001). *Kriisikeskustelu. Kriisituki, jälkipuinti, stressin ja konfliktien käsittely*. Helsinki: Tietosanoma.

Haslam, N. (2006). Dehumanization: An Integrative Review. *Personality and Social Psychology Review* [online] 10 (3), 252-264.

https://web.archive.org/web/20130626110654/http://general.utpb.edu/fac/hughes_j/Haslam%20on%20dehumanization.pdf. (18 April, 2018)

Henman, M. (2018). Global Militant Attacks Caused Fewer Fatalities in 2017 [online].

<https://ihsmarkit.com/research-analysis/global-militant-attacks-caused-fewer-fatalities-in-2017.html>. (27 February, 2018)

Hill, D. J. (2003). *Crisis and the Classroom: A Practical Guide for Teachers*. Springfield, Ill: Charles C Thomas.

- HM Government (2015). *Revised Prevent Duty Guidance: for England and Wales* [online]. https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/445977/3799_Revised_Prevent_Duty_Guidance_England_Wales_V2-Interactive.pdf. (6 June, 2018)
- HM Government (2011). *CONTEST: The United Kingdom's Strategy for Countering Terrorism* [online]. https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/97994/contest-summary.pdf. (17 April, 2018)
- Insarova, N. G. (2014). Факторы личности и среды при формировании экстремистских установок у молодежи. *Психологическая наука и образование psyedu.ru* [online] 2014 (1), 77-84. http://psyedu.ru/files/articles/psyedu_ru_2014_1_Insarova.pdf. (26 February, 2018)
- Kaleva (2014). Poliisi Rautavaaran perhesurmasta: Äiti ajoi kolarin pikaistuksissaan. *Kaleva* [online] 30.12.2014. <http://www.kaleva.fi/uutiset/kotimaa/poliisi-rautavaaran-perhesurmasta-aiti-ajoi-kolarin-pikaistuksissaan/685396/>. (26 February, 2018)
- Kallunki, E. (2017). Kriisipsykologi: Jos terrorismi pelottaa, älä seuraa somea ja media loputtomiin. *Yle* [online] 8 April 2017. <https://yle.fi/uutiset/3-9555134>. (6 June, 2017)
- Killoran, E. (2013). One Day After Boston Bombing, New York Post Has Not Retracted Presumably Incorrect Reports Of Death Toll And Saudi Suspect. *International Business Times* [online] 16 April 2013. <http://www.ibtimes.com/one-day-after-boston-bombing-new-york-post-has-not-retracted-presumably-incorrect-reports-death-toll#>. (29 November, 2017)
- Klausen, J. (2015) Tweeting the Jihad: Social Media Networks of Western Foreign Fighters in Syria and Iraq. *Studies in Conflict & Terrorism* [online] 38 (1), 1-22. <http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/pdf/10.1080/1057610X.2014.974948?needAccess=true>. doi: 10.1080/1057610X.2014.974948. (17 April 2018)
- Kundnani, A. (2009). *Spooked! How Not to Prevent Violent Extremism*. London: Institute of Race Relations [online]. <http://cve-kenya.org:8080/jspui/bitstream/123456789/108/1/Kundnani%202009.%20Spooked.%20How%20not%20to%20CVE.pdf>. (17 April, 2018)
- Lassila-Merisalo, M. (2015). Surun Aika. *Opettaja* 25/2015. <http://content.opettaja.fi/epaper/20151030/17/index.html>. (17 April, 2018)

Laurila, S. (2017). Näin selität lapselle, mitä tarkoittaa terrorismi. *Kodin Kuvalehti* [online] 26 May 2017. <https://www.kodinkuvalehti.fi/artikkeli/voi-hyvin/psykologia/nain-selitat-lapselle-mita-tarκοittaa-terroristi>. (6 June, 2018)

Let's Talk About It (2018). *Spotting the Signs* [online]. <http://www.ltai.info/spotting-the-signs/>. (28 February, 2018)

Malkin, B. (2017). Manchester attack: city mobilises to help concertgoers with offers of rooms and free rides. *The Guardian* [online] 23 May 2017. <https://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2017/may/23/manchester-attack-city-mobilises-to-help-concertgoers-with-offers-of-rooms-and-free-rides>. (1 March, 2018)

Mankkinen, T. (2017). Väkivaltaisen radikalismien ja ekstremismien ehkäisy. *Rakentavaa vuorovaikutusta. Opas demokraattisen osallisuuden vahvistamiseen, vihapuheen ja radikalismien ennaltaehkäisyyn*, 21-25. Elo, S., Kaihari, K., Mattila, P. & Nissilä, L.

Mattila, P. (2017). Kielikasvatus rakentaa, sovittelu korjaa vuorovaikutusta. *Rakentavaa vuorovaikutusta. Opas demokraattisen osallisuuden vahvistamiseen, vihapuheen ja radikalismien ennaltaehkäisyyn*, 34-37. Elo, S., Kaihari, K., Mattila, P. & Nissilä, L.

McCauley, C. (2007). Psychological Issues in Understanding Terrorism and the Response to Terrorism. *Psychology of terrorism*. Edited by Brongar, B., Brown, M., Beutler, L., Breckenridge, J., & Zimbardo, P. Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press, 13-31.

Ministry of the Interior (2010). Kansallinen terrorismin torjunnan strategia. Sisäinen turvallisuus. *Sisäasiain ministeriön julkaisuja* [online] 2010 (21). https://julkaisut.valtioneuvosto.fi/bitstream/handle/10024/80485/sm_212010.pdf?sequence=1. (17 April, 2018)

Ministry of the Interior (2012). Towards a Cohesive Society: Action Plan to Prevent Violent Extremism. *Ministry of the Interior Publications* 2012 (33). Helsinki: Ministry of the Interior.

Ministry of the Interior (2015). Väkivaltaisen ekstremismien tilannekatsaus 2/2015. *Sisäministeriön julkaisu* [online] 2015 (20). <http://urn.fi/URN:ISBN:978-952-324-051-3>. (28 February, 2018)

Ministry of the Interior (2016). Väkivaltaisen ekstremismin tilannekatsaus 1/2016: Teematilannekatsaus: Väkivaltaiseen ekstremismiin liittyvät rikokset 2015. *Sisäministeriön julkaisu* [online] 2016 (23). <http://urn.fi/URN:ISBN:978-952-324-102-2>. (28 February, 2018)

Ministry of the Interior (2017). Väkivaltaisen ekstremismin tilannekatsaus 1/2017. *Sisäministeriön julkaisu* [online] 2017 (3). Helsinki: Sisäministeriö. <http://urn.fi/URN:ISBN:978-952-324-123-7>. (28 February, 2018)

Moghaddam, F. (2007). The Staircase to Terrorism: A Psychological Exploration. *Psychology of terrorism*. Edited by Brongar, B., Brown, M., Beutler, L., Breckenridge, J., & Zimbardo, P. Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press, 69-80.

Nissinen, K. (2017). Turvallisuustyötä yhdessä. *Rakentavaa vuorovaikutusta: Opas demokraattisen osallisuuden vahvistamiseen, vihapuheen ja radikalismin ennaltaehkäisyyn*. Edited by Elo, S., Kaihari, K., Mattila, P. & Nissilä, L.

Noppe, I., Noppe, L., & Bartell, D. (2006). Terrorism and Resilience: Adolescents' and Teachers' Responses to September 11, 2001. *Death Studies* [online] 01 January 2006, 30 (1), 41-60. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1080/07481180500348761>. (5 April, 2018)

Office of Partner Engagement: Federal Bureau of Investigation (2016). *Preventing Violent Extremism in Schools* [online]. <https://info.publicintelligence.net/FBI-PreventingExtremismSchools.pdf>. (16 April, 2018)

Peck, S. (2017). How to explain the horror of terrorism to your children. *The Telegraph* [online] 18 August, 2017. <http://www.telegraph.co.uk/women/life/manchester-arena-attack-explain-horror-children/>. (30 November, 2017)

Personal, Health, Social and Economic Association (2018). *Addressing extremism and radicalisation lesson plans* [online]. <https://www.pshe-association.org.uk/curriculum-and-resources/resources/addressing-extremism-and-radicalisation-lesson>. (18 April, 2018)

Preventforschools.org (n.d.). <http://www.preventforschools.org/index.php>. (17 April, 2018)

Quadara, A. (2008). Responding to young people disclosing sexual assault: A resource for schools. Australian Centre for the Study of Sexual Assault. *ACSSA Wrap* [online] 2008 (6). https://aifs.gov.au/sites/default/files/publication-documents/acssa_wrap6.pdf. (27 February, 2018)

- Rautava, M. (2017). *Koulun kriisisuunnitelman laatiminen* [online]. http://edu.fi/download/118324_koulun_kriisisuunnitelman_laatiminen.pdf. (17 April, 2018)
- Rinta-Tassi, M. (2017). Kriisipsykologin neuvo Turun tapahtumien käsittelyyn: keskity todellisiin faktoihin, muista että olet turvassa, pidä taukoa somesta. *Yle* [online] 19 August, 2017. <https://yle.fi/uutiset/3-9786080>. (30 November, 2017)
- Sawer, P. & Harley, N. (2017). Natural History Museum incident: Several injured after car mounts pavement and hits pedestrians, but police rule out terror. *The Telegraph* [online] 7 October, 2017. <http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/2017/10/07/car-mounts-pavement-outside-london-museum-according-reports1/>. (17 April, 2018)
- Sellgren, K. (2017). How to talk to children about terrorist attacks. *BBC News* [online] 19 June 2017. <http://www.bbc.com/news/education-40011787>. (17 April, 2018)
- Silvola, H. (2007). Kriisi koulussa. *Kriisityön käsikirja. Käytännön opastusta kriisin kohdatessa*. Edited by Pohjolan-Pirhonen, C., Poutiainen, K. ja Samulin, H. Kirjapaja.
- Skjeseth, A. (2011, August 19). 1 av 4 kjenner rammede. *Klassekampen* [online] 19 August, 2011. <http://www.klassekampen.no/59186/article/item/null/-av--kjenner-rammede>. (21 November, 2017)
- Thomas, P. (2010). Failed and Friendless: The UK's 'Preventing Violent Extremism' Programme. *The British Journal of Politics and International Relations* [online] 12 (3), 442-458. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-856X.2010.00422.x>. (1 March, 2018)
- Ting, L., Sanders, S., & Smith, P. (2002). The Teachers' Reactions to School Violence Scale: Psychometric Properties and Scale Development. *Educational and Psychological Measurement* [online] 62 (6), 1006-1019. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164402238087>. (17 April, 2018)
- Tower Hamlets council (n.d.). *Support for Learning Service (SLS) Prevent Resources* [online]. https://www.towerhamlets.gov.uk/lgnl/education_and_learning/Prevent_resources/Support_for_Learning_Service_SLS_Prevent_Resources.aspx. (7 June, 2018)
- Tower Hamlets council (n.d.). *Secondary School Prevent Resources* [online]. https://www.towerhamlets.gov.uk/lgnl/education_and_learning/Prevent_resources/Secondary_Prevent_resources/Secondary_Prevent_Resources.aspx

Townshend, C. (2002). *Terrorism. A very short introduction*. Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press.

UK Terrorism Act 2000, chapter 11, part I, section 1 (2000) [online]. <https://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/2000/11/section/1#reference-c16756551>. (16 April, 2018)

UNESCO (2006). *UNESCO Guidelines on Intercultural Education* [online]. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001478/147878e.pdf>. (26 February, 2018)

UNESCO (2016). *A Teacher's Guide on The Prevention of Violent Extremism* [online]. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0024/002446/244676e.pdf>. (31 October, 2017)

UNESCO MGIEP (2017). *Youth Waging Peace: Youth Led Guide on Prevention of Violent Extremism Through Education* [online]. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0026/002605/260547e.pdf>. (26 February, 2018)

U.S. Department of Homeland Security (2011). *Empowering Local Partners to Prevent Violent Extremism in the United States* [online]. https://www.dhs.gov/sites/default/files/publications/empowering_local_partners.pdf. (16 April, 2018)

U.S. Department of Homeland Security (2018). *Countering Violent Extremism Task Force* [online]. <https://www.dhs.gov/cve>. (18 April, 2018)

U.S. Department of State (2018). Title 22 of the United States Code, Section 2656f [online]. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/65464.pdf>. (16 April, 2018)

Wilson, J., Helmore, E. & Swaine, J. (2017). Man charged with murder after driving into anti-far-right protesters in Charlottesville. *The Guardian* [online] 13 August, 2017. <https://www.theguardian.com/us-news/2017/aug/12/virginia-unite-the-right-rally-protest-violence>. (7 December, 2017)

The World Bank (2016). *Gross Domestic Product 2016* [online]. <http://databank.worldbank.org/data/download/GDP.pdf>. (16 April, 2018)

World Economic Forum (2017). *The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report 2017: Paving the way for a more sustainable and inclusive future* [online]. http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_TTCR_2017_web_0401.pdf. (16 April, 2018)

APPENDICES

Appendix 1 – Education Division of the city of Turku: Instructions for schools after the Turku stabbing on 18 August, 2017

20.8.2017 17:00

Tiedote Turun seudun kouluille

Kriisipsykologi Salli Saari toivoo, että Turun seudun kouluissa aloitetaan koulutyö maanantaina Turun puukotustragedian käsittelyllä.

Turun viime perjantainen puukotustragedia koskettaa Turun seudun oppilaita laajasti. Jotkut olivat paikalla ja joutuivat seuraamaan tapahtumaa silminnäkijöinä ja jotkut ovat olleet itse vaarassa. Monien koulumatka kulkee tapahtumapaikkojen ohi. Tiedotusvälineet ovat olleet täynnä tapahtumaan liittyvää uutisointia, jolta on ollut mahdotonta välttyä.

Siksi on tärkeä, että tapahtumaan käsitellään maanantaina koulussa ja luokissa. **Jos mahdollista, päivä kannattaa aloittaa tällä käsittelyllä. Se on kuitenkin kaikkien mielessä ja kun siitä on ensin puhuttu, se mahdollistaa muuhun koulutyöhön keskittymisen. Ohessa joitakin ohjeita tähän käsittelyyn:**

Päivän alkajaisiksi on syytä keskustella tapahtumasta **opettajien** kanssa.

- Koskettaako tapahtuma jotakin opettajaa erityisesti? Miten?
- Opettajillakin pitää olla mahdollisuus purkaa ajatuksiaan ja kokemuksiaan, mieluummin ennen oppilaiden kohtaamista
- Tällainen keskustelu on tarpeen, jotta opettajat pystyvät toiminaan koulun aikuisina ja antamaan tukea oppilaille
- Samalla opettajille voi välittää ohjeistusta asian käsittelystä oppilaiden kanssa

Tapahtuman käsittely **oppilaiden** kanssa luokissa

- kannatta kysyä oliko joku paikalla taphtumapaikalla. Jos oli, mitä hän näki? Mitä koki?

- miten he saivat tietää tapahtumasta?
- Mitä ajatuksia tapahtuma heissä herättää?
- Kokevatko he turvattomuutta? Pelottaako? Mikä?
- Mikä voisi helpottaa heidän oloaan?
- Lopuksi kannattaa korostaa, että tapahtuma on äärettömän harvinainen, se on ohi ja nyt tilanne Turussa on ehkä turvallisempi kuin ennen tapahtumaa

Oppilaita tulee myös ohjeistaa, että jos joku haluaa puhua asiasta enemmän, yhteyden voi ottaa: koulupsykologiin, kuraattoriin ja terveydenhoitajaan.

Joitakin kouluja tapahtuma voi koskettaa erityisesti. Jos tästä on tietoa, kannattaa varautua lisähenkilökunnalla. Kriisityöntekijä on mahdollista saada kouluun, jos on tarpeellista.

Olellaista on, että tapahtumaa käsitellään koulussa riittävästi, mutta samalla myös pyritään palaamaan arkeen. Normaalit koulurutiinit auttavat kokemuksesta toipumista.

Salli Saari

Kriisipsykologi

Appendix 2 – Educational and Cultural services of the city of Oulu: Instructions sent to principals after the Turku stabbing on 18 August, 2017

Hei,

Turussa tapahtui sitten se, mistä eri viranomaiset ovat varoitelleet viime aikoina. Viimeksi Supo nosti uhka-arviota kuluvana kesänä. Turun tapahtumaa tutkitaan terroritekona.

Joku ehkä pohtii omalta osaltaan turvallisuuden tunnetta. Lapsilla ja nuorilla saattaa olla asiaan liittyen paljonkin kysymyksiä tai turvallisuuden tunne on muuten horjunut.

Lapsille kannattaa kertoa asiasta huomioiden lasten ja nuorten kehitystaso. Kuten kriisi- ja traumapsykoterapeutti Eija Palosaari sanoo tämän päivän Kalevassa (Kaleva s. K1 7)

”...lapsia ei jätetä yksin omien voimiensa varaan käsittelemään asiaa. Asiasta pitäisi keskustella koululuokissa sen mukaan, mitä lapset tietävät. Hyvin tärkeää on antaa faktoja ja

rauhoitella sekä vahvistaa se, että lapset ovat nyt turvassa ja koulussa on turvallista. Tärkeä tieto lapsille on myös se, että tällä tietoa ei ole vaaraa uusista iskuista”.

Palosaari neuvoo keskustelemaan lasten kanssa niin, että keskustelua on ohjaamassa aikuinen opettaja tai tarvittaessa muu ammatti-ihminen. ”Pelkästään lasten kesken keskustelu saattaa mennä hallitsemattomaksi ja lisätä pelkoja”.

Liitän ohien myös kaksi kriisi- ja traumapsykoterapeutti Soili Poijulan haastattelua ao. teemasta.

<https://yle.fi/uutiset/3-9555134>

Kriisi- ja traumapsykoterapeutti Soili Poijulan haastattelu 26.5.2017 ”Näin selität lapselle, mitä tarkoittaa terroristi”.

<http://www.kodinkuvalehti.fi/artikkeli/voi-hyvin/psykologia/nain-selitat-lapselle-mita-tarchoittaa-terroristi>

Oppilas- ja opiskelijahuollon työntekijät ovat luonnollisesti tarpeen mukaan käytettävissä asian käsittelyssä.