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EVALUATION OF AN INTEGRATED PROGRAMME OF PHYSICAL EXERCISE WITH NURSEY-AGED CHILDREN: IMPACT ON MOTOR ACHIEVEMENTS

VILKO PETRIĆ¹, LUCIJA KOSTADIN² & MIRELA PEIĆ³

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¹ University of Rijeka, Faculty of Teacher Education, Rijeka, Croatia

² University of Rijeka, Faculty of Teacher Education, Rijeka, Croatia

³ Kindergarten Rijeka, Rijeka, Croatia

CORRESPONDING AUTHOR/KORESPONDENČNI AVTOR

vilko.petric@uniri.hr

Keywords:

children of an early age; integrated programme of physical exercise; comprehensive motor development

Abstract/Povzetek The aim was to determine if there is a possibility of conducting an integrated programme of physical exercise with nursery-aged children, as well as to evaluate its impact on their motor achievement. The sample consisted of nursery-aged children. The sample of variables comprises four tests for evaluating motor achievement based on the various movement structures that allow mastery of space, obstacles and resistance, as well as the manipulation of objects. The differences between the experimental and control groups were tested with Student's t-test. The results show that these programmes yielded exceptional results with regard to motor achievement.

Ključne besede:

Mlajši predšolski otroci; integrirani program telesne vadbe; celosten gibalni razvoj.

Vrednotenje integriranega programa telesne vadbe s predšolskimi otroki: vpliv na gibalne dosežke

Cilj je bil ugotoviti, ali obstaja možnost izvedbe integriranega programa telesne vadbe z otroki v predšolski starosti, in ovrednotiti vpliv na njihove motorične dosežke. V raziskavo so bili vključeni predšolski otroci. Vzorec spremenljivk obsega štiri teste za vrednotenje motoričnih dosežkov na osnovi različnih gibalnih struktur, ki omogočajo obvladovanje prostora, ovir, vzdržljivosti in ravnanja s predmeti. Razlike med eksperimentalno in kontrolno skupino smo preizkusili s Studentovim t-testom. Rezultati so pokazali, da so otroci v evalviranih programih dosegli izjemne rezultate glede gibalnih dosežkov.

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Introduction

Early childhood is extremely important for perfecting motor knowledge and abilities among children (Nikolić, Mraković and Kunješić, 2016), i.e. for the development of motor achievement. Nursery school represents the period when physical exercise is both a joy and a challenge for children, and where they quickly adopt new and varied motor skills, which are stored as motor data. Rapid acquisition of new and varied content and forms enables the nervous system to be ready for learning (Alić, Petrić, Badrić, 2016). In terms of content, great significance is given to the acquisition of natural forms of movement, such as walking, jumping, carrying, crawling, rolling, hopping, catching, throwing and crawling through a space. This is knowledge that enables the child to master space, obstacles and resistance, while manipulating objects, and it is important to conduct these by means of games. Games are primary media for the development of children's divergent abilities by activating their intellectual, physical, social and emotional resources (Šagud, 2000). The implementation of games in the physical activities conducted with very young children and preschoolers ensures the creation of positive emotions (satisfaction, happiness, laughter and joy), and it also makes possible the acquisition of many kinds of knowledge, skills and habits used by children in their everyday lives (Alić et al., 2016).

Integrated programmes of physical exercise in educational institutions have proven to be very successful for advancing children's levels of physical activity (Ahmed, McDonald, Reed, Naylor, Liu-Ambrose, McKay, 2007; Murtagh, Mulvihill, Markey, 2013; Domika, Armano, Petrić, 2018). It is known that intervention programmes conducted in the classroom or some other space and lasting from 5 to 20 minutes can significantly influence children's physiological changes and anthropological characteristics (Holt, McHugh, Tink, Kingsley, Coppola, Neely, McDonald, 2013; Knox, Baker, Davies, Rees, Morgan, Cooper, Brophy, Thomas, 2012; Gašparović, Petrić, Štemberger, Rakovac, Blažević, 2017).

Although it is obvious that children should begin physical exercise as early as possible, the official situation is that there is no organised physical exercise in educational institutions for children of nursery-school age. Previous research directed at evaluating sports programmes in educational institutions attended by nursery-aged children have regularly confirmed significant differences in measured anthropological characteristics in favour of experimental groups (Domika et al., 2018). In contrast to those already evaluated programmes, which fostered

exclusively one sport, this programme has a broad orientation and includes biotic motor knowledge that enables the child to master space, obstacles and resistance, along with the manipulation of objects.

Therefore, the aim of this research is to determine whether it is possible to conduct an integrated programme of physical exercise with nursery-aged children, as well as to evaluate its impact on their motor achievement in the domain of mastering movements, obstacles, resistance and the manipulation of objects.

Methods

The sample consisted of 63 nursery-aged children, from 1.5 to 3.5 years old. The total number of children was divided into an experimental group consisting of 33 children, and a control group consisting of 30 children. These were children attending Rijeka kindergartens which are at the same time training schools for the Faculty of Teacher Education in Rijeka, and also a kindergarten in Srdoči.

The sample of variables consists of four tests for estimating motor achievement created after instructions given by Findak (2003) and based on various movement structures that enable mastery of space, obstacles, resistance and the manipulation of objects.

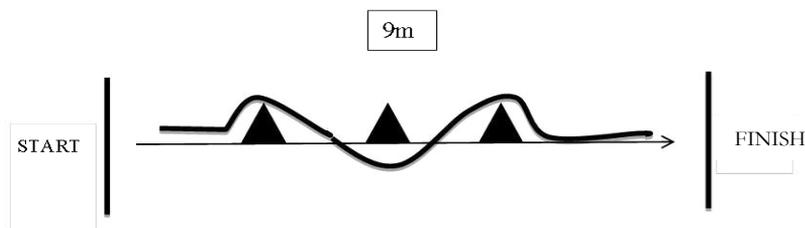


Figure 1: Sketch of the suggested test for estimating motor achievements in the domain of mastering space

The first test aims at estimating motor achievements in the domain of mastering space (Figure 1). Children have to go from the start to the finish line as fast as possible, at the same time avoiding the set cones. The distance between the two lines is 9 m, the first cone being at 3 m, the second at 5 m, and the last at 7 m. The test result represents the time needed by the child to perform the task correctly, i.e. the time necessary for the child to go from the start to the finish line in a slalom run around

the cones. As far as equipment is concerned, it is necessary to have three cones, a stopwatch and coloured tape to mark the start and finish lines.

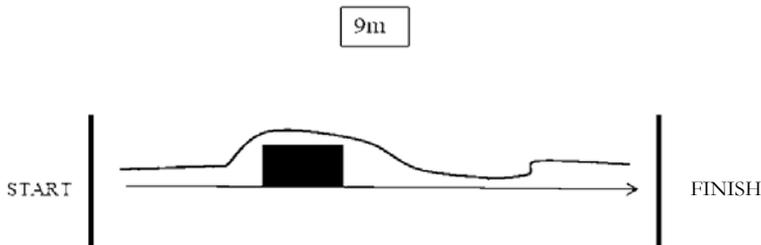


Figure 2: Sketch of the suggested test for estimating motor achievement in the domain of mastering obstacles

The second test aims at estimating motor achievement in the domain of mastering obstacles (Figure 2). The child runs from the start line, reaches the Swedish box, climbs it and descends from it, and then runs to the finish line. The distance between the start and finish line is 9 m, while the beginning of the 40 cm-high Swedish box comes at 3 m. The test result represents the time needed by the child to perform the task correctly, i.e. the time necessary for the child to go from the start to the finish line. As far as equipment is concerned, it is necessary to have a Swedish box, a stopwatch and coloured tape to mark the start and finish lines.

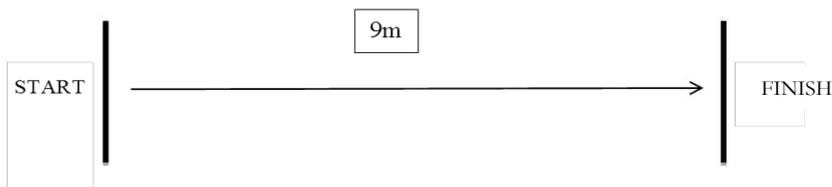


Figure 3: Sketch of the suggested test for estimating motor achievement in the domain of object manipulation

The fourth test aims at estimating motor achievement in the domain of mastering the manipulation of objects (Figure 4). Children advance while rolling a ball with both arms around the set cones from the start to the finish line. The distance between the two lines is 9 m, the first cone being at 3 m, the second at 5 m, and the last at 7

m. The test result represents the time needed by the child to perform the task correctly, i.e. the time necessary for the child to go from the start to the finish line. As far as equipment is concerned, it is necessary to have three cones, a ball, a stopwatch and coloured tape to mark the start and finish lines.

To make possible the realisation of the syllabus, attention was paid to the spatial-material conditions of the kindergarten where the program was to be conducted with the experimental group. Taking into consideration the conditions offered by the given space, i.e. the gym, and the variety and quantity of equipment, a syllabus was created containing 28 motor items belonging to all domains (Table 1), which means that there were seven items for each domain. The programme was carried out in the gym, with 70 activities arranged over 35 weeks, that is two per week, each lasting 30 minutes.

Table 1: Depiction of motor content per domain

NO.	DOMAIN	MOTOR CONTENT
1.	Mastering space	Crawling in different ways Walking to music Running on various surfaces Rolling on a mat in different directions Running to music Crawling through various sports equipment Walking between various sports equipment
2.	Mastering obstacles	Crawling through the frame of the Swedish box Jumping in different ways Skipping rope on the floor Crawling through a tunnel Crawling through a ring Drop jumps, depth jumps and hop jumps on or from varied surfaces Surmounting obstacles in different ways
3.	Mastering resistance	Lifting and carrying various objects Pushing a ball with the arms Pushing a ball with the legs Pushing a plastic pole with the arm Pulling a plastic pole Moving in a push-up position with arms to the front Pulling a rope on the floor
4.	Manipulation of objects	Throwing a ball at the wall Throwing a ball upward with two arms Throwing a ball into a marked space Catching a ball with two arms Throwing a ball to the ground with one arm Throwing a ball through a ring Directing a ball with a leg

Before conducting the research, the research coordinators in the Rijeka kindergarten were contacted. After a meeting about the planned course of research, an agreement with the coordinators was reached, and collection of data from the Srdoči kindergarten was allowed. Two mixed nursery groups were chosen from this kindergarten. Their preschool teachers were informed about the details of the study and participated in the creation and implementation of the experimental programme. Later, the preschool teachers informed parents about it during the parent-teacher meeting. Data collection was conducted in the gym of the Srdoči kindergarten, with parental cooperation and consent. The programme was conducted from November 2017 to May 2018.

All the measured data were processed and analysed by the STATISTICA 12.5 program (StatSoft, Inc., Tulsa, OK, USA). The differences between the experimental and control groups were tested with Student's t-test for independent samples, while Student's t-test for dependent samples was used to test differences in the same group between the initial and final measurements. The statistical level of significance was tested with an error of $p = 0.05 \%$.

Results

Table 2 shows the differences in motor achievement between the experimental and control groups. In the initial measurement, before the start of the integrated programme of physical exercise with the experimental group, there were no significant differences in any of the variables. The children had almost equal motor achievements in all domains.

Table 2: Results of differences in motor achievement between the experimental and control groups.

Measurement	Variables	M ex.	M con.	t-value	p
Initial	Space	7.19	7.80	-0.73	0.47
	Obstacles	13.64	13.37	0.18	0.86
	Resistance	15.15	15.36	-0.20	0.84
	Manipulation	28.47	30.86	-0.61	0.55
Final	Space	4.40	6.58	-4.32	0.00
	Obstacles	7.59	11.44	-3.86	0.00
	Resistance	11.67	14.29	-2.45	0.02
	Manipulation	11.04	24.11	-3.85	0.00

With regard to the final measurement, after completion of the research, and in terms of statistics, those in the experimental group achieved significantly better results on all variables. They showed significant improvement in their motor achievement, allowing them to master space, obstacles, resistance and the manipulation of objects.

The Table 3 shows the differences between groups in initial and final measurements. In terms of statistics, the experimental group made significant improvement on all variables of motor achievement, while the control group improved only in the variable of motor achievements in the domain of mastering resistance.

Table 3: Results of differences in motor achievement between the control and experimental group

Group	Variables	Measurement	M	SD	t	p	
Experimental	Space	Initial	6.72	2.28	4.61	0.00	
		Final	4.13	0.75			
	Obstacles	Initial	13.69	5.62	4.52	0.00	
		Final	7.22	2.38			
	Resistance	Initial	15.87	3.13	5.16	0.00	
		Final	11.41	3.15			
	Manipulation	Initial	29.40	12.25	5.22	0.00	
		Final	10.26	2.13			
	Control	Space	Initial	7.72	1.97	2.64	0.02
			Final	6.79	2.29		
Obstacles		Initial	13.50	4.41	2.56	0.02	
		Final	11.63	4.66			
Resistance		Initial	15.05	3.62	1.86	0.08	
		Final	14.08	4.01			
Manipulation		Initial	29.60	13.53	2.13	0.04	
		Final	25.77	15.07			

Discussion

The results show that the exercise programme achieved excellent results in the improvement of motor achievement. For very young children and pre-schoolers, involvement in physical activity is vitally important for their growth and development, and one of the basic aims of physical exercise for preschool children is its positive effect on children's motor development (Biberović, Malović, Mikić, Džibrić, Huremović, 2013).

The results obtained in this study are certainly the product of a continual work and a detailed syllabus of activities encompassing all the domains to an equal level. The sports programmes that have previously been evaluated were usually directed toward one sport (Domika et al., 2018). Those results indicated a specific impact on the children's anthropological characteristics in favour of experimental groups and determined by the particular sport. Unlike to other programmes, the one in our study showed how important it is to direct attention to comprehensive motor development that will develop children's motor knowledge and ability in the domains of mastering space, obstacles, resistance and the manipulation of objects to an equal level. Moreover, the experiment included child development in a range of areas such as cognitive, social and motor development. Analysis of the results of

previously conducted research, shows poorer results of children's motor and functional abilities (Petrić, 2016).

The evaluation of the motor knowledge and abilities of very young children and preschoolers, along with an awareness of their influence on children's growth, development and health, yields numerous new possibilities and could lead to better organisation and conceptualization of physical activities intended for children of that age (Farkaš, Tomac, Petrić, Novak, 2015). If parents are disadvantaged financially, organised physical exercise in educational institutions offers the only opportunity for children to engage in physical activity at a period crucial to their growth and development. This fact itself emphasizes the invaluable importance of physical activity in today's world, where a sedentary way of life prevails (Petrić, Novak, Matković, Podnar, 2012). Moreover, regular physical activity from early childhood is crucial for a healthy life. Therefore, regular physical activity should have an important role in the whole set of children's activities, both in educational institutions and at home (Sindik, 2009). The motor knowledge and abilities acquired by children in early childhood will certainly be useful in later life, for instance, to satisfy their biotic needs, for the development of their abilities and characteristics and the fulfilment of existential needs (Findak et al., 2003). Motor knowledge is an important factor in the development of toddlers and preschool-aged children, enabling them to effectively master space, obstacles, resistance and the manipulation of objects (Nikolić, Mraković and Kunješić, 2016). Motor abilities are responsible for an infinite number of motor reactions; they can be measured and described and are developed by various methods and modalities of physical exercise. The early period is crucial for children's development and for the perfection of motor knowledge and abilities (Nikolić et al., 2016). Motor knowledge acquired in early childhood forms the base for the acquisition of more complex contents later in life (Nikolić et al., 2016). The connection of these two components leads to the notion of motor achievement. After analysis of the initial and final measurements, it became evident that the control group had made significant improvement in the domain of mastering space, obstacles and the manipulation of objects, while in the domain of mastering resistance, there was no significant improvement. This group's improvement can be attributed to the children's growth and development, which are clearly attained by pre-school children on a monthly basis. Besides, the motor development of early and preschool-aged children is intensive, and the achievement of motor skills can occur spontaneously. Since there was no improvement in the domain of mastering resistance, it is possible that natural development is not the only component that can influence gains in

children's achievement. The content of this component must necessarily be implemented through physical education activity and thus has a targeted incitement to children's development in the same. Since motor achievement represents the coupling of motor knowledge and abilities, it is necessary to enrich physical activities with content to help children develop and establish their potential in certain areas. That is why the domain of resistance mastery should be continually reinforced, because quality and significant development cannot be manifested only in a certain spectrum of knowledge displayed by children, but also in the children's ability to apply their knowledge in their everyday lives (Findak, 2003).

Conclusion

The results of this study show the enormous potential for working with very young children who, in adequate conditions, with qualified experts and their support and leadership, can achieve significant results. This paper confirms the importance of well organised physical exercise that fosters development among very young children. The results indicate that physical activity and exercise can improve children's motor abilities and significantly influence their motor knowledge, which is manifested in their motor achievement.

This research represents a basis for further advancement and breakthroughs in the area of physical activity with nursery-aged children. Establishing a regular exercise habit in early childhood has been identified as one of the important and constituent parts of the educational process. During the creation of the programme, the children's age, their abilities and developmental possibilities should be considered, so that all the activities can contribute to health maintenance. It is possible to conduct organised physical exercise with nursery-aged children. The physical activity programme should be based on biotic motor knowledge directed towards comprehensive motor development, i.e. it should include motor knowledge that contributes equally to the mastery of space, obstacles, resistance and object manipulation.

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Authors**Vilko Petrić, PhD**

University of Rijeka, Faculty of Teacher Education, Sveučilišna avenija 6, 51000 Rijeka, Croatia, e-mail: vilko.petric@uniri.hr

Univerza v Reki, Fakulteta za izobraževanje učiteljev, Sveučilišna avenija 6, 51000 Reka, Hrvaška, e-mail: vilko.petric@uniri.hr

Lucija Kostadin, BA

University of Rijeka, Faculty of Teacher Education, Sveučilišna avenija 6, 51000 Rijeka, Croatia, e-mail: lucija.kostadin@gmail.com

Univerza v Reki, Fakulteta za izobraževanje učiteljev, Sveučilišna avenija 6, 51000 Reka, Hrvaška, e-mail: lucija.kostadin@gmail.com

Mirela Peić, BA

Kindergarten Rijeka, Veslarska ulica 5, 51000 Rijeka, Croatia, e-mail: mirelapeic@gmail.com

Otroški vrtec Reka, Veslarska ulica 5, 51000 Reka, Hrvaška, e-mail:mirelapeic@gmail.com

THE FREQUENCY WITH WHICH CREATIVITY DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES ARE USED IN VARIOUS FIELDS: RESEARCH ON ATTITUDES AMONG PRESCHOOL TEACHERS

NATAŠA STURZA MILIĆ¹ PREDRAG NEDIMOVIĆ² SVETLANA STURZA³

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¹ Preschool Teacher Training College »Mihailo Palov«, Vršac, Serbia

² Preschool Teacher Training College »Mihailo Palov«, Vršac, Serbia

³ High School »Borislav Petrov Braca«, Vršac, Serbia

CORRESPONDING AUTHOR/KORESPONDENČNI AVTOR
natasasturza@gmail.com

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Abstract/Povzetek The aim of the paper was to examine the attitudes of preschool teachers towards strategies for creative thinking. We also examined how often these strategies were used in everyday work with children. Specific aims were to gain insight into the differences between preschool teachers, depending on the age groups of the children with whom they work, and depending on the length of their work experience. Another aim was to examine whether these strategies were directed towards the development of creative behavior in various educational fields. The results of this research can be expected to contribute to the creation of better conditions for more frequent application of creativity development strategies in a variety of domains and an increase in the sensitivity of preschool teachers for the understanding and promotion of a holistic approach to creativity at an early age.

Pogostost uporabe strategij razvoja ustvarjalnosti na različnih področjih – raziskava o stališčih vzgojiteljic in vzgojiteljev v vrtcih V prispevku prikazujemo stališča vzgojiteljev in vzgojiteljic ter predšolskih otrok do strategij za ustvarjalno mišljenje. Proučili smo, kako pogosto se te strategije uporabljajo v vsakdanjem delu z otroki. Specifična cilja sta bila pridobiti vpogled v razlike med vzgojitelji in vzgojiteljicami glede na starostno skupino otrok, v kateri delajo, in tudi glede na njihovo delovno dobo ter proučiti, ali so te strategije usmerjene proti razvijanju ustvarjalnega vedenja na različnih področjih vzgoje. Pričakovati je, da bodo rezultati te raziskave prispevali k ustvarjanju boljših pogojev za pogostejšo uporabo strategij razvoja ustvarjalnosti na vrsti področij in k povečanju občutljivosti vzgojiteljic za razumevanje in promocijo celovite narave ustvarjalnosti v zgodnjem obdobju.

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Introduction

Creativity is considered a phenomenon that enables individuals to convert their high potential into reality. It is believed that creativity plays a key role in society and that it serves us all (McLean, 2005). In the instances when an individual discovers or produces new creative forms or products (that are accepted by others), these become a part of tradition and are passed on to new generations. This task of passing tradition, knowledge and creative ideas to new generations is delegated to preschool teachers. Considering that preschool teachers can significantly influence children's lives, it is very important to train them to recognize, support and develop children's creative behaviour (Rajovic et al., 2017, Sturza Milic, 2018). That is why all those concerned with the construct of creativity (including preschool teachers) share an important social responsibility, one that includes deep understanding and description of creativity in all its multiple aspects, but also education of youth in a way that encourages creative thinking (Hennessey & Watson, 2015).

However, it is not that easy to understand what creativity is. Creativity is still somewhat elusive, unsatisfactorily defined, susceptible to stereotypes and confusingly measured (Runco & Jaeger, 2012, McKerracher, 2016). However, we know that creativity is a higher-level mental process (Beghetto & Kaufman, 2014), and that creative products require extraordinary abilities, interests and learning styles. Creativity also refers to specific skills of combining ideas in a unique way or finding ambiguous associations between different ideas in various domains (Amabile & Pratt, 2016; Bilton, 2010). Creativity is positively related to critical thinking. Creativity is mostly described as a creative talent, creative production, creative activities and a creative contribution. Most knowledge or experience in the frame of creative learning is organized so as to enable individuals to combine ideas. Most concepts of creativity are based on Guilford's theory and the factor of divergent production (Zachopoulou et al., 2009). Sub-factors of divergent production (fluency, originality, flexibility and elaboration) constitute the main components of creativity. Fluency is correlated with originality. Research shows that creative thinking means dynamic interaction of large brain systems, and the most important conclusion is that executive control networks, which can show antagonistic relations, have a tendency to cooperate during creative processes in different domains (Beaty et al., 2016, 2017).

So far, our experience in attempting to understand various phenomena (e.g. giftedness, creativity and intelligence) have shown that an isolated view of only one

developmental segment (e.g. cognitive/conative/motor, etc.) is not sufficient. Research shows that the creative output of children is very much expressed in various domains (Domínguez & Pino Díaz-Pereira, 2015, Djordjevic, 2005, Renzulli, 2017). This is true because it has been demonstrated that a whole spectrum of components influence the creative expression of children (Sturza Milic, 2014). During childhood, the developmental processes are mutually correlated. That is why creativity should be analyzed in a holistic way, including various developmental segments (Baer, 2015, Bandura, 1999).

However, the results of many studies show that it is difficult to transfer knowledge or learning from one area to another in work with children and young people (Beghetto & Kaufman, 2014, Ourda et al., 2017). Therefore, it would be desirable for educators to be trained in building links between distinct areas of knowledge (Prtljaga & Veselinov, 2017). Burke (2007) points out that creativity makes it possible to make connections in different areas of knowledge. Also, building a "creative bridge" between different domains leads to a holistic approach to knowledge (Baer, 2015). When selecting content to encourage creative learning, it is necessary to include representative ideas and concepts from different disciplines and content that has maximum transfer potential, while the complexity of the materials should be expanded hierarchically and cyclically (Renzulli, 2017). It is therefore important that encouraging creativity at an early age with a range of strategies and techniques should not be primarily directed to a single segment of children's development and expression. This points to the need for the pedagogical action of educators to focus more seriously on fostering creative manifestations by children in all educational areas, structuring and applying appropriate didactic-methodical strategies, in order to form creative learning styles as a basis for further development of creative potential and overall development of children's personality.

Contemporary observation of creativity is socially oriented, cumulative and collaborative. Creativity is also observed and appreciated in relation to activities that are not widely understood as worthy of creativity itself. However, in educational work with children, there are developmental areas in which it is not common to apply strategies and techniques for the development of creativity, so in everyday practice these often fail (Sturza Milic, 2018). Many studies suggest that academic, "intellectual" areas in the development of giftedness and creativity are more appreciated and encouraged in everyday work in relation to "skill" in sports, the arts (in particular, visual arts), games, etc., while creative achievement is most often

studied in the academic and professional spheres (Chirico et al., 2018, Gojkov, 2018, Harrington & Chin-Newman, 2017, Kasirer & Mashal, 2018, Renzulli, 2017, Winner, 2000).

Previous research has suggested that the creative abilities of children are better developed under conditions in which the abilities of teachers are correctly deployed and in which the creative context of learning is present (Kettler et al. 2018, Maksimovic et al., 2018, Sturza Milic & Nedimovic, 2016). Individuals who work with children should be guided towards developing their ability to recognize creativity in children, master knowledge about creative processes and create situations in the educational process where everyone could have an opportunity for creative thinking. Accordingly, developing the competences of preschool teachers should be aimed at encouraging creativity in various domains (Sturza Milic et al., 2014). New literature suggests that in these situations “experience creativity” is developed (Jeffrey & Craft, 2010, Selkrig & Keamy, 2017). The ability to carefully observe creativity in action seems to encourage creativity (Sturza Milic, 2014). Preschool teachers fit within this experience creativity framework in multiple ways (Kettler et al. 2018): on the one hand, by encouraging the creative abilities of children in varied domains (Baer, 2015), and on the other hand, as good creative models from which children could learn (Gojkov et al., 2002, Pisot, 2012, Rajovic et al., 2017).

In order to help create situations in the educational process where everyone can have the opportunity for creative thinking, various strategies have been developed. The main difference between these strategies is whether they are individual or group-based. Indeed, (preschool) teachers are encouraged to use these strategies in their everyday work with children in order to foster their creative thinking. However, not many studies explore the attitudes of (preschool) teachers towards these strategies. In order to shed light on this topic, we focused on two strategies: *control list* and *brainstorming*. The *control list* strategy is an individual strategy for developing various elements of creative thinking (such as flexibility, fluency, originality and imagination). This strategy is based on the following instructions: explore and try out different applications of ideas; adapt (what else is similar to this); modify (exchange the meaning); enlarge (take into consideration what else could be added); reduce (take into consideration what could be removed); exchange (what can be exchanged); edit; combine. On the other hand, the *brainstorming* strategy is a group strategy for creative problem solving. The goal is to bring up as many ideas as possible, all of which are initially accepted without detailed evaluation. Children

are encouraged to bring up a range of ideas, and to follow up on previously stated ideas. The results of this strategy are usually novel and unusual (some will say creative) ideas.

The aim of this research is to examine the attitudes of preschool teachers in Serbia towards these two strategies and to explore how often these are used in everyday work with children. The specific aims were to gain insight into differences among preschool teachers depending on the age group of the children they work with, and also depending on the length of their work experience. Another aim was to examine whether these strategies were directed towards the development of creative behavior in various educational fields.

Method

Participants: There were 115 female preschool teachers in the sample. They all work in kindergartens in Serbia with different age groups: 22.6% works with younger groups, 16.5% with groups of medium age, 13.9% with older groups, 14.8% with mixed age groups and 32.2% with preschool groups. The average length of work in preschool teaching was 12.29 years (Sd=8.54).

Scales: Two subscales were created in order to examine the attitudes towards the brainstorming and control list strategies. At the beginning of each set of questions, the given strategy was described. Each subscale consisted of 13 items with a 5-point Likert scale (a higher score indicates a more positive attitude). The mean score for each subscale was computed in order to determine the attitude towards each strategy. These two attitude scales have high reliability (*brainstorming* $\alpha=.962$; *control list* $\alpha=.976$). Another two questions were concerned with how often preschool teachers use these two strategies in their everyday work (1: I don't use it at all; 2: I use it rarely; 3: I often use it; 4: I use it every day). We also included two open questions addressing the educational area in which they most often use these strategies.

Procedure: The *brainstorming* and *control list* scales, along with demographic information questions, were distributed as an online form. Responses were collected one month after distribution.

Data processing: In order to answer our research-specific questions, we performed following analysis of the data: 1. *Descriptive statistics* – This analysis was used to obtain

mean values for preschool teachers' attitudes towards the two strategies, as well as how often they use each strategy. Coefficients of data variability were also calculated. 2. *Correlation analysis* – Pearson correlation analysis was performed to examine the structure behind the attitudes and the frequency of use for the two strategies. We examined the pattern of connection between attitudes but also between attitudes and frequency of use. 3. *Analysis of variance* – In order to obtain insight into whether there are group differences in preschool teachers' attitudes and frequency of use of the two strategies, based on their length of previous work experience in preschool teaching and the age group of the children with whom they work, we performed Analysis of variance. 4. *Qualitative analysis* – In order to determine in which educational areas preschool teachers most often use these strategies, content analysis was performed.

Results

Descriptive statistics analysis showed that preschool teachers have very positive attitudes towards both strategies: the average score for the *brainstorming* sub-scale was $M=4.29$, $Sd=0.751$, and $M=3.90$, $Sd=1.225$ for the *control list* sub-scale. Considering these positive attitudes towards the strategies, one would expect that preschool teachers often use them in their everyday work. However, preschool teachers use these strategies very rarely (*brainstorming* $M=2.25$, $Sd=0.953$; *control list* $M=2.03$, $Sd=0.986$). This contradiction will be more fully discussed, while the results are shown in percentages in Graphs 1 and 2.



Graphs 1 and 2: How often preschool teachers use the strategies *brainstorming* and *control list* in their everyday work (*in percentages*)

Correlations: In order to better understand the relation between attitudes towards two different strategies, but also the relation between attitudes and frequency of usage of these strategies, correlational analysis was performed. The attitudes

towards *brainstorming* and *control list* strategies were positively correlated ($r=.719$, $p<.001$). This means that preschool teachers who have positive attitudes towards one strategy, have the same positive attitudes towards the other one. Preschool teachers who have positive attitudes towards the *brainstorming* strategy are also more likely to use this strategy in their everyday work, since these two variables were positively related ($r=.349$, $p<.001$). The same is true for the *control list* strategy: participants who have positive attitudes towards this strategy also use this strategy more often in their everyday work ($r=.209$, $p=.025$).

Since the attitudes of individuals (pedagogical ethos) strongly influence their pedagogical action (Beghetto & Kaufman, 2014, Maksimovic et al., 2018, Robson & Rowe, 2012), it is expected that the two preceding items will be mutually conditioned, that is, that educators with a more positive attitude to the *brainstorming* strategy than the *control list* strategy would use the former more in everyday work.

Group differences:

Given that we had preschool teachers working with five different age groups, we tested whether there were significant differences in attitudes towards these strategies and towards the frequency of their usage. Analysis of variance showed that attitudes towards the efficiency of the *brainstorming* strategy ($F(4,110)=2.254$, $p=.068$) and *control list* strategy ($F(4,110)=0.796$, $p=.530$) did not differ based on the age group with which participants worked. Participants working in different age groups did not differ in the frequency of usage of these strategies in their everyday work (*brainstorming* ($F(4,110)=0.441$, $p=.779$); *control list* ($F(4,110)=1.359$, $p=.253$)). On the basis of relevant research, we had expected that participants working with older age groups would have more positive attitudes and that these strategies would be used much more often (Rajovic et al., 2017, Feberzer, 2002, Sellars, 2012, Sturza Milic, 2009, Sturza Milic et al., 2014). However, this was not the case.

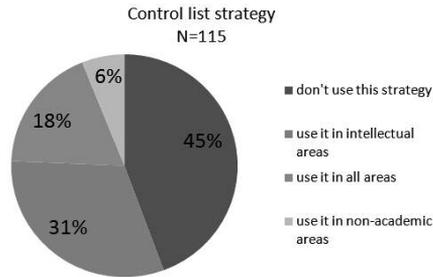
Preschool teachers were separated into three groups based on the length of their previous work experience in preschool teaching. Those working less than five years were the first group; those working between five and nine years were the second, and finally, those working more than nine years formed the third group. There were no significant differences between these groups in attitudes towards the *brainstorming* strategy ($F(2,112)=.030$, $p=.970$). However, there were differences when it came to using this strategy ($F(2,112)=5.224$, $p=.003$): preschool teachers who had been working more than nine years used the *brainstorming* strategy significantly more often

than their colleagues with less work experience. In the case of the *control list* strategy, our results show that there was a significant difference in the attitudes of the groups ($F(2,112)=4.557, p=.013$): participants working between five and nine years had more negative attitudes towards the efficacy of this strategy than their colleagues did. Despite these differences in attitudes, there were no differences in the frequency of usage of the *control list* strategy among preschool teachers working with different age groups.

Qualitative analysis: We were interested to establish in which educational areas our participants most often used these strategies. Since these were open questions, qualitative analysis was deployed. We made three categories, depending on the educational areas in which these strategies occurred: academic (e.g. speech development, mathematics)/non-academic (e.g. arts, sports, games)/all educational areas. In the case of the *brainstorming* strategy, 18 (14%) preschool teachers use this in all educational areas; 46 (38%) of them use it in academic (“intellectual”) areas, while only 21 (17%) of them use it in non-academic areas; 39 (31%) preschool teachers do not use this strategy at all (Graph 3). The results are similar for the *control list* strategy: 21 (18%) preschool teachers use this strategy in all educational areas; 36 (31%) of them use it in academic (“intellectual”) areas, while 7 (6%) preschool teachers use this strategy in non-academic educational areas; 51 (45%) preschool teachers do not use this strategy at all (Graph 4).



Graph 3: Educational areas in which preschool teachers use the *brainstorming* strategy



Graph 4: Educational areas in which preschool teachers use the *control list* strategy

Discussion

The main aim of this research was to explore attitudes towards and usage of two distinct strategies for fostering children's creative thinking. We created two sub-scales for examining attitudes towards the *brainstorming* and *control list* strategies. These two scales showed high reliability, suggesting that they can be used in future research concerned with attitudes towards these two strategies. Our results showed that preschool teachers have positive attitudes towards both strategies. Moreover, attitudes towards these two strategies are strongly positively related. This result should not surprise anyone. These strategies are well known, and their effectiveness has often been reported. Also, preschool teachers were introduced to these strategies during their education. The theory of planned behavior, as well as recent research (Beghetto & Kaufman, 2014, Lazarevic, 2005, Maksic, 2018, Maksimovic et al., 2018, Robson & Rowe, 2012, Sturza Milic, 2009, 2016), suggests that positive attitudes should translate into behavior. Based on this, one would expect that, if preschool teachers had positive attitudes towards these strategies, they would use them often in their everyday work. However, this was not the case. Preschool teachers use these strategies very rarely. Based on this study, we could not conclude why this should be the case, and it remains an interesting question that warrants individual study.

Our results also showed that there were no group differences in attitudes towards and usage of these strategies based on the age group of children with which preschool teachers work. This is another interesting finding, considering that one would at least have expected these strategies to be used more often with older age groups. We expected this because it is more appropriate to use these strategies with older children, considering that they are at a higher level of cognitive functioning

and more likely to produce creative ideas when compared to younger children. We also demonstrated that length of work experience with preschool children plays an important role when it comes to attitudes towards and usage of these strategies. The most notable results were that the most experienced preschool teachers use the *brainstorming* strategy significantly more often than their less-experienced colleagues do. Since we know that experience in a certain domain is positively related to expertise, we can conclude that experienced preschool teachers use this strategy more often because it has proven to be effective during their career. Similar findings can be found in the research by Nedimovic & Prtljaga (2018) and Sturza Milic et al. (2018).

The specific goal of our work was to determine whether these particular teachers used the "brainstorming" and "control list" strategies to develop creativity in different areas of children's development, i.e., whether in their everyday work there was a sufficiently holistic (integrative) approach to the development of children's creativity. Precise qualitative analysis revealed that only a small number of educators use the *brainstorming* strategy (N=18) and the *control list* (N=21) in all educational areas, while a larger number of educators use the above strategies mainly in those areas of development that are more focused on the "intellectual" development of children (*brainstorming* N=46; *control list* N=36). There have been other studies reporting that the academic, "intellectual" areas of the development of giftedness and creativity are more appreciated and encouraged in educational work, compared to "skills" in sports, arts (in particular, visual arts), games, etc., and that creative achievement is most often studied in the academic and professional spheres (Gojkov, 2018, Renzulli, 2017, Sturza Milic, 2014, Winner, 1996). It can be seen that the participating educators used the *brainstorming* and *control list* strategies more often in the field of speech development (Serbian as a mother tongue and a foreign language – English), learning about the world, basic mathematical concepts, but much less often in the field of artistic and music education, while in the field of motor development, unfortunately, these strategies are not applied at all. Since motor development and aesthetic development are inseparable parts of the overall development of children and their creative expression, especially as manifested at an early age (Gallahue, 2010, Kire, 2000, Sturza Milic, 2018), we can conclude that these strategies are not being sufficiently employed to encourage the overall development and creativity of children. This means that, in the everyday work of the participating educators, there is an insufficiency in the use of holistic (integrative) approaches to the development of creativity. In the context of the results thus obtained, preschool teachers should be encouraged to make more use

of these strategies in non-academic areas. Using these strategies in these areas could also support children's creative expression.

Conclusion

Accepting the modern view of a child as an active and creative individual that constructs its knowledge and understanding of the world around them must be appreciated in the process of creating conditions for the fostering and manifestation of creativity in different domains. Considerable emphasis should be placed on creating an atmosphere in which children feel secure in expressing their ideas and opinions. Even at an early age, all children need planned and guided support in order for them to reach their creative potential. This implies that the pedagogical action of preschool teachers should be directed towards fostering children's creative expression in all educational areas. The most suitable way to do this is by using structured and adequate didactic-methodological strategies. The results of this study have answered some of our initial questions about the attitudes of preschool teachers towards these strategies, and about the pattern of their usage. However, new questions that warrant their own investigation have also been raised.

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Authors**Nataša Sturza Milić, PhD**

Lecture, Preschool Teacher Training College »Mihailo Palov«, Vršac, Serbia, e-mail: natasasturza@gmail.com

Predavateljica, Visoka škola za izobraževanje v zgojiteljev »Mihailo Palov, Vršac, Srbija, e-mail: natasasturza@gmail.com

Predrag Nedimović, MA

Lecture, Preschool Teacher Training College »Mihailo Palov«, Vršac, Serbia, e-mail: pnedimovic@gmail.com

Predavatelj, Visoka škola za izobraževanje v zgojiteljev »Mihailo Palov, Vršac, Srbija, e-mail: pnedimovic@gmail.com

Svetlana Sturza, MA

Professor in High School »Borislav Petrov Braca«, Vršac, Serbia, e-mail: svetlana.sturza@gmail.com

Profesorica na Gimnaziji »Borislav Petrov Braca«, Vršac, Srbija, e-mail: svetlana.sturza@gmail.com

POVEZANOST MED SLOGI NAVEZANOSTI IN RAZUMEVANJEM DVOUMNIH ELEKTRONSKIH SPOROČIL

ZLATKA CUGMAS¹ & TJAŠA ŠENDLINGER²

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¹ Univerza v Mariboru, Pedagoška fakulteta, Maribor, Slovenija

² Univerza v Mariboru, Pedagoška fakulteta, Maribor, Slovenija

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CORRESPONDING AUTHOR/KORESPONDENČNI AVTOR

zlatka.cugmas@um.si

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Povzetek/Abstract Problem raziskave, v kateri je sodelovalo 184 dodiplomskih študentov, je bil preučiti povezanost med slogi navezanosti in razumevanjem dvoumnih elektronskih sporočil. Cilj raziskave je bil preizkusiti vprašalnik z devetimi zgodbami za ugotavljanje razumevanja dvoumnih elektronskih sporočil (Cugmas, neobjavljeno delo). Poleg njega smo v raziskavi uporabili Vprašalnik navezanosti na vrstnike (Armsden in Greenberg, 1987), Vprašalnik navezanosti za odrasle (Collins, 1996) in Vprašalnik medosebnih odnosov (Bartholomew in Horowitz, 1991). Udeleženci so pri vsaki zgodbi z dvoumnim elektronskim sporočilom izbrali enega izmed štirih odgovorov, kako bi sami razumeli sporočilo, za katere smo predvidevali, da so povezani s štirimi slogi navezanosti. Rezultati so delno potrdili postavljeno hipotezo, da je negativno razumevanje dvoumnih elektronskih sporočil povezano z ne varnimi slogi navezanosti.

The relation between attachment styles and understanding of ambiguous electronic messages The goal of this research was to examine the relation between attachment styles and interpretation bias in response to electronic messages in a sample of 184 undergraduates. A new vignette measure of interpretation bias in the context of nine electronic messages was developed (Cugmas, unpublished work). Participants selected one of the four responses that we assumed were related to four attachment styles. We applied the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987), the Adult Attachment Scale (Collins, 1996) and the Relationship Questionnaire (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). The results partly support our hypothesis, since interpreting ambiguous electronic messages in a negative manner is associated with insecure attachment styles.

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Navezanost je globoka in trajna čustvena vez, ki povezuje dve osebi. Kakovost otrokove navezanosti na primarne objekte navezanosti določa občutek varnosti, na podlagi katerega bo otrok raziskoval svet. Zgodnji odnosi navezanosti oblikujejo model za kasnejše odnose v mladostništvu in odraslosti (Bowlby, 1969).

Bartholomew in Horowitz (1991) sta oblikovala in empirično preverila model navezanosti v mladostništvu in odraslosti s štirimi kategorijami, ki temelji na Bowlby-jevem modelu, pri katerem prvo dimenzijo definira otrokovo doživljanje drugih, drugo dimenzijo pa, kako otrok vidi sebe na podlagi drugih. Modela »sebe« in »drugih« sta lahko ali pozitivna (»sem vreden ljubezni«, »drugi ljudje so vredni zaupanja«) ali negativna (»nisem vreden ljubezni«, »drugi ljudje so nezanesljivi in zavračajo«) in v kombinacijah dajeta štiri sloge navezanosti, in sicer: *varnost* (pozitivna modela sebe in drugih), *preokupiranost* (negativen model sebe in pozitiven model drugih), *odklonilno izogibajoč* (pozitiven model sebe in negativen model drugih) in *plašljivo izogibajoč* (negativna modela sebe in drugih). Model predpostavlja, da so ljudje z varnim slogom navezanosti sproščeni glede čustvene bližine in navezovanja, tisti s preokupiranim slogom so odvisni od odnosov in nenehno iščejo sprejetost od drugih, posamezniki z odklonilnim slogom imajo manjše potrebe po navezovanju in odvisnosti ter posamezniki s plašljivim slogom si želijo bližine, a se je bojijo in se stikom izogibajo (Erzar in Kompan Erzar, 2011). Omenjene značilnosti slogov so dokazale celo starejše študije (npr. Hazan in Shaver, 1987).

Posameznikov slog navezanosti je povezan z njegovo socialno kompetentnostjo, medosebno komunikacijo in socialnim vedenjem (Jenkins-Guarnieri, Wright in Hudiburgh, 2012). Problem raziskave, ki jo predstavljamo v prispevku, je bil preučiti, ali je navezanost povezana z razumevanjem dvoumnih elektronskih sporočil in v kolikšni meri. Uporaba elektronske tehnologije za namene komunikacije je v zadnjih desetletjih izrazito narasla, še posebej pri mlajših osebah (Cyr, Berman in Smith, 2015). Mladi velik del dneva preživijo tako, da se ukvarjajo s spletnimi socialnimi omrežji in drugimi internetnimi stranmi ter s pametnimi telefoni (Coyne, Padilla-Walker in Howard, 2013). Njihova priljubljena oblika elektronske komunikacije so kratka besedna sporočila (SMS; ang. *Short Message Service*; gre za izmenjavo besednih sporočil med mobilnimi telefoni) (Kingsbury in Coplan, 2016; Luo in Tuney, 2015). V pričujoči raziskavi bomo hipoteze preverili pri študentih, ki so v razvojnem obdobju *prehoda v odraslost*. To obdobje pripisujemo mladim, starim od 18. do 25. let; obstaja pa trend podaljševanja obdobja v zgodnja trideseta leta (Zupančič, 2011). Mladi v obdobju prehoda v odraslost so bolj svobodni in neodvisni kot mladostniki, imajo pa manj obveznosti in odgovornosti kot v odraslosti (Arnett, 2000). Najpomembnejše razvojne značilnosti tega obdobja

so identitetno raziskovanje na področju dela, ljubezni in svetovnega nazora; številne spremembe na področju kraja bivanja, medosebnih odnosov, dela in izobraževanja; samoosredotočenost; zaznavanje svojega razvojnega položaja med mladostništvom in odraslostjo in zaznavanje številnih življenjskih možnosti (Arnett, 2000, 2007). Uporaba moderne elektronske tehnologije je lahko koristna za uresničitev omenjenih razvojnih nalog, lahko pa pretirana uporaba vodi celo do zasvojenosti (Ballarotto, Volpi, Marzilli in Tambelli, 2018).

V pričujočem prispevku obravnavamo komunikacijo v elektronskih nebesednih sporočilih. Komunikacija ali sporazumevanje je oblika prenosa sporočil ali informacij. Gre za tvorjenje, prenašanje ali sprejemanje jezikovnih ali nejezikovnih sporočil (Gomboc, 1999). V neposredni komunikaciji k razumevanju pomena sporočila prispevajo v 55 odstotkih obrazna komponenta sporočevalca, v 38 odstotkih glasovna in v 7 odstotkih besedna (Mehrabian in Wiener, 1972; v Paladin, 2011). Nebesedna čustvena znamenja sporočila so obrazna mimika, govornica telesa kot so geste, ton glasu ipd. (Paladin, 2011). Pri pisnih sporočilih je prejemnik prikrajšan za vidne in slušne komponente sporočila, zato so lahko zanj dvoumna ali nerazumljiva (Cyr, Berman in Smith, 2015; Suler, 2010). Pri interpretaciji elektronskih sporočil je pomembno, kdo je pošiljatelj sporočila; ni vseeno ali je to npr. prijatelj ali uradna oseba (Byron, 2008). V neformalnem pisnem komuniciranju pogosto uporabljamo emotive (simboli za čustva) in akronime (prve črke besednih zvez), ki lahko pri osebah, ki teh znakov ne poznajo, povzročijo nerazumevanje sporočila. Dvoumno besedno izražanje pa je lahko tudi prijazna oblika neiskrenosti v primerjavi s hladno in neposredno povedano resnico, saj ne izrečemo oziroma zapišemo niti laži niti resnice (Adler in Rodman, 2003).

Empirične raziskave kažejo, da se varno navezane osebe pozitivno odzivajo v medosebnih odnosih (Shaver in Mikulincer, 2006; v Ule, 2009). Informacij ne sprejemajo selektivno (Kobak in Hazan, 1991). Zaradi zaupanja v druge ljudi komunicirajo z njimi bolj svobodno in odprto ter pošljejo več SMS-ov kot osebe z nevarnimi slogi navezanosti (Shahyad idr., 2011). Osebe s preokupiranim slogom navezanosti doživljajo negotovost in tesnobo v odnosih z drugimi, počutijo se ranljive in doživljajo negativna čustva, kot sta ljubosumje in zavist (Praper, 2010). Vedejo se posesivno, druge pogosto preverjajo in izražajo veliko skrb zanje, čeprav jim le-ti te skrbi ne vračajo (Hazan in Shaver, 1987). Bojijo se, da bi jih drugi zapustili. Tudi sicer osebe, ki izražajo višjo raven socialne anksioznosti, bolj negativno razumejo dvoumna sporočila v komunikaciji iz oči v oči (Beard in Amir, 2010). V raziskavi, ki so jo izvedli Amir, Beard in Bower (2005), so udeleženci raziskave gledali video posnetke s pozitivnimi (»Res so mi všeč vaši čevlji.«), z

negativnimi («Imate grozno pričesko.») in dvoumnimi sporočili (npr. »Oblečeno imate zanimivo majico.«). Posamezniki, za katere je bila značilna socialna anksioznost, so negativna in dvoumna sporočila razumeli bolj negativno kot manj anksiozni posamezniki. Preokupiran slog navezanosti je povezan z zasvojenostjo z uporabo mobilnega telefona (Konok, Gigler, Bereczky in Miklosi, 2016). Izogibajoče navezane osebe hitreje prepoznajo besede z negativno konotacijo (Erzar in Kompan Erzar, 2011). Osebe z odklonilno izogibajočim slogom najmanj uporabljajo mobilni telefon in najbolj redko pišejo SMS-e svojemu romantičnemu partnerju oziroma partnerici. Če so z njim oziroma njo v konfliktu, raje pošljejo elektronsko pošto (Morey, Gentzler, Creasy, Oberhauser in Westerman, 2013).

Problem raziskave in hipoteze

Namen raziskave je bil preučiti povezanost med različnimi pokazatelji navezanosti in razumevanjem dvoumnih elektronskih sporočil pri študentih od prvega do četrtega letnika različnih študijskih programov. Oblikovali smo naslednje delovne hipoteze:

- (1) Več *vzajemnega zaupanja* z vrstniki izražajo tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na način, povezan z varno navezanostjo, in manj *vzajemnega zaupanja* z vrstniki tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na načine, povezane z nevarnimi slogi navezanosti.
- (2) Več *odprte komunikacije* z vrstniki imajo tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na način, povezan z varno navezanostjo, in manj *odprte komunikacije* z vrstniki tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na načine, povezane z nevarnimi slogi navezanosti.
- (3) Več *bližine* z vrstniki, merjene z IPPA (Armsden in Greenberg, 1987), izražajo tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na način, povezan z varno navezanostjo, in manj *bližine* z vrstniki tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na načine, povezane z nevarnimi slogi navezanosti.
- (4) Več *bližine*, merjene z Vprašalnikom slogov navezanosti za odrasle (Collins, 1996), izražajo tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na način, povezan z varno navezanostjo, in manj *bližine* tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na načine, povezane z nevarnimi slogi navezanosti.
- (5) Več *anksioznosti* izražajo tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na načine, povezane z nevarnimi slogi navezanosti, in manj *anksioznosti* tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na način, povezan z varno navezanostjo.

- (6) Več *odvisnosti* izražajo tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na način, povezan z varno navezanostjo, in manj *odvisnosti* tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na načine, povezane z nevarnimi slogi navezanosti.
- (7) Udeleženci z določenim slogom navezanosti, izmerjenim z Vprašalnikom medosebnih odnosov (Bartholomew in Horowitz, 1991), bodo izbirali odgovore na dvoumna elektronska sporočila, za katere se predpostavlja, da so povezani z istim slogom navezanosti.

Metoda

Udeleženci

V raziskavi je sodelovalo 184 študentov (51,1 % moških, 48,9 % žensk) od prvega do četrtega letnika (po letnikih so bili približno enakomerno zastopani) različnih študijskih programov na Pedagoški fakulteti ($n = 55$), Filozofski fakulteti ($n = 27$) in Fakulteti za elektrotehniko in računalništvo ($n = 102$) Univerze v Mariboru. Bili so stari od 19 do 25 let.

Pripomočki

Za merjenje navezanosti na vrstnike smo uporabili Vprašalnik navezanosti na starše in vrstnike (*Inventory of parent and peer attachment, IPPA*; Armsden in Greenberg, 1987), pri čemer smo uporabili le različico za merjenje navezanosti na vrstnike. Navezanost na ljudi nasplošno smo merili z Vprašalnikom navezanosti za odrasle (*Adult Attachment Scale, AAS*; Collins, 1996) in Vprašalnikom medosebnih odnosov (*Relationship questionnaire*; Bartholomew in Horowitz, 1991). Priredbe ocenjevalnih lestvic za slovenske udeležence raziskav so bile izvedene v predhodnih raziskavah (IPPA v Cugmas, 2010, 2012; Vprašalnika medosebnih odnosov v Cugmas in Kranjec, 2016; Vprašalnika navezanosti za odrasle pa v Cugmas, Zadavec, Šket in Cizl, 2015).

IPPA vključuje 25 postavk. Pri vsaki udeleženec oceni, koliko opisi veljajo zanj na 5-stopenjski Likertovi ocenjevalni lestvici (od 1 – *skoraj nikoli ali nikoli ne drži zame* do 5 – *skoraj vedno ali vedno drži zame*). Postavke oblikujejo naslednje tri podlestvice: *vzajemno zaupanje*, *odprta komunikacija* in *jeza/odtujenost*. *Vzajemno zaupanje* se nanaša na občutek varnosti in na raven, v kateri se lahko udeleženec zanese na objekt navezanosti, v naši raziskavi na vrstnike. *Odprta komunikacija* pripomore k boljšim odnosom med udeležencem in vrstniki ter k njegovi varni navezanosti na vrstnike.

Jeza/odtujenost pa izraža ne-varen slog navezanosti, ki temelji na izogibanju in zavrnitvi (Armsden in Greenberg, 1987). Z obrnitvijo ocen postavk, ki so oblikovale podlestvico *jeza/odtujenost*, smo to podlestvico poimenovali *bližina*. Predhodne raziskave s slovenskimi študenti so pokazale ustrezno zanesljivost in veljavnost faktorске strukture IPPA za merjenje navezanosti na vrstnike (Cugmas, 2010) in romantične partnerje (Cugmas, 2011). Rezultati faktorске analize so potrdili hipotezo o konstruktni veljavnosti IPPA, pomembne korelacije med rezultati IPPA in uživanjem zdravju škodljivih substanc pa so potrdile hipotezo o kriterijski veljavnosti IPPA (Cugmas, 2010). Kriterijsko veljavnost IPPA smo potrdili tudi v raziskavi, v kateri smo preučevali navezanost na starše pri študentih (Cugmas, 2012). Dobili smo pomembne korelacije med kakovostjo odnosov s starši in vpletenostjo staršev v izobraževanje študentov. V pričujoči raziskavi smo dobili ustrezna koeficienta notranje zanesljivosti za *vzajemno zaupanje* ($\alpha = 0,91$) in *odprto komunikacijo* ($\alpha = 0,84$), ne pa tudi za *bližino* ($\alpha = 0,39$).

Za merjenje navezanosti na ljudi na splošno smo uporabili Vprašalnik navezanosti za odrasle (Collins, 1996), ki vsebuje 18 postavk. Udeleženci so ocenili, koliko so značilne zanje, na 5-stopenjski Likertovi ocenjevalni lestvici (od 1 – *sploh ni značilno zame* do 5 – *je popolnoma značilno zame*). Vprašalnik meri, v kolikšni meri so udeleženci razvili bližnje, odvisne in anksiozne odnose z drugimi. Visok rezultat na dimenziji *bližina* označuje osebo, ki se počuti udobno v tesnih in intimnih odnosih. Visok rezultat na dimenziji *odvisnost* označuje osebo, ki ocenjuje, da se lahko zanese na druge in da so le-ti dostopni, ko jih potrebuje. Visok rezultat na dimenziji *anksioznost* označuje osebo, ki je zaskrbljena, da bi bila zavrnjena in da ne bi bila ljubljena. Notranja zanesljivost dimenzij, izračunana na vzorcih iz klinične in neklinične populacije, je naslednja: *bližina* $\alpha = 0,77$, *odvisnost* $\alpha = 0,78$ in *anksioznost* $\alpha = 0,85$ (Collins, 1996). Shevlin, Boyda, Elklit in Murphy (2014) so dobili koeficienta notranje zanesljivosti za združeni kategoriji *bližina/odvisnost* $\alpha = 0,76$, za *anksioznost* pa $\alpha = 0,83$.

Vprašalnik medosebnih odnosov (*Relationship questionnaire*; Bartholomew in Horowitz, 1991) vsebuje opise naslednjih štirih slogov navezanosti: *varnost/avtonomnost*, *plašljivo izogibajoč*, *preokupiran* in *odklonilno izogibajoč*. Udeleženci so na 7-stopenjski Likertovi ocenjevalni lestvici (od 1 – *sploh ne velja zame* do 7 – *popolnoma velja zame*) ocenili štiri opise (vsak je opisoval en slog navezanosti), koliko veljajo zanje. Udeleženci so dobili navodilo, da odgovarjajo za svoj odnos z ljudmi na splošno, kar pomeni, da smo merili splošne delovne modele navezanosti, ki pomenijo abstrakcijo delovnih modelov, ki se razvijajo v specifičnih odnosih (Fraleay

in Shaver, 2000). Prav na osnovi teh splošnih delovnih modelov posameznik interpretira nove odnose in se vede v interakciji z novimi objekti navezanosti (Mohr, Cook-Lyon in Kolchakian, 2010), kot so na primer vrstniki. Opis varne navezanosti ustreza osebi, ki se brez težav čustveno zbliža z ljudmi. Počuti se prijetno in varno, če se lahko zanese nanje in oni nanjo. Ne skrbi jo, da bi ostala sama ali da je ljudje ne bi sprejeli. Opis sloga navezanosti *plašljivo izogibajoč* ustreza osebi, ki pri navezovanju tesnih stikov z ljudmi ni sproščena. Čeprav si želi tesnih stikov, ljudem težko popolnoma zaupa in se težko nanje povsem zanese. Skrbi jo, da bo prizadeta, če si bo dopustila priti z ljudmi preblizu. Opis sloga navezanosti *preokupiran* ustreza osebi, ki se želi popolnoma čustveno zblížati z ljudmi, vendar pogosto ugotovi, da si ljudje ne želijo tolikšne bližine z njo kot ona z njimi. V odsotnosti tesnih čustvenih odnosov se slabo počuti. Skrbi jo, da jo ljudje manj cenijo kot ona njih. Opis sloga navezanosti *odklonilno izogibajoč* ustreza osebi, ki se dobro počuti brez tesnih čustvenih odnosov z ljudmi. Pomembna ji je neodvisnost in samozadostnost. Želi, da se ljudje ne zanašajo nanjo in ona ne nanje. Scharfe in Bartholomew (1994) navajata, da sta zanesljivost in veljavnost vprašalnika ustrezni. Test-retest korelacije znašajo v povprečju od 0,78 za ženske in 0,86 za moške (Scharfe in Bartholomew, 1994). Kriterijsko veljavnost vprašalnika smo potrdili v raziskavi (Cugmas in Kranjec, 2016), ki je pokazala pomembne korelacije med slogi navezanosti in vpletenostjo vrstnikov v izobraževanje študentov.

Za merjenje razumevanja dvoumnih sporočil smo uporabili vprašalnik z devetimi hipotetičnimi zgodbami (Cugmas, neobjavljeno delo). Glede na njihovo vsebino jih kratko poimenujemo, in sicer: *piškoti, lepa Mateja, nujno srečanje, seminarsko delo, kava, medvedka, smučanje, smejko* in *vprašanja za izpit*. Pri vseh so bili podani štirje odgovori, med katerimi so udeleženci izbrali in obkročili tistega, ki se jim je zdel najbližje temu, kako bi sami v opisanih okoliščinah razumeli elektronsko sporočilo. Odgovore smo sestavili na podlagi štirih slogov navezanosti (*varnost/avtonomnost, plašljivo izogibajoč, preokupiran* in *odklonilno izogibajoč*). Njihova razporeditev pod hipotetično zgodbo je bila po naključnem vrstnem redu. Z dodiplomskimi študenti psihologije in pedagogike (ki niso bili zajeti v vzorec raziskave, ki jo predstavljamo v prispevku) smo razpravljali o tem, koliko so zgodbe z dvoumnimi elektronskimi sporočili in načini njihovega razumevanja verjetni v vsakdanjem življenju, in ugotovili, da je verjetnost zgodb velika. Primer zgodbe *vprašanja za izpit*:

Prijateljici napišete SMS: »Mi posodiš vprašanja za izpit?« Odgovora ne dobite. Kaj pomislite?

a) Noče mi posoditi vprašanj. Ni problema. Jih tudi ne potrebujem.

b) Verjetno je pozabila na moj SMS ali pa ga ni dobila. Ji napišem še enkrat.

- c) *Saj sem vedel/a, da je tega ne bi smel/a vprašati. Upam, da mi ne bo zamerila.*
 č) *Res je nesramna. Pa toliko dobrega naredim zanjo.*

Predvidevali smo, da je odgovor *b* povezan z varnim slogom navezanosti, ostali odgovori so povezani z ne-varnimi slogi, in sicer odgovor *a* z odklonilno izogibajočim; odgovor *c* s plašljivo izogibajočim in odgovor *č* s preokupiranim.

Postopek zbiranja in obdelave podatkov

Zbiranje podatkov je potekalo od januarja do maja leta 2016 v predavalnicah fakultet. Sodelovanje študentov v raziskavi je bilo prostovoljno. Kratko smo jih seznanili s problemom raziskave, ne pa tudi s hipotezami. Ob bateriji vprašalnikov (razporejeni so bili v istem vrstnem redu, kot so predstavljeni v prispevku) so odgovorili še na vprašanja o demografskih podatkih (spol, letnik in fakulteta). Navodila za reševanje vprašalnikov so bila podana skupinsko. Zagotovili smo anonimnost udeležencev, zaupnost podatkov in njihovo uporabo le v znanstvenoraziskovalne namene. Podatke smo analizirali s statističnim programom SPSS *Statistics 22*. Poleg opisne statistike smo izračunali pomembnost razlik v rezultatih navezanosti med udeleženci, ki so različno razumeli dvoumna elektronska sporočila, z enosmerno analizo varianco.

Rezultati z diskusijo

Pri zgodbi *nujno srečanje* so udeleženci označili, kako bi razumeli naslednje elektronsko sporočilo: »*Se dobiva na kavi, ker ti moram nekaj nujno povedati?*«. Zgodba *vprašanja za izpit* je predstavljena v poglavju Pripomočki. Izračuni enosmerne analize variance so pokazali, da so udeleženci, ki so različno razumeli elektronsko sporočilo *nujno srečanje* ($F = 4,98$, $df = 183$, $p = 0,002^*$) in *vprašanja za izpit* ($F = 3,29$, $df = 183$, $p = 0,022^*$), izrazili pomembno različno raven odprte komunikacije z vrstniki. Najvišji rezultat odprte komunikacije z vrstniki so imeli tisti udeleženci, ki so pri zgodbi *nujno srečanje* izbrali odgovor, povezan z varno navezanostjo (»*Ab, verjetno mi bo povedala, da se je ostrigla na paž.*«, $n = 70$, $M = 3,54$, $SD = 0,71$); nižji rezultat tisti udeleženci, ki so izbrali odgovora »*Joj, ali sem naredil/a kaj narobe?!*« ($n = 48$, $M = 3,51$, $SD = 0,66$) in »*No, končno me potrebuje. Sem se že bal/a, da je pozabil/a name.*« ($n = 58$, $M = 3,47$, $SD = 0,69$); najnižji rezultat pa tisti, ki so izbrali odgovor, povezan z odklonilno izogibajočim slogom navezanosti (»*Kaj teži. Naj me že enkrat pusti pri miru.*«, $n = 8$, $M = 2,55$, $SD = 0,84$). Pri zgodbi *vprašanja za izpit* so imeli najvišji rezultat odprte komunikacije tisti udeleženci, ki so izbrali odgovor, povezan z varno navezanostjo (»*Verjetno je pozabila na moj SMS. Ji napišem še enkrat.*«, $n = 99$, $M = 3,61$,

$SD = 0,71$), nižji rezultat tisti udeleženci, ki so izbrali odgovora »*Saj sem vedel/a, da je tega ne bi smel/a vprašati. Upam, da mi ne bo zamerila.*« ($n = 7$, $M = 3,52$, $SD = 0,64$) in »*Noče mi posoditi vprašanj. Ni problema, jih tudi ne potrebujem.*« ($n = 46$, $M = 3,31$, $SD = 0,74$); najnižji rezultat pa tisti, ki so izbrali odgovor, povezan s preokupirano navezanostjo (»*Res je nesramna. Pa toliko dobrega naredim zanjo.*«, $n = 32$, $M = 3,23$, $SD = 0,64$). Pri obeh zgodbah so rezultati podprli hipotezo, da se udeleženci, ki izberejo različne odgovore na dvoumno elektronsko sporočilo, razlikujejo v ravni odprte komunikacije z vrstniki, in sicer da imajo več odprte komunikacije z vrstniki tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na način, povezan z varno navezanostjo, in manj odprte komunikacije z vrstniki tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na načine, povezane z ne-varnimi slogi navezanosti. Te hipoteze rezultati pri ostalih sedmih zgodbah niso potrdili. Prav tako niso potrdili hipotez, da izražajo več *vzajemnega zaupanja in bližine* z vrstniki tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na način, povezan z varno navezanostjo, in manj *vzajemnega zaupanja in bližine* z vrstniki tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na načine, povezane z ne-varnimi slogi navezanosti.

Izračuni enosmerne analize variance so pokazali, da so udeleženci, ki so različno razumeli elektronsko sporočilo *nujno srečanje*, izrazili pomembno različno raven anksioznosti ($F = 2,71$, $df = 181$, $p = 0,047^*$). Najvišjo anksioznost so izrazili udeleženci, ki so izbrali odgovor, povezan s plašljivo izogibajočim slogom navezanosti (»*Joj, ali sem naredil/a kaj narobe?!*« ($n = 48$, $M = 2,57$, $SD = 0,94$)), nižjo anksioznost udeleženci, ki so izbrali odgovora »*No, končno me potrebuje. Sem se že bal/a, da je pozabil/a name.*« ($n = 57$, $M = 2,54$, $SD = 0,84$) in »*Ah, verjetno mi bo povedala, da se je ostrigla na paž.* ☺« ($n = 69$, $M = 2,25$, $SD = 0,90$) in najnižjo tisti, ki so izbrali odgovor, povezan z odklonilno izogibajočim slogom navezanosti (»*Kaj teži. Naj me že enkrat pusti pri miru.*« ($n = 8$, $M = 1,85$, $SD = 0,57$)). Z vidika navezanosti, lahko tri odgovore razumemo kot negativne, saj izražajo ne-varne sloge navezanosti, socialno anksioznost pa neposredno izraža le odgovor, povezan s plašljivo izogibajočim slogom. S tega vidika lahko trdimo, da se rezultati ujemajo z ugotovitvami drugih avtorjev (Kingsbury in Coplan, 2016), ki so odkrili, da posamezniki z visoko ravno socialne anksioznosti pogosteje negativno razlagajo dvoumna elektronska sporočila kot posamezniki z nizko ravno socialne anksioznosti. Udeleženci, ki so v naši raziskavi različno razumeli elektronsko sporočilo *seminarsko delo* (sporočilo je bilo naslednje: »*O čem boš pisal/a pri seminarski?*« »*Še ne vem.*«), so izrazili pomembno različno raven odvisnosti ($F = 9,82$, $df = 181$, $p = 0,002^{**}$). Ker so bile pri tej zgodbi frekvence odgovorov, povezanih z ne-varnimi slogi navezanosti (»*Seveda ve, le meni noče povedati. Nikoli več ji/mu ne bom pomagal/a pri seminarskih.*«, »*Ne bi ga/je smel/a tega vprašati. Upam, da me ne bo imel/a za*

neumneža/trapo.«, »Saj me ne briga. Tako ali tako ne boš napisal/a nič pametnega.«), nizke, smo jih sešteli in obravnavali kot enotno kategorijo. Več odvisnosti so izrazili udeleženci, ki so izbrali odgovor, povezan z varnim slogom navezanosti (»Potem sva na istem.« ($n = 150, M = 3,08, SD = 0,60$)), kot tisti, ki so izbrali odgovor, povezan z ne-varnimi slogi navezanosti ($n = 32, M = 2,71, SD = 0,65$). Ker visok rezultat na podlestvici *odvisnost* označuje osebe, ki menijo, da se lahko zanesejo na druge in so le-ti dostopni, ko jih potrebujejo (Collins, 1996), lahko sklenemo, da se dobljeni rezultati ujemajo s pričakovanji. Udeleženci, ki so različno razumeli elektronsko sporočilo *keva* (sporočilo je bilo naslednje: »Greš na kavo?« *vprašam prijatelja/ico po telefonu.* »Nimam časa. Adijo, se vidiva,« *odloži telefonsko slušalko. Pokličem ga/jo nazaj, a ni več dosegljiv/a.*), so izrazili pomembno različno raven anksioznosti ($F = 2,97, df = 181, p = 0,033^*$). Najvišjo anksioznost so izrazili udeleženci, ki so izbrali odgovor, povezan s plašljivo izogibajočim slogom navezanosti (»Spet sem ga nekaj polomil/a. Upam, da bo še hotel/a biti moj/a prijatelj/ica.« ($n = 34, M = 2,73, SD = 0,77$)), nižjo anksioznost udeleženci, ki so izbrali odgovora »Le zakaj je jezen/jezna name? Ga/Jo kličem, dokler ga/je ne dobim in izsilim opravičilo.« ($n = 22, M = 2,62, SD = 0,77$) in »Takega/take 'prijatelja/prijateljice' ne rabim. Nikoli več ga/je ne pokličem.« ($n = 16, M = 2,43, SD = 0,73$), in najnižjo tisti udeleženci, ki so izbrali odgovor, povezan z varnim slogom navezanosti (»Verjetno spet čuva bolno nečakinjo, ali ga/jo kaj drugega zadržuje. Morda pa je v službi. Tam ne sme uporabljati telefona. Me bo že poklical/a, ko bo utegnil/a« ($n = 110, M = 2,26, SD = 0,95$)). Rezultati se ujemajo z ugotovitvami raziskav drugih avtorjev (Beard in Amir, 2010; Kingsbury in Coplan, 2016), da imajo socialno anksiozni posamezniki težnjo po negativnem razumevanju dvoumnih besednih sporočil. Elektronsko sporočilo, ki smo ga imenovali *smejko*, je bilo naslednje: »Komaj čakam, da se vidiva! ;-« Udeleženci, ki so različno razumeli elektronsko sporočilo *smejko*, so izrazili pomembno različno raven bližine ($F = 3,16, df = 181, p = 0,026^*$), odvisnosti ($F = 4,14, df = 181, p = 0,007^{**}$) in anksioznosti ($F = 3,88, df = 181, p = 0,010^{**}$). Najvišja rezultata za bližino in anksioznost so imeli udeleženci, ki so izbrali odgovor, povezan s preokupiranim slogom navezanosti (»Pokličem, da mi pove, kaj pomeni smejko, ki mižika.« (za bližino: $n = 7, M = 4,21, SD = 0,45$; za anksioznost: $n = 7, M = 3,33, SD = 1,14$)), nižja rezultata udeleženci, ki so izbrali odgovora »Zakaj je napisal/a smejkota, ki mižika? Verjetno si me ne želi videti.« (za bližino: $n = 9, M = 3,85, SD = 0,24$; za anksioznost: $n = 9, M = 2,89, SD = 0,96$) in »Lepo sporočilo.« (za bližino: $n = 158, M = 3,70, SD = 0,62$; za anksioznost: $n = 158, M = 2,35, SD = 0,86$). Najnižja rezultata za bližino in anksioznost so imeli udeleženci, ki so izbrali odgovor, povezan z odklonilno izogibajočim slogom navezanosti (»Naj še malo počaka, saj ne more ves čas viseti na meni.« (za bližino: $n = 8, M = 3,27, SD = 0,65$; za anksioznost: $n = 8, M = 2,19, SD = 0,81$)). Verjetno bi udeleženci z visokim rezultatom bližine, brez zadržkov preverili, če so pravilno

razumeli sporočilo; udeleženci s preokupiranim slogom navezanosti pa bi občutili tesnobo ob misli, da smejko pomeni nasprotje besednemu sporočilu. Višji rezultat na podlestvici *odvisnost* so imeli tisti udeleženci, ki so izbrali odgovora, povezana z odklonilno izogibajočim slogom navezanosti ($n = 8, M = 3,10, SD = 0,55$) in varnim slogom navezanosti ($n = 158, M = 3,06, SD = 0,60$), nižjega pa tisti, ki so izbrali odgovora, povezana s preokupiranim slogom navezanosti ($n = 7, M = 2,33, SD = 0,45$) in plašljivo izogibajočim slogom navezanosti ($n = 9, M = 2,68, SD = 0,90$). Dobljene razlike, da več odvisnosti izražajo udeleženci z varnim slogom navezanosti, manj pa tisti z ne-varnimi slogi navezanosti, so bile pričakovane. Da več odvisnosti izražajo udeleženci, ki so izbrali odgovor, za katerega smo predvidevali, da je povezan z odklonilno izogibajočim slogom navezanosti, razlagamo z nizkimi frekvencami odgovorov, povezanih z ne-varnimi slogi navezanosti.

Rezultati, dobljeni na podlagi podatkov, zbranih z Vprašalnikom slogov navezanosti za odrasle (Collins, 1996), so delno potrdili hipoteze, da več bližine in odvisnosti izražajo tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na način, povezan z varno navezanostjo, in manj bližine in odvisnosti tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na načine, povezane z ne-varnimi slogi navezanosti; da več anksioznosti izražajo tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na načine, povezane z ne-varno navezanostjo, in manj anksioznosti tisti udeleženci, ki razumejo elektronska sporočila na način, povezan z varnim slogom navezanosti. Rezultati teh hipotez niso potrdili pri vseh zgodbah in povezavah med razumevanjem elektronskih sporočil in navezanostjo, kar razlagamo z manjšo ustreznostjo nekaterih zgodb.

Samo pri zgodbi *nujno srečanje* so se udeleženci, ki so izbrali različne odgovore razumevanja tega sporočila, pomembno razlikovali v navezanosti, merjeni z Vprašalnikom medosebnih odnosov (Bartholomew in Horowitz, 1991). Razlikovali so se v odklonilno izogibajočem slogu navezanosti ($F = 3,47, df = 183, p = 0,017^*$). Pomembno višji rezultat odklonilno izogibajočega sloga navezanosti so imeli udeleženci, ki so izbrali odgovor, ki smo ga tudi sami povezovali z odklonilno izogibajočim slogom navezanosti (*»Kaj teži. Naj me že enkrat pusti na miru.«* ($n = 8, M = 5,37, SD = 1,50$)). Rezultati so le pri tej zgodbi in pri tem odgovoru potrdili hipotezo, da bodo udeleženci z določenim slogom navezanosti izbirali odgovore, za katere se predpostavlja, da so povezani z istim slogom navezanosti. Relativno šibko povezanost med rezultati na tem vprašalniku navezanosti in izbiro odgovorov pri dvoumnih elektronskih sporočilih razlagamo z dejstvom, da *Vprašalnik medosebnih odnosov* meri sloge navezanosti na ljudi na splošno, medtem ko gre pri

obravnavanih elektronskih sporočil za komunikacijo z vrstniki, zato ne preseneča, da je povezanost med izbranimi odgovori in vprašalnikom IPPA, ki meri navezanost na vrstnike, pomembnejša.

Zaključek

Kljub temu, da rezultati pri vseh zgodbah dvoumnih elektronskih sporočil in vseh odgovorih, ki izražajo, kako bi jih udeleženci razumeli, ne potrjujejo postavljenih hipotez, lahko trdimo, da smo v raziskavi potrdili splošno predpostavko o povezanosti med razumevanjem dvoumnih elektronskih sporočil in različnimi vidiki navezanosti, kajti statistično pomembne razlike v navezanosti udeležencev, ki bi različno razumeli sporočila, so v predvideni smeri. Udeleženci, ki so dvoumna elektronska sporočila razumeli na način, za katerega smo predvidevali, da je povezan z varno navezanostjo, so imeli višje rezultate na različnih pokazateljih varne navezanosti kot udeleženci, ki so dvoumna elektronska sporočila razumeli na načine, za katere smo predvidevali, da so povezani z ne-varnimi slogi navezanosti.

Zaradi prednosti raziskave, ki jo predstavljamo v tem prispevku, bi bilo smiselno raziskovanje tovrstne problematike nadaljevati. Raziskava je izvirna glede obravnave razumevanja dvoumnih elektronskih sporočil v povezanosti z navezanostjo. Komunikacija preko elektronske tehnologije je danes izredno razširjena, še posebno pri mladih. Raziskava daje vpogled v razumevanje tovrstne komunikacije in ima zaradi tega uporabno vrednost. Mlade bi bilo potrebno izobraziti v uporabi sodobne elektronske tehnologije in jih seznaniti s prednostmi in slabostmi te uporabe. Opozoriti bi jih bilo treba na značilnosti nebesednih elektronskih sporočil in na možnosti odpošiljanja dvoumnih sporočil ter posledice napačnega razumevanja teh sporočil. Tovrstno izobraževanje in svetovanje bi bilo še posebej koristno pri obravnavi mladih z ne-varnimi slogi navezanosti. Napačno razumevanje nebesednih elektronskih sporočil, ki je pogojeno z ne-varnimi delovnimi modeli navezanosti, lahko še dodatno negativno vpliva na njihove socialne odnose z vrstniki.

Pri nadaljnjem raziskovanju bi morali upoštevati slabosti v tem prispevku predstavljene raziskave. Ker so se le nekatere zgodbe in odgovori pokazali kot pomembno povezani z različnimi pokazatelji navezanosti, bi bilo treba zgodbe, kot so *piškoti*, *lepa Mateja*, *medvedka* in *smučanje* spremeniti ali zamenjati za druge. Ker pomenijo statistično pomembni rezultati povezanosti med navezanostjo in reševanjem *Vprašalnika razumevanja dvoumnih elektronskih sporočil* pokazatelj veljavnosti vprašalnika, bi s smiselnimi spremembami vprašalnika povečali tudi

njegovo veljavnost. Sklepamo, da rezultati niso v celoti potrdili postavljenih hipotez zaradi premajhnega vzorca udeležencev, ki je vplival na nizke frekvence odgovorov, povezanih z ne-varnimi slogi navezanosti. Ob večjem vzorcu bi bilo treba izračunati pokazatelje veljavnosti ter notranje in/ali test-retest zanesljivosti. Pri reviziji vprašalnika bi bilo treba upoštevati dejavnik spola pošiljatelja in prejemnika sporočila. Sklepamo, da so se nekatere zgodbe prav zaradi neupoštevanja dejavnika spola pokazale kot neustrezne. Raziskave (pregled v Kingsbury in Coplan, 2016) kažejo, da si socialno anksiozni posamezniki komunikacijo z osebami nasprotnega spola razlagajo bolj negativno kot komunikacijo z osebami istega spola. Najbolje bi bilo oblikovati zgodbe z dvoumnimi elektronskimi sporočili spolno nevtralne ali izdelati različici vprašalnika za ženske in moške. Če bi želeli doseči večjo moč posploševanja dobljenih rezultatov, bi bilo treba v vzorec vključiti še mlade na prehodu v odraslost, ki niso študentje, ali celo povečati vzorec s priključitvijo oseb v drugih starostnih obdobjih. Nenazadnje je treba omeniti, da pomeni pričujoča raziskava prvi korak v smeri preverjanja vprašalnika dvoumnih elektronskih sporočil, zato jo označujemo kot preliminarno, kar pomeni, da jo je treba ponoviti na večjem reprezentativnem vzorcu deklet in fantov v obdobju prehoda v odraslost, upoštevati pomanjkljivosti pričujoče raziskave in ustrezno izpeljati postopek validacije.

Summary

The quality of a child's attachment determines the level of security with which a child explores the world, and these early relationships form the models from which future relationships in adolescence and adulthood are developed (Bowlby, 1969). Individuals' cognitive representations about themselves and others are called internal working models (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Attachment styles are associated with interpersonal competency, communication and social behavior (Jenkins-Guarnieri, Wright & Hudiburgh, 2012). Over the last 25 years, the way that humans interact with one another has undergone rapid and substantive change (Kingsbury & Coplan, 2016). Teens and young adults report a strong preference for text messages over other forms of communication, including email, voice calls, and even face-to-face communication (Lenhart, 2012, in Kingsbury & Coplan, 2016).

The goal of the present research was to develop a vignette protocol to measure interpretation bias in the context of telephone-mediated communication and to examine the relation between attachment styles and interpretation bias in response to text messages in a sample of 184 undergraduates (48.9 % female). Interpretation bias refers to the tendency to ascribe negative interpretations to ambiguous social

situations (Vassilopoulos & Banerjee, 2011). It was expected that the tendency to interpret ambiguous electronic messages in a negative manner would be associated with insecure attachment styles. The lack of nonverbal cues to emotion in electronic text messages (e.g., facial expressions, tone of voice or body language) may create ambiguity (Kingsbury & Coplan, 2016). Few studies have examined the connection between attachment and communication technology (Morey, Gentzler, Creasy, Oberhauser and Westerman, 2013).

Nine vignettes were created, describing common social scenarios taking place via electronic text message. These were created in consultation with a group of psychology and pedagogy undergraduates. The group was asked to generate and discuss plausible situations in which a text message received from a friend might be interpreted in multiple ways. In each case, the intent of the sender was ambiguous. After each vignette, participants were presented with four possible interpretations of the sender's intention. Participants were asked to choose one of these to express how they would understand the message. Data was analyzed by using analysis of variance (ANOVA).

The hypothesis of the current study that the tendency to interpret ambiguous electronic messages in a positive manner would be associated with a secure attachment style and in a negative manner with insecure attachment styles was partially supported.

Limitations and directions: This research represents a first step towards understanding how attachment may operate in the novel context of phone-mediated communication, more specifically in response to text messages. The association between attachment styles and ambiguous message interpretation has not yet been studied. Unfortunately, our results are affected by a number of methodological flaws. The sample is not representative of emerging adults, given that we sampled only college students. Also, future research would need to be conducted to determine if our findings could be generalized to populations of different ages (e.g., adolescents or older adults). Another limitation of the study was using only self-reporting instruments to measure attachment styles, which may have caused a mono-method bias and could be addressed in future studies by utilizing additional methods of data collection.

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Avtorici

Dr. Zlatka Cugmas

Redna profesorica, Univerza v Mariboru, Pedagoška fakulteta, Koroška cesta 160, 2000 Maribor, Slovenija, e-mail: zlatka.cugmas@um.si

Full Professor, University of Maribor, Faculty of Education, Koroška cesta 160, 2000 Maribor, Slovenia, e-mail: zlatka.cugmas@um.si

Tjaša Šendlinger, mag. prof. raz. pouka

Univerza v Mariboru, Pedagoška fakulteta, Koroška cesta 160, 2000 Maribor, Slovenija, e-mail: tyasa.sendlinger@gmail.com

MA, University of Maribor, Faculty of Education, Koroška cesta 160, 2000 Maribor, Slovenia, e-mail: tyasa.sendlinger@gmail.com

RAZREDNIKI IN VKLJUČEVANJE MARGINALIZIRANIH SKUPIN UČENCEV V ODDELČNO SKUPNOST

ANJA SMOLE¹ TINA VRŠNIK PERŠE²

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¹ Osnovna šola Kozje, Kozje, Slovenija

² Univerza v Mariboru, Pedagoška fakulteta, Maribor, Slovenija

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CORRESPONDING AUTHOR/KORESPONDENČNI AVTOR
anja.smole1@gmail.com

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Povzetek/Abstract V prvem delu prispevka smo predstavili značilnosti marginaliziranih skupin učencev in vlogo razrednika pri vključevanju le-teh v oddelčno skupnost. V empiričnem delu so predstavljeni rezultati raziskave, v kateri je sodelovalo 381 razrednikov iz slovenskih osnovnih šol. V raziskavi smo ugotavljali, ali obstajajo statistično značilne razlike v lastni oceni usposobljenosti za delo z marginaliziranimi skupinami učencev, obsegu med izobraževanjem pridobljenega znanja o integraciji marginaliziranih učencev, obsegu izkušenj o vključevanju marginaliziranih skupin učencev in obsegu dodatnega dela pri vključevanju teh skupin učencev v oddelčno skupnost glede na delovno dobo, velikost kraja in stopnjo poučevanja razrednikov. Raziskali smo težavnost vključitve posameznih marginaliziranih skupin v oddelčno skupnost in ugotavljali mnenja razrednikov o uspešnosti strategij za integracijo teh skupin učencev v pouk.

Class teachers and inclusion of marginalized groups of pupils in the class

In the first part of the article, we present the characteristics of marginalized groups of pupils and the role of the class teacher in integrating them into the class. The experimental part reports the results of the study, which included 381 class teachers from Slovenian elementary schools. Through this research, we sought to establish whether the statistics show characteristic differences in self-assessment of the qualification for working with marginalized groups of pupils; differences in the quantity of knowledge about integration of marginalized groups gained through education; differences in the quantity of experience in integrating marginalized groups of pupils; and differences in the quantity of additional work with integration of marginalized groups of pupils into the classroom, based on years of service, town size and educational level of the class teachers. We researched the difficulty of including various marginalized groups into classes. We also tried to find out the opinions of class teachers on the success of integration strategies for these groups of pupils in the classroom.

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Uvod

Identifikacija z določeno etnično, nacionalno, versko, kulturno ali rasno identiteto oziroma skupino je posameznikom dodeljena z rojstvom. Na te pripisane statuse ne moremo vplivati, saj so odvisni od okoliščin. Prav tako ne moremo vplivati na to, v kakšno družino se rodimo, in na to, ali imamo kakšne ovire, primanjkljaje oziroma motnje. Zaradi nesprejemanja posameznika ali skupine posameznikov, ki temelji na eni ali več omenjenih kategorij identifikacije, se lahko pojavlja socialno izključevanje posameznika ali skupine, ki jo poimenujemo tudi marginalizacija.

Kaj je marginalizacija

Po Pajnik (2003) se izraz marginalizirane skupine uporablja takrat, kadar želimo poudariti, da je marginalizacija proces, ki se dogaja od zunaj, da gre za etiketiranje s strani drugih in da ljudje primarno ne prepoznavajo sami sebe kot »marginalizirane«, ampak jih kot take prepozna družba.

Pojem marginalen označuje skupino ali posameznike, za katere veljajo:

- osebnostne, intelektualne, kulturne, socialne, statusne, ekonomske ali religiozne posebnosti;
- posebnosti duhovnega, duševnega in fizičnega značaja;
- način ter pogoji življenja, ki so razlog odrinjenosti na rob družbe ali celo izključenosti;
- so zaradi svojih lastnosti, oviranosti, načina življenja, življenjskih okoliščin in/ali pripisane stigme pogosto manj fleksibilne pri odzivanju na hitre in dinamične spremembe, ki jih prinaša sodobna družba, in manj konkurenčne na trgu delovne sile in na drugih področjih, ki delujejo po načelih tekmovalnosti in kjer so viri omejeni (Trbanc idr., 2003).

Na podlagi opredeljenih posebnosti je Žgavc (2011) marginalizirane skupine razdelila na naslednje podskupine:

- odklonske oziroma deviantne skupine,
- narkomanske skupine (tudi alternativne, ki drogo uporabljajo kot stimulans),
- skupine s posebnimi potrebami oziroma skupine z drugačnimi osebnostnimi lastnostmi,
- starostniki,

- skupine revnih,
- etnične in rasne skupine (sem spadajo začasni begunci, avtohtone narodne skupine ...),
- brezposelni,
- skupine različnih veroizpovedi.

Pojmi, povezani z marginalizacijo

Marginalizirane skupine so lahko zaradi svojih lastnosti, ki jih dominantna skupina označi za drugačne, ponekod odrinjene na rob, segregirane. Segregacija se lahko dogaja tudi v šolskem prostoru. Učenci se ob vstopu v šolo srečajo z različnostjo, zato med vrstniki pogosto pride do etiketiranja oziroma stigmatizacije. Goffman (1984) stigmatizacijo opisuje kot poseben odziv okolice na drugačnost, ki je v nekaterih okoljih lahko nezaželena in posledično stigmatizirana. Stigmatizirane osebe lahko drugi zaradi drugačnosti dojemajo kot manjvredne in so lahko tarča posmeha, opravljanja, zaničevanja in nasilja. To pa lahko vodi v marginaliziranje.

Kot rezultat različnosti med učenci se med vrstniki pojavljajo tudi predsodki, ki so negativne oznake in predstave o drugačnih. Manstead in Hewstone (1995) predsodke opredeljujeta kot poniževalna stališča, negativna čustva ali sovražno oziroma diskriminatorno vedenje posameznika do drugih zaradi njihove pripadnosti določeni socialni skupini. Šetinc Vernik in Vernik Šetinc (b. l.) navajata, da se predsodki velikokrat enačijo z diskriminacijo. To prepričanje je zmotno, saj je predsodek le miselni proces, ki se dogaja v glavi posameznika, diskriminacija pa je njegovo udejanjanje.

Ule (2004) diskriminacijo pojasnjuje kot različno obravnavo nekaterih oseb zaradi njihove posebnosti in pripadnosti stigmatiziranim skupinam. Gre za razlikovanje, omejevanje in izključevanje oseb oziroma za dajanje prednosti osebam na podlagi spola, starosti, invalidnosti, rase, narodnosti, etničnega izvora ipd. Pojma diskriminacija in marginalizacija imata torej tesne medsebojne povezave.

Pri učencih se v šolskem prostoru zaradi medsebojnega razlikovanja in diskriminacije pojavlja tudi medvrstniško nasilje. Lešnik Mugnaioni in Klemenčič (2014) ga definirata kot nedovoljen vstop v prostor telesne, socialne, čustvene, spolne in duhovne nedotakljivosti vrstnika. Vrstniško nasilje nelegitimno in na silo posega v otrokovo nedotakljivost in dostojanstvo. O vrstniškem nasilju govori tudi Olewus (1995), ki ga opisuje kot daljšo in večkratno izpostavljenost agresivnemu

vedenju oziroma negativnim dejanjem, povzročnim s strani vrstnika ali skupine učencev. Za vrstniško nasilje je značilno neravnotežje moči, saj močnejši od vzame pravice šibkejšemu. Pušnik (1999) v tem kontekstu navaja tudi angleški izraz bullying, ki vključuje posebne oblike nasilja med učenci v šolskem prostoru. Pri tem gre za trpinčenje, ki ga mladostniki izvajajo v obliki zasmehovanja, izključevanja iz skupin, nadlegovanja, skrivanja potrebsčin, brcanja itd., torej tudi v obliki marginalizacije.

Razrednik kot pomemben člen pri socialnem vključevanju marginaliziranih skupin učencev

Izključevanje drugačnih učencev lahko prepoznamo na ravni šole, še bolj specifično pa v oddelčni skupnosti, saj tam učenci skupaj preživijo veliko časa in so odnosi bolj poglobljeni. Ker gre za socialni prostor, ki ga Programske smernice (2005) opisujejo kot prostor, v katerem se vrši socializacijska funkcija in v katerem se ustvarjajo pogoji za doseg optimalnega razvoja otrok ne glede na spol, socialno-ekonomski status, narodno pripadnost, veroizpoved ter telesno in duševno konstitucijo, ima razrednik pomembno vlogo pri zagotavljanju enake obravnave vseh učencev.

»Razrednik vodi delo oddelčnega učiteljskega zbora, analizira vzgojne in učne rezultate oddelka, skrbi za reševanje vzgojnih in učnih problemov posameznih učencev, vajencev oziroma dijakov, sodeluje s starši in šolsko svetovalno službo, odloča o vzgojnih ukrepih ter opravlja druge naloge v skladu z zakonom« (Zakon o organizaciji in financiranju vzgoje in izobraževanja, 1996, čl. 68). Skrb za reševanje vzgojnih in učnih problemov posameznih učencev, ki jo Zakon o organizaciji in financiranju vzgoje in izobraževanja (1996) opredeljuje kot nalogo razrednika, se posebej tiče marginaliziranih učencev, saj mora razrednik s svojim ravnanjem in vzgajanjem vse učence pripraviti na enakopravno sprejemanje vseh članov oddelčne skupnosti. Naloga razrednika, ki je vodja oddelčne skupnosti, je torej skrb, da se vsi učenci, tudi tisti, ki se od večine razlikujejo, počutijo sprejete in varne. Z različnimi strategijami in posegi mora poskrbeti za nemoteno in usklajeno delovanje oddelčne skupnosti.

Pečjak in Košir (2002) navajata, da je za uspešno vključevanje potrebna udeležba vseh: učenca s težavami, učitelja in sošolcev. Pri delu s socialno izključenim učencem so potrebni ukrepi na ravni posameznika in ravni razreda. Kot pomemben element pri socialnem vključevanju nesprejetih učencev pa avtorici navajata pomen učiteljevega vedenja, ki predstavlja model za vse učence. Avtorici prav tako

poudarjata, da so ukrepi za pomoč socialno nesprejetim učencem odvisni od vzroka nesprejetosti.

Kot ukrepe proti socialni izključenosti otrok z nižjim socialno-ekonomskim statusom Košak Babuder (2006) navaja trening socialnih spretnosti, ki je namenjen tako marginaliziranim otrokom kot njihovim vrstnikom, izpostavljanje močnih področij učencev in omogočanje pristočasnih dejavnosti v okviru šole, ki ne zahtevajo denarnih stroškov.

Vižintin (2014) je za potrebe vključevanja učencev priseljencev, ki so dandanes zelo aktualna marginalizirana skupina, oblikovala Model medkulturne vzgoje, ki bi omogočil učinkovitejše in uspešnejše vključevanje v vzgojno-izobraževalni proces. Navaja sedem vidikov, ki nam skupaj omogočajo uspešno vključitev marginaliziranega učenca v proces vzgoje in izobraževanja. To so: medkulturnost kot pedagoško-didaktično načelo, sistemska podpora, učitelji z razvijajočo se medkulturno zmožnostjo, razvoj zavedanja o večkulturni družbi pri vseh učnih predmetih, razvoj medkulturnega dialoga na šoli, sodelovanje šole s (starši) priseljenci in sodelovanje šole z lokalno skupnostjo. Model je lahko v določeni meri, če ga preoblikujemo za potrebe vključevanja drugih marginaliziranih skupin, uporaben za integracijo ne samo priseljencev, ampak tudi na primer učencev s posebnimi potrebami.

Razrednik lahko k vključevanju marginaliziranih skupin učencev v oddelčno skupnost pripomore na veliko načinov. Eden izmed pomembnih načinov je sodelovanje s starši in drugimi strokovnimi delavci. Skubic Ermenc (2010) v svojih ukrepih za vključevanje marginaliziranih skupin učencev (v njenem konkretnem primeru so to priseljenci) poudarja pomen vzpostavitve sodelovanja med šolo in starši, ki temelji na temeljitem pogovoru z družino ob prvem vstopu otroka v šolo. Vižintin (2014, str. 79) pa o tem piše, »da vsi učitelji spremljajo otrokovo vključevanje v razredno in šolsko skupnost. Razrednik spremlja načine sodelovanja s starši.«

Razrednikom se priporoča povezovanje z ustreznimi institucijami, ki lahko pomagajo marginaliziranim učencem in njihovim družinam, ter lokalno skupnostjo, ki lahko pripomore k ozaveščanju o različnosti. Razrednik ima veliko vlogo pri podajanju medkulturno naravnanih znanj ter tudi pri organizaciji in vključevanju otrok v treninge socialne spretnosti. Razrednik se mora o različnosti in o pojmi, povezanih z njo, čim več pogovarjati z učenci in poudarjati pomen medkulturnega sodelovanja ter sprejemanja različnosti. Ne glede na to, kateri otroci iz

marginaliziranih skupin se pojavijo v oddelčni skupnosti, lahko razrednik s poudarjanjem močnih področij učencev krepí socialno vključenost vseh pripadnikov oddelka. Pri svojem delu si lahko pomaga tudi s filmi in knjigami, ki opisujejo počutja drugačnih otrok. Killen, Rutland in Ruck (2011) navajajo primer predvajanja makedonske otroške serije *Nashe Maalo* (Our Neighborhood), ki promovira medkulturno razumevanje. S predvajanjem serije so pri otrocih ustvarili pozitiven odnos do pripadnikov drugih etnij, saj v televizijski stvaritvi nastopajo makedonski, albanski, turški in italijanski otroci, ki jih povezuje prijateljstvo. Ista gradiva pa lahko služijo kot pripomoček za razvijanje empatije do učencev, ki ne razumejo slovenskega jezika, saj lahko s pomočjo tujejezičnega filma razrednik učencem pokaže, kako se počuti prišlek iz drugega jezikovnega okolja. Vižintin (2014) ter Šetinc Vernik in Vernik Šetinc (b. l.) med drugim tudi poudarjajo pomembnost kritičnega pogleda na učni načrt in učna gradiva z vidika medkulturnosti.

Metodologija

Opredelitev raziskovalnega problema

Z raziskavo smo želeli preučiti:

- ali obstajajo statistično značilne razlike v lastni oceni usposobljenosti za delo z marginaliziranimi skupinami učencev, v količini med izobraževanjem pridobljenega znanja o vključevanju marginaliziranih učencev, v količini izkušenj z vključevanjem marginaliziranih skupin učencev in v količini dodatnega dela pri vključevanju marginaliziranih skupin učencev v oddelčno skupnost glede na delovno dobo, velikost kraja poučevanja in stopnjo poučevanja razrednikov;
- mnenje razrednikov o težavnosti vključevanja posameznih skupin marginaliziranih učencev;
- oceno uspešnosti posameznih strategij vključevanja marginaliziranih skupin učencev v oddelčno skupnost po mnenju razrednikov.

Temeljna raziskovalna metoda

Pri raziskovalnem delu smo uporabili deskriptivno in kavzalno neeksperimentalno metodo empiričnega raziskovanja.

Opredelevitev vzorca

Raziskava temelji na slučajnostnem vzorcu 381 razrednikov slovenskih osnovnih šol. Raziskovalni vzorec sestavlja 7,3 % razrednikov z delovno dobo do 5 let, 40,2 % razrednikov z delovno dobo med 6 in 20 leti in 52,5 % razrednikov, ki imajo nad 20 let delovne dobe. V strukturi anketirancev 44,4 % razrednikov službuje v kraju, ki ima manj kot 3000 prebivalcev. V kraju z med 3000 in 10 000 prebivalci poučuje 35,2 % anketiranih, 20,5 % razrednikov pa deluje v mestu, ki ima več kot 10 000 prebivalcev. Struktura sodelujočih je glede na to, ali delujejo na razredni ali na predmetni stopnji, precej uravnotežena. 58,3 % razrednikov deluje na razredni stopnji, 41,7 % na predmetni.

Postopek zbiranja podatkov

Podatke smo pridobili s pomočjo spletne ankete, ki smo jo posredovali na elektronske naslove slovenskih osnovnih šol.

Vprašalnik, ki je bil sestavljen za namen obširnejše raziskave, sestavljata dva dela. V prvem delu so demografska vprašanja zaprtega tipa, ki razrednike sprašujejo po delovni dobi, velikosti kraja, v katerem poučujejo, in stopnji poučevanja. Drugi sklop vprašanj je sestavljen iz petih vprašanj zaprtega tipa z večstransko izbiro ter treh lestvic stališč, pri katerih razredniki opredelijo stopnjo strinjanja z izjavami o marginaliziranih skupinah učencev, stopnjo težavnosti vključevanja posameznih marginaliziranih skupin ter oceno uspešnosti strategij za vključevanje le-teh v oddelčno skupnost. Za namen analize in rezultatov, ki jih predstavljamo v tem prispevku, so bila uporabljena štiri vprašanja zaprtega tipa z večstransko izbiro ter dve lestvici stališč, pri katerih razredniki opredelijo stopnjo težavnosti vključevanja posameznih marginaliziranih skupin ter oceno uspešnosti strategij za vključevanje le-teh v oddelčno skupnost.

Postopki obdelave podatkov

Podatke smo obdelali s pomočjo računalniškega programa SPSS. Za preizkušanje odvisnih zvez smo uporabili Mann-Whitnyjev in Kruskal-Wallisov preizkus.

Rezultati in interpretacija

Analiza povezav med delovno dobo, velikostjo kraja poučevanja in stopnjo poučevanja razrednikov s postavkami, povezanimi z delom in vključevanjem marginaliziranih učencev v oddelčno skupnost

Med raziskovalnimi vprašanji, zastavljenimi na podlagi teoretičnih spoznanj, nas je najprej zanimalo, ali razredniki z različno delovno dobo, razredniki iz različno velikih krajev in razredniki z različnih stopenj poučevanja v osnovni šoli podobno ocenjujejo svojo usposobljenost za vključevanje marginaliziranih učencev v oddelčno skupnost.

Preglednica 1: Razlike v lastni oceni usposobljenosti razrednikov za vključevanje marginaliziranih učencev v oddelčno skupnost glede na delovno dobo, velikost kraja in stopnjo poučevanja.

		ODGOVOR	\bar{R}	χ^2 / U	P
LASTNA OCENA USPOSOBLJENOSTI	delovna doba	do 5 let	204,29	$\chi^2 = 0,823$	0,663
		od 6 do 20 let	187,17		
		nad 20 let	192,07		
	velikost kraja	do 3000 prebivalcev	187,71	$\chi^2 = 0,736$	0,692
		od 3000 do 10 000 prebivalcev	196,65		
		več kot 10 000 prebivalcev	188,42		
stopnja poučevanja	razredni pouk	194,29	U = 16918,5	0,424	
	predmetni pouk	186,41			

Iz dobljenih izidov Kruskal-Wallisovega preizkusa (χ^2) in Mann-Whitneyjevega preizkusa (U) je razvidno, da ne obstajajo statistično značilne razlike v lastni oceni usposobljenosti za vključevanje marginaliziranih skupin učencev v oddelčno skupnost glede na nobeno izmed neodvisnih spremenljivk. Pričakovali smo, da bo z delovno dobo naraščala tudi lastna ocena usposobljenosti, vendar rezultati tega ne kažejo. Prav tako smo predpostavljali, da bodo učitelji v večjih krajih izražali boljšo oceno lastne pripravljenosti zaradi večje izpostavljenosti različnim skupinam učencev, kar se prav tako ne odraža v rezultatih, razlik pa ni niti med ocenami lastne usposobljenosti razrednikov, ki poučujejo na ravni razrednega pouka, in razrednikov, ki poučujejo na ravni predmetnega pouka.

V nadaljevanju nas je zanimalo, koliko znanja o vključevanju marginaliziranih skupin učencev v oddelčno skupnost so pridobili v času svojega izobraževanja oziroma kakšne so razlike v količini glede na delovno dobo, velikost kraja in stopnjo poučevanja.

Preglednica 2: Razlike v količini pridobljenega znanja v času izobraževanja o vključevanju marginaliziranih skupin učencev v oddelčno skupnost glede na delovno dobo, velikost kraja in stopnjo poučevanja

		ODGOVOR	\bar{R}	χ^2 / U	P
KOLIČINA PRIDOBLENEGA ZNANJA V ČASU IZOBRAŽEVANJA	delovna doba	do 5 let	211,14	$\chi^2 = 2,064$	0,356
		od 6 do 20 let	183,69		
		nad 20 let	193,77		
	velikost kraja	do 3000 prebivalcev	183,98	$\chi^2 = 2,762$	0,251
		od 3000 do 10 000 prebivalcev	190,57		
		več kot 10 000 prebivalcev	206,96		
	stopnja poučevanja	razredni pouk	204,70	U = 14607	0,002
		predmetni pouk	171,87		

Mann-Whitneyjev (U) preizkus je pokazal, da pri količini pridobljenega znanja o vključevanju marginaliziranih učencev v pouk v času izobraževanja obstaja statistično značilna razlika med odgovori učiteljev, ki poučujejo na razredni stopnji, in odgovori učiteljev, ki delujejo na predmetni stopnji ($U = 14607$; $P = 0,002$). Učitelji razrednega pouka menijo, da so v času izobraževanja pridobili več znanja o vključevanju ranljivih učencev v oddelčno skupnost kot predmetni učitelji. Takšne rezultate smo pričakovali, saj imajo po našem mnenju študenti razrednega pouka med študijem glede na učne načrte (Pedagoška fakulteta, 2017, Filozofska fakulteta, b. d., Fakulteta za naravoslovje in matematiko, b. d.) več poudarka na didaktikah predmetov, medtem ko študij predmetnih učiteljev bolj temelji na strokovnih predmetih. Razlik glede na delovno dobo in glede na velikost kraja nismo zaznali, čeprav smo pričakovali, da bodo mlajši učitelji (tisti s krajšo delovno dobo) poročali o več pridobljenega znanja na tem področju v času izobraževanja kot njihovi starejši kolegi. Vsebine, ki zajemajo pripravo bodočih učiteljev na vključevanje marginaliziranih skupin učencev v pouk, razen predmeta specialna pedagogika, iz predmetnika smeri izobraževalna biologija (b. d.), predmetnika dvopredmetnega študijskega programa nemški jezik in književnost (b. d.) in predmetnika študijskega programa razredni pouk (2017) niso eksplicitno razvidne. Vendar to ne pomeni, da se o teh vsebinah ne govori. Zaradi migracij in sobivanja različnih narodnih, verskih, rasnih skupnosti na istem prostoru se o vsebinah medkulturnosti pogovarjamo na vsakem koraku, tudi na univerzah.

Podrobneje so nas zanimale tudi razlike v količini izkušenj z vključevanjem marginaliziranih skupin učencev v oddelčno skupnost.

Preglednica 3: Razlike v količini izkušenj z vključevanjem marginaliziranih skupin učencev v oddelčno skupnost glede na delovno dobo, velikost kraja in stopnjo poučevanja

KOLIČINA IZKUŠENJ Z VKLJUČEVANJEM	ODGOVOR		\bar{R}	χ^2 / U	P
delovna doba	do 5 let		168,16	$\chi^2 = 4,350$	0,114
	od 6 do 20 let		182,64		
	nad 20 let		200,59		
velikost kraja	do 3000 prebivalcev		179,64	$\chi^2 = 6,563$	0,038
	od 3000 do 10 000 prebivalcev		191,49		
	več kot 10 000 prebivalcev		214,77		
stopnja poučevanja	razredni pouk		198,07	U = 16078,5	0,103
	poučevanja predmetni pouk		181,12		

Analiza odgovorov, s katerimi so razredniki ocenili količino svojih izkušenj, ki jih imajo z vključevanjem marginaliziranih skupin učencev v oddelčno skupnost, je pokazala, da obstaja statistično značilna razlika glede na velikost kraja poučevanja ($\chi^2 = 6,563$, $P = 0,038$). Pričakovali smo, da pri količini izkušenj, pridobljenih z vključevanjem marginaliziranih skupin učencev v oddelčno skupnost, igra veliko vlogo velikost kraja, saj imajo učitelji, ki poučujejo v večjih krajih, tudi več izkušenj z vključevanjem različnih učencev. Ta rezultat je najverjetneje posledica raznovrstnega prebivalstva, ki živi v mestih, kar posledično prinese tudi različne učence, ki so zaradi svojih drugačnih lastnosti pogosto marginalizirani. V manjših krajih pa je pretočnost prebivalstva manjša, zato imajo razredniki, ki tam delujejo, tudi manj stika z marginaliziranimi učenci, posledično pa tudi manj izkušenj z vključevanjem le-teh. Zanimivo je, da so razredniki ne glede na stopnjo poučevanja in ne glede na delovno dobo poročali o podobni količini izkušenj z vključevanjem marginaliziranih skupin učencev v oddelčno skupnost.

Razlike glede na delovno dobo, velikost kraja in stopnjo poučevanja pa smo analizirali tudi pri navedbah razrednikov o količini dodatnega dela z vključevanjem marginaliziranih skupin učencev v oddelčno skupnost.

Preglednica 4: Razlike v količini dodatnega dela z vključevanjem marginaliziranih skupin učencev v oddelčno skupnost glede na delovno dobo, velikost kraja in stopnjo poučevanja

KOLIČINA DODATNEGA DELA	ODGOVOR	\bar{R}	χ^2 / U	P
	delovna doba	do 5 let	184,79	$\chi^2 = 0,209$
od 6 do 20 let		189,57		
nad 20 let		192,97		
velikost kraja	do 3000 prebivalcev	191,50	$\chi^2 = 0,288$	0,866
	od 3000 do 10 000 prebivalcev	193,43		
	več kot 10 000 prebivalcev	185,74		
stopnja poučevanja	razredni pouk	209,45	U = 13553	0,000
	predmetni pouk	165,24		

Rezultati Mann-Whitneyjevega preizkusa razlik so pokazali, da obstaja statistično značilna razlika ($U = 13553$, $P = 0,000$) v mnenju o količini dodatnega dela glede na učiteljevo stopnjo poučevanja. Marginalizirani učenci razrednikom na razredni stopnji predstavljajo več dodatnega dela kot učiteljem predmetnega pouka. Takšni rezultati so bili pričakovani, saj imajo učitelji razrednega pouka večjo vlogo pri uvajanju učencev v širšo socialno skupnost in navajanje na družbena pravila. V Učnem načrtu spoznavanja okolja (2011), ki se kot predmet pojavi v prvem triletju osnovne šole, sta kot splošna cilja predmeta opredeljena razumevanje okolja in razvijanje spoznavnega področja. »Ob tem se razvija odnos do dejstev, strpnost do negotovosti, odprtost za sprejemanje tujih zamisli in občutljivost za dogajanja v naravnem in družbenem okolju. Zlasti ta občutljivost za dogajanja v okolju naj bi se razvila v zavedanje o pomembnosti človekovega premišljenega ravnanja tako v medosebnih kot družbenih odnosih, v razvijanju strpnosti do drugačnih in upoštevanje načela enakosti med spoloma (socialne in državljanske kompetence)« (Učni načrt. Spoznavanje okolja, 2011, str. 5). Iz tega je razvidno, da učitelji razrednega pouka učence poglobljeno pripravljajo na principe delovanja družbe, saj le-ti pridejo iz družine v širšo socialno skupnost (oddelčno skupnost) in se s temi principi v primerjavi s starejšimi učenci šele spoznavajo. Zanimivo je, da razredniki iz večjih krajev, kjer poročajo o več izkušnjah z vključevanjem marginaliziranih skupin učencev v oddelčno skupnost, poročajo o podobni količini dodatnega dela kot razredniki iz manjših krajev. Razlika tudi ni bila statistično značilna med učitelji z različno dolžino delovne dobe.

Analiza težavnosti vključevanja posameznih marginaliziranih skupin

Na podlagi teoretskih opredelitev, da marginalizirane skupine opredeljujemo kot robne družbene skupine (Trbanc, 2003), smo analizirali tudi, ali razredniki zaznavajo razlike v težavnosti vključevanja različnih marginaliziranih skupin v oddelčno skupnost.

Preglednica 5: Rang, najmanjša in največja vrednost, aritmetična sredina, standardni odklon, koeficient asimetrije in koeficient sploščenosti za težavnost vključevanja različnih skupin marginaliziranih učencev v oddelčno skupnost

SKUPINE								
RANG	MARGINALIZIRANIH UČENCEV	N	min	max	M	SD	KA	KS
1	učenci iz drugih kulturnih okolij (druge rasne, etnične in verske pripadnosti)	381	1	5	3,45	0,969	-0,298	-0,522
2	učenci s posebnimi potrebami	381	1	5	3,40	0,836	-0,569	-0,342
3	učenci z odstopajočimi socialnimi razmerami	381	1	5	3,34	0,945	-0,240	-0,432

Rezultati osnovne deskriptivne statistike so pokazali, da se pri vseh treh marginaliziranih skupinah učencev pojavlja odgovor razrednikov, da posamezne skupine zelo lahko in zelo težko vključujejo v oddelčno skupnost (pojavljajo se vrednosti od 1 do 5). Pri vseh treh skupinah lahko zasledimo, da je koeficient asimetrije negativen, kar pomeni, da je krivulja usmerjena v levo. Iz tega je razvidno, da obstaja več odgovorov, ki pravijo, da je težavnost vključevanja marginaliziranih učencev v oddelčno skupnost precej visoka. Prav tako je pri vseh treh skupinah marginaliziranih učencev negativen tudi koeficient sploščenosti, kar pomeni, da je krivulja sploščena in so vrednosti nižje od normalne porazdelitve. Največja vrednost aritmetične sredine ($M = 3,45$) se pojavlja pri učencih iz drugih kulturnih okolij, kar pomeni, da razredniki to skupino marginaliziranih učencev po lastnem mnenju najtežje vključujejo v oddelčno skupnost. Najnižja vrednost aritmetične sredine ($M = 3,34$) se pojavlja pri učencih, ki bivajo v odstopajočih socialnih razmerah. Dobljeni rezultati kažejo na to, da razrednikom največ težav pri vključevanju predstavljajo jezikovne, verske, etnične in rasne ovire, medtem ko socialni status učenca nima takšnega vpliva pri zaznavanju težavnosti vključevanja učencev v oddelčno skupnost. Verjetno lahko del tega pripišemo tudi številčnejšim izkušnjam, ki jih imajo učitelji z vključevanjem učencev z nižjim socialno-ekonomskim statusom, in manj predsodkom, ki se pojavljajo v družbi.

Analiza ocen uspešnosti strategij vključevanja marginaliziranih skupin učencev v oddelčno skupnost

Za namen postavljanja smernic glede možnosti razrednikov za uspešnejše vključevanje marginaliziranih učencev v oddelčno skupnost nas je zanimalo, katere strategije razredniki prepoznajajo kot manj in katere kot bolj učinkovite.

Preglednica 6: Ranžirna vrsta strategij vključevanja marginaliziranih učencev v oddelčno skupnost glede na uspešnost

RANG	M	STRATEGIJA
1	4,21	Spodbujanje učencev, da v šolo prinesejo predmet, ki jih spominja na njihovo kulturo. Tako lahko marginalizirani učenci ostalim predstavijo svojo kulturo.
2	4,10	Omogočanje, da učenci iz drugega jezikovnega okolja sošolce naučijo pesmico v svojem jeziku.
3	4,09	Formiranje raznolikih in vedno drugačnih skupin pri skupinskem delu, da imajo vsi učenci možnost socialnega stika z marginaliziranimi učenci.
4	4,02	Vključevanje marginaliziranih učencev v interesne in druge dejavnosti v programu šole, da spodbudimo druženje s sošolci.
5	3,97	Ogled filma, ki obravnava problematiko socialnega vključevanja marginaliziranih otrok v skupine, kjer imajo učenci uvid v čustva in mišljenje teh otrok.
6	3,93	Predstavitev različnih veroizpovedi v razredu in omogočanje učencem drugačne veroizpovedi, da sodelujejo pri predstavitvi svoje vere.
7	3,89	Vključevanje marginaliziranih učencev v jutranje varstvo in podaljšano bivanje, da spodbudimo druženje s sošolci.
8	3,82	Dodajanje knjig za domače branje o prijateljih drugačne verske/etnične/rasne pripadnosti, da učenci dobijo uvid v čustva in mišljenje teh otrok.
9	3,60	Določanje marginaliziranih učencev za svoje pomočnike in s tem dodeljevanje pomembne funkcije, zaradi česar te učence sošolci sprejmejo medse.
10	3,41	Organiziranje čajank oziroma druženj, kamor povabimo starše in otroke, da se družijo ter tako spletejo socialne vezi, ki vodijo k socialnemu vključevanju.
11	3,20	Uvedba sistema nudenja pomoči marginaliziranemu učencem. Vsak učenec, ki na kakršen koli način pomaga marginaliziranemu učencu, dobi žeton. Ob določenem številu žetonov je učenec nagrajen.

Izmed izbranih strategij, ki smo jih izluščili iz modela medkulturne vzgoje in izobraževanja (Vižintin, 2014) ter nekatere preoblikovali oziroma dodali, so anketirani razredniki najvišje ocenili strategijo, ki predvideva spodbujanje učencev, da v šolo prinesejo predmet, ki jih spominja na njihovo kulturo – aritmetična sredina te strategije znaša 4,21. Učitelji so prav tako zelo dobro ocenili omogočanje, da učenci iz drugega jezikovnega okolja sošolce naučijo pesmico v svojem jeziku – ta strategija je imela aritmetično sredino 4,10. Prvi dve strategiji sta si dokaj podobni, saj obe spodbujata, da marginalizirani učenci predstavijo del sebe (del svoje kulture

v prvem in jezika v drugem primeru). Kot tretja najuspešnejša strategija, ki je z aritmetično sredino 4,09 takoj sledila drugouvrščeni, se je po mnenju razrednikov izkazalo formiranje raznolikih in vedno drugačnih skupin pri skupinskem delu, da imajo vsi učenci možnost socialnega stika z drugimi. Pričakovali smo, da bo ta strategija med razredniki manj sprejeta in da bodo razredniki kot uspešnejše strategije ocenili tiste, ki spodbujajo razvoj empatije do marginaliziranih učencev. Presenetljivi so rezultati, da se je strategija, ki zajema organiziranje čajank oziroma druženj, kamor povabijo starše in otroke, da se družijo ter tako spletejo socialne vezi, ki vodijo k socialnemu vključevanju, z aritmetično sredino 3,41 izkazala za manj uspešno, saj je v ranžirni vrsti uspešnosti strategij pristala na predzadnjem mestu. Po mnenju sodelujočih se je kot najslabša strategija izkazala uvedba nudenja pomoči marginaliziranim učencem s sistemom nagrajevanja, kjer vsak učenec, ki na kakršen koli način pomaga marginaliziranemu učencu, dobi žeton. Razlogi za neučinkovitost strategije se po našem mnenju in mnenju sodelujočih, ki so poleg ocene te strategije to tudi pojasnili, skriva v problematiki nagrajevanja. S tem, ko učenca za pomoč marginaliziranemu vrstniku nagradimo, pri učencu ne razvijamo empatije, temveč željo po nagradi.

Sklep

V raziskavi smo ugotovili, da statistično značilne razlike v lastni oceni usposobljenosti za vključevanje marginaliziranih skupin učencev glede na delovno dobo, velikost kraja in stopnjo poučevanja, ne obstajajo. To pomeni, da se nobena izmed spremenljivk pomembno ne povezuje z lastno oceno usposobljenosti razrednikov za vključevanje marginaliziranih učencev. Ugotovili pa smo, da razredniki na razredni stopnji menijo, da so med študijem pridobili več znanja o vključevanju marginaliziranih učencev v oddelčno skupnost kot razredniki na predmetni stopnji. Rezultati so tudi pokazali, da pri količini pridobljenih izkušenj z delom z marginaliziranimi skupinami učencev igra pomembno vlogo velikost kraja, v katerem razredniki poučujejo. Razredniki, ki delujejo v večjih krajih, imajo tudi več izkušenj z vključevanjem marginaliziranih učencev. Med drugim je raziskava pokazala, da razredniki na predmetni stopnji zase ocenjujejo, da jim priprava na delo z marginaliziranimi učenci vzame manj časa kot to zase ocenjujejo razredniki na razredni stopnji. Razredniki, ki delujejo na razredni stopnji, torej ocenjujejo, da imajo več dodatnega dela s pripravo na delo z marginaliziranimi učenci.

Ko govorimo o različnih skupinah marginaliziranih učencev in težavnosti njihovega vključevanja v oddelčno skupnost, smo ugotovili, da razredniki menijo, da najtežje

vključujejo učence iz drugih kulturnih okolij, najlažje pa se jim zdi vključevanje učencev, ki bivajo v odstopajočih socialnih razmerah.

Ker je razrednik ključni element pri vključevanju marginaliziranih učencev v oddelčno skupnost, mora izoblikovati strategije, da bo omogočil okoliščine, v katerih bodo vsi učenci dobro vključeni v oddelčno skupnost. Z raziskavo smo zato želeli ugotoviti, kakšna so mnenja razrednikov o uspešnosti posameznih strategij za vključevanje marginaliziranih skupin učencev v oddelčno skupnost. Rezultati so pokazali, da se je kot najuspešnejša strategija pokazala spodbujanje učencev, da v šolo prinesejo predmet, ki jih spominja na njihovo kulturo, in s tem lahko marginalizirani učenci svojim vrstnikom predstavijo svojo kulturo. Na zadnjem mestu pa je pristala strategija, ki temelji na sistemu nagrajevanja, ko učenci z nudenjem pomoči marginaliziranim vrstnikom zbirajo žetone, ki jim sledi nagrada.

Prav tako smo ugotovili, da imajo razredniki različna mnenja o različnih strategijah, pri čemer razlike med ocenami posameznih strategij niso zelo velike. Zato bi bilo smiselno, da bi bili razredniki opolnomočeni s čim večjim naborom strategij za delo z učenci iz marginaliziranih skupin, saj bi na podlagi obširnejšega nabora strategij lažje izbrali takšno, ki bi ustrezala njim in delu v njihovi oddelčni skupnosti.

Summary

A class teacher has a very important role in the process of education. Student diversity is one of the challenges he/she faces at work. Diversity is a result of the various religious, racial and ethnic groups to which students belong, as well as of special needs status and the socio-economic status of students' families. All of the differences listed above may lead to marginalization at the school level and even more at the class level, where students spend most of their time in contact with one another. It often happens that students who are different from the majority are pushed aside. We can talk about segregation here. Peers react differently to diversity. In most cases, being different is something unwanted, and that is why students seen as 'different' are stigmatized. Goffman (1984) describes social stigma as a particular response of the environment to what is perceived as 'different'. Stereotypes and discrimination are terms closely connected to stigmatization. Manstead and Hewstone (1995) define stereotypes as degrading standpoints, negative emotions or hostile or discriminatory behaviour of a person towards others who belong to a particular social group. Šetinc Vernik and Vernik Šetinc (n.d.) understand discrimination as putting stereotypes into action.

Three hundred and eighty-one class teachers in Slovene schools were included in the survey. We found that neither the working age, the size of the place where teachers work nor the level of teaching are correlated with the self-evaluation of class teachers about the degree of qualification needed to integrate marginalized students. When talking about the amount of knowledge needed for integrating marginalized students into the class, we found that those who teach classes from the first to the fifth grade have acquired more competence in integrating marginalized students than those who teach the grades from six to nine. We believe that the reason is the higher number of pedagogical subjects that are included in the curriculum. The data analysis showed that teachers from larger towns have more experience with integrating marginalized students. The reason for this is probably the greater flow of people in big towns and consequently a very diverse population. We also established that teachers in the grades from one to five spend more time planning lessons for marginalized students than those who teach in higher grades. These results were expected, given the fact that teachers in lower grades have a greater role in teaching socialization skills than do teachers in higher grades. In the survey we asked class teachers about the difficulty of integrating particular marginalized groups. We found that class teachers have the most problems when integrating students from different cultural backgrounds, and the least difficulties when integrating those who live in disadvantaged social conditions. The research shows that teachers mainly evaluated the proposed strategies as very successful. Class teachers gave first place to the strategy that motivates students to bring an object that reminds them of their culture to school. Next in line is the strategy where students from a different language environment teach their school friends a song in their first language. Then there is the strategy of forming diverse and ever-changing groups for teamwork. Students thus have the chance to communicate with others. The worst strategy was the one that suggests offering help to marginalized students by a reward system, meaning that any student who helps a marginalized student receives a token. After accumulating a certain number of tokens, the student receives an award. We assume that the strategy was reviewed as undesirable because it involves trying to buy affection towards marginalized peers. Based on the research results, we conclude that it would be wise for class teachers to acquire as many strategies as possible for integrating marginalized groups during their formal education. That would make it easier for them to choose an appropriate strategy that suits the work in a classroom community and would consequently ease the integration of students considerably.

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Avtorici**Anja Smole, mag. prof. raz. pouka; MA**

Osnovna šola Kozje, Kozje 131, 3260 Kozje, Slovenija, e-mail: anja.smole1@gmail.com

Elementary School Kozje, Kozje 131, 3260 Kozje, Slovenia, e-mail: anja.smole1@gmail.com

Dr. Tina Vršnik Perše, PhD

Izredna profesorica, Univerza v Mariboru, Pedagoška fakulteta Maribor, Koroška cesta 160, 2000 Maribor, Slovenija, e-mail: tina.vrsnik@um.si

Associate Professor, University of Maribor, Faculty of Education, Koroška cesta 160, 2000 Maribor, Slovenia, e-mail: tina.vrsnik@um.si

THE CONTRIBUTION OF ART EDUCATION TO EDUCATIONAL TRANSITIONS

WOLFGANG WEINLICH¹

¹ University College of Teacher Education in Vienna, Vienna, Austria

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CORRESPONDING AUTHOR/KOESPONDENČNI AVTOR
wolfgang.weinlich@phwien.ac.at

Abstract/Povzetek The main purpose of this conceptual paper is to place selected areas of art education in parallel with educational transition. Thus, transition is associated with aesthetic behaviour and aesthetic biography, two notions that may represent two fundamental approaches to art education coined in German / Austrian / Swiss art education theory in recent decades. Both appear to be promising in regard to their potential linkage with transitional education. The study proposes a development in art education that includes and stresses an awareness of transitions; thus, we believe, art education holds great potential to contribute to successful educational transitions throughout early childhood education, kindergarten, school, university and the early phases of professionalization.

Keywords:
art education;
professionalization;
transitions

Ključne besede:

likovna vzgoja;
profesionalizacija;
prehodi

Prispevek likovne vzgoje k prehodom v vzgoji in izobraževanju Glavni namen tega konceptualnega članka je izbrana področja likovne vzgoje umestiti vzporedno s prehodi v vzgoji in izobraževanju. Prehod se tako povezuje z estetskim vedenjem in estetsko biografijo, pojmom, ki lahko predstavljata dva temeljna pristopa k likovni vzgoji, ki sta se v zadnjih desetletjih izoblikovala v nemški, avstrijski in švicarski teoriji likovne vzgoje. Oba se zdita obetavna glede možnih povezav z vzgojo in izobraževanjem na prehodih. Študija predlaga razvoj v likovni vzgoji, ki vsebuje in poudarja zavedanje prehodov. Verjamemo, da ima likovna vzgoja velik potencial prispevati k uspešnim prehodom v vzgoji in izobraževanju v celotnem zgodnjem otroštvu, v vrtcu, v šoli, na univerzi in v zgodnjih fazah profesionalizacije.

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Introduction

This study deals with educational transitions. Research on transitional education has recently been established as an important contribution to pedagogy. One example is the transition model according to Griebel and Niesel (2011), which is particularly relevant throughout elementary pedagogy, primary school, secondary school, university and even during the early phases of professionalization. In order to work, transition education requires the development of new concepts and cooperation from all involved. Transition processes comprise various levels. Initially, we can distinguish the level of the individual student, the interactional level and the contextual level of institutional and other frameworks. We will mostly rely on Griebel and Niesel's (2011) model in this paper; however, several other models of transition could also support our argument.

In recent years within the German speaking countries, new approaches in art education have dealt with how the position of art education in the entire spectrum of education and training could be secured and, if possible, enhanced. While highly praised in Sunday speeches, quite often art and music classes appear mostly irrelevant in daily competition with mathematics, science or language classes (Peez, 2008). Hence, art education theory should seek overarching approaches as a way to anchor visual or musical education for learners; certainly, such anchoring is not necessarily geared to fixed framework conditions for specific age groups. We do not want to overburden art and music classes with too high expectations. Yet, many of the new approaches in German art education theory do align with the statement that education aiming at personality development has become fact in our schools (Budde & Weuster, 2018). This also applies to transitional pedagogy, once we stop focusing only on those few prominent moments of school entry, school leaving, and so on. Thus, these new approaches to art education may be able to access precisely the same interfaces that are of concern to transition research.

Methodology

As elsewhere, the importance of transition is poorly understood within art education. Hence, the present study aims at initiating conceptual reflection. Overall, we enquire about potential linkage between art education theory and transition research. Our first research question asks what models of educational transition and art education could be placed in parallel (RQ1); our second research question enquires how their encounter could inspire pedagogy in theory and praxis (RQ2). Eventually, bringing together and combining scientific approaches from the fields

of transition and art education aims to serve practical purposes in the everyday procedures of schools and similar institutions. Given the paper's limited scope, we are unable to discuss our RQs comprehensively. Thus, within the results section, we merely depict three models as examples in order to initiate the proposed discussion within art education and education in general.

The model to represent transition research is the one coined by Griebel and Niesel (2011). The paper begins by taking two main components of this model under closer examination: Bronfenbrenner's (1981) ecological view of development and Lazarus's (1999) view of stress. Moreover, we add a fundamental anthropological view with Friedrich Nietzsche's praise of transition as part of the human condition. The two models to represent art education theory are the model of aesthetic education and the idea of aesthetic experience as a core element of art education. Both of these suggestions have been extremely fruitful within recent decades; yet, they are conceptions of aesthetic education and far from being fully realized in the classroom anywhere. Nevertheless, as conceptions, they can be analysed for their relevance to transition pedagogy. Within the field of aesthetic education, we also examine a contribution meant for early childhood education and, thus, applicable to any transition period in a person's schooling and training career.

The term training represents a prototype of transition education, both in transition research in general and within this paper. Training thus applies to education across all possible ages.

Results

Transition research

Transition as a basic human condition

„Was groß ist am Menschen“, (what is great about a man), says philosopher Friedrich Nietzsche, „das ist, daß er eine Brücke und kein Zweck sei“ (that is: he is a bridge and not a purpose). According to this idea, a human being per se is "a transition"; to be a bridge is what makes him/ her amiable, says Nietzsche (1907, p. 16) (W.Weinlich, Trans.). The Übergang (transition, bridge) might also be an Untergang (downfall). It always I, in a sense, since it ends the former; it ends what has been. For Nietzsche, however, to be human means to accept being a bridge / transition and to live this calling heroically (see Nietzsche, 1907, p. 16).

Within the context of this paper, we note that the classical problems of training linked with transition do not occur by chance and are far from heroic acts. The environment (contextual level of the transition model) of the learner changes, and within the new context, it is necessary to re-develop. Established structures, possibilities and routines have been lost or have disappeared; the conditions for ego development change with its environment. In this respect, transition periods can also be associated with anxiety, stress or overwhelming demands.

Transitions are life events that require coping with multiple levels of discontinuity, accelerate processes, stimulate intensified learning, and are perceived as significant biographical experiences of change in identity development. (Griebel & Niesel, 2011, pp. 37-38, W.Weinlich, Trans.)

On the individual level, we experience strong emotions as well as stress if a child does not succeed in establishing a secure relationship with a new caregiver or teacher during initial phases of new environments. It is thus necessary to create relationships between children and educators that foster security (see Griebel & Niesel, 2011, p. 19).

However, Nietzsche could help us to accept transition not only as a fundamental condition of being human, but also as a possibility, as a special potential. From this perspective, we should remember that transition can be a self-determined activity: a bridge is constructed, and a transition is created, and this bridge is like the human being in transition. For Nietzsche, transition is the longing of man (see Nietzsche, 1907, p. 19). At times institutions may have too little tolerance for the risk and uncertainty involved in transition and change, and consequently for adolescents who feel the need to re-create themselves continuously. This active component in transition -- which on an individual level might not follow the timeline of the contextual level at all -- could perhaps be valued more in the light of Nietzsche's thought. Furthermore, if transition is a human condition, living it out should be associated with gaining autonomy, and active participation of learners in designing their transitions should allow space for their choices, their success or their failure.

Transition and eco-psychological development

Urie Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Developmental Psychology from 1979 (1981) represents a milestone in transition research. The foundation of this theory is a basic scheme of behavioural research that constantly adapts the individual to changing environments. Bronfenbrenner describes the environment of the developing

human being in four layers, micro, meso, exo and macro systems, which surround the individual like concentric circles (Bronfenbrenner, 1981, p. 37).

A microsystem, according to Bronfenbrenner, is "a pattern of tasks and activities, roles and interpersonal relationships experienced by the developing person in a given area of life" (Bronfenbrenner, 1981, p. 38, W.Weinlich, Trans.). The first and most important microsystem is therefore usually the family; it is supplemented in the course of the first years of life by the microsystems of kindergarten, playground and circles of friends and, finally, by primary school. Adaptation to the environment is not the only factor in development; it is embedded in a network of interactions in the space of the microsystem. Mesosystems (Bronfenbrenner, 1981, p. 41) are also composed of several microsystems. The child's environment becomes increasingly complex. In the mesosystem, which spans the areas of kindergarten, school and friends, new interactions between teachers, friends, parents and parents of friends become decisive in the development of the child. The child itself is by definition actively involved in all these interactions. Exosystems (Bronfenbrenner, 1981, p. 42) describe areas in which the individual is not directly involved, but which have an influence; for a child, this would include, for example, the circle of friends of older siblings or the parental workplace. Macrosystems describe the "fundamental similarities in form and content of the systems that [...] exist or might exist, including their underlying worldviews and ideologies" (Bronfenbrenner, 1981, p. 42, W.Weinlich, Trans.).

Bronfenbrenner also mentions ecological transitions, "when a person changes their position in the ecologically understood environment by changing their role, their sphere of life or both" (Bronfenbrenner, 1981, p. 43). This approach crucially emphasizes reciprocity and dependence. Ideally, the child also plays an active role, but at the same time, the transition happens passively. In the transition from kindergarten to elementary school, the child enters a new sphere of life and changes their role in the space of the mesosystem: they become a schoolchild. Ecological developmental psychology is somewhat reminiscent of the fact that parents also have to change their role: they transition to parents of a schoolchild from parents of a kindergarten child (Grotz, 2005, p. 22). Interaction and dependence thus suggest that all those involved in the transition should, if possible, work together to co-design all the necessary changes. Bronfenbrenner claims that the development-promoting potential of the new sphere of life is more advantageous if the child undergoes a quasi-organic transition, meaning that certain people from the former sphere of life are also part of the new one (Bronfenbrenner, 1981, p. 201); or that actors in both spheres of life share relevant information and experience prior to the

transition (see Bronfenbrenner, 1981, p. 208, W.Weinlich, Trans.). This could happen, for example, when kindergarten teachers, teachers and parents know each other before the child enters school, and a rudimentary yet personal exchange can occur between actors.

Transition and stress

In transition research, much attention has also been paid to stress theory as it describes and depicts conditions of and reactions to stressful situations (Griebel, 2004, p. 89). In this context, Richard Lazarus's model is often used, which offers an assessment of how those affected play a central role in both stress experience and stress management. According to this theory, stress arises when the affected people test their internal or external resources or feel a degree of insufficiency. The affected person then perceives the adaption as stressful. Stressful adaptations can be perceived as challenging, threatening, or even as causing damage or loss. However, only a challenge can be associated with unproblematic development of the personality. Therefore, the first step in coping with stress is a reassessment of the situation (Lazarus, 1991 and 1999). For transition research, this means that the primary assessment of the child is decisive in determining how threatening or even damaging an over-demanding transition can be. The provision of additional social or human resources could absorb negative stress (Grotz, 2005, p. 30). Children are able to find this support if they can perceive and accept the adaptation as a positive challenge.

Transition as a co-constructive process

Since the beginning of the 1990s, there have been considerable attempts to produce a model of transition as a family event (Cowan, 1991). Wilfried Griebel and Renate Niesel developed a model at the Institute for Early Childhood Education (IFP) in Munich that adapts and develops these experiments. The ecological-psychological approach of Bronfenbrenner and the stress theory of Lazarus are taken into consideration. The authors define transitions as "Life events that require coping with discontinuities at multiple levels, accelerate processes, stimulate intensified learning, and are perceived as significant biographical experiences of change in identity development" (Griebel, 2011, p. 37, W.Weinlich, Trans.).

Griebel and Niesel view the innovation of their approach as having brought "the identity of the individual as experienced status, self-concept and localization of the self in one's own life story in connection with transitions" (Griebel, 2004, p. 93,

W.Weinlich, Trans.). Furthermore, this model strives to include all individuals involved in the transition, as well as their mutual relationships and interactions. In this respect, the authors succeed in laying a foundation for the successful design of educational transitions (compare Griebel, 2004, p. 93 and p. 119).

The model includes family members, educators, primary school teachers and all actors in the child's social environment. The main difference between parents and children compared to the educators, however, is that the former must actively go through the transition; however, the educators involved experience no change in their identity and play only an accompanying role. The parents have a dual role because they are both recipients of support from teachers, and supporters of their children in transition (Griebel, 2004, p. 121). Without involvement from the parents, there can be little feedback about the child's creativity. Therefore, for a positive transition, it is important to consider all actors in the social environment.

It is important to remember that transition is a process for which an exact time frame cannot be determined. The appropriate preparations for school enrolment, for example, must start in kindergarten; different individual speeds of adaptation must also be accounted for (Griebel, 2011, p. 118).

The children and parents must be able to adapt on three levels: the individual, the interactional and the contextual. The adaptation accomplishments can be understood as development functions. At the individual level, the development of identity takes place for both children and parents during school enrolment. The parental role changes based on the child's new relationships and interactions with new non-family actors. The parents must adjust to this individually and reinvent their role. Strong and ambivalent emotions, such as anticipation, insecurity, fear or curiosity, must be regarded as normal and require regulation by children and parents. The development or acquisition of emotional competences is an integral part of this process. On the interactional level, the task of the child is to build new relationships. Old relationships are sometimes lost, and often change. Loss and role growth both need to be mastered. School itself is in turn linked to the individual expectations of parents. Parents of the transitioning children are also challenged to build new relationships. On the contextual level, enrolment in school requires synchronization of family and school. Formal education and its curricula replace the forms, methods and content of kindergarten (Griebel, 2004, p. 123, and 2011, p. 119).

During the transition phase, previous experience and skills are mobilized and transferred to the new area of life. The co-constructive process brings existing experience, potential and development status into the new situation. Each child should have an individual and appropriate fit of requirements and conditions; a successful transition is crucially dependent on this. Therefore, communication and participation of all actors involved is conducive to a successful transition. Fig. 1 shows the co-constructive process schematically. Through communication and participation, parents and children jointly manage learning and development processes. The interactional level is re-evaluated (see Griebel, 2004, p. 125, and 2011, p. 37).

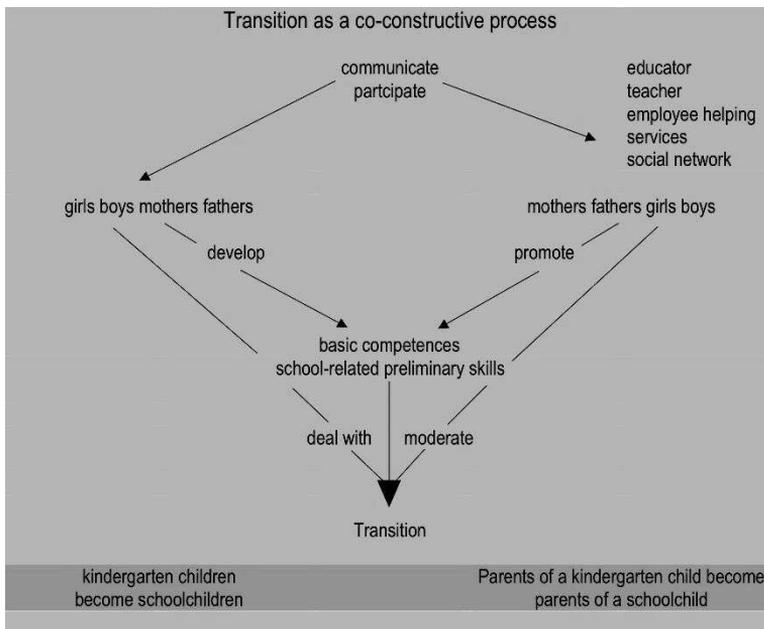


Figure 1: Transition as a co-constructive process (Source: Griebel/ Niesel, Transitionen, p. 120, W.Weinlich, Trans.)

Aesthetic behaviour and aesthetic education

Aesthetic behaviour

Aesthetic behaviour refers to the artistic creative process as well as artistic perceptions. (...) The aesthetic refers to objects and persons that are perceived separately because they exert a special charisma, appear beautiful, arouse pleasant

or different feelings and stimulate behaviour (Schurian, 1989, p. 126, W.Weinlich, Trans.).

An experimental, playful-exploratory form of behaviour exists, defined by distinct features. Schurian specifies that the reflexive level can only be reached in adolescence:

Children are often linked psychologically to the aesthetic, e.g. in terms of creativity and other symbolic activities (language, play). Sometimes the source of artistic creativity is also transferred in childhood by the arts (Hundertwasser, 1984). Nevertheless, childlike creativity is fundamentally different from aesthetic behaviour (see Masten, 1986, Harrington et al., 1987, Hammer, 1984, W.Weinlich, Trans.). The child - in continuous exploration of the new environment - uses creative, symbolic, instrumental and animistic behaviours. At this level, however, the child is unable to abstract from its behaviour and self-reflect. This is only possible in adolescence. (Schurian, 1989, p. 126, W.Weinlich, Trans.)

Aesthetic behaviour is thus manifested in many ways in both the productive and receptive form.

Aesthetic education

The task force of the Association for Art Education (BDK - Fachverband für Kunstpädagogik) has presented a model of aesthetic education, (Arbeitsgruppe Kunstpädagogik, 2009, p. B1 - B15) that focuses on an area of transition other than school transition, since it examines the toddler instead. Nowadays, many babies and toddlers will receive childcare from a very young age. The contribution of the task force argues that aesthetic education in early childhood is meaningful. This argument is placed in the context of elementary education, which now concerns day nurseries as well as day care centers.

The approach is based on aesthetic behaviour during early stages of childhood. The current consensus seems to be that "children have dialogue and make exchanges with their world from the very beginning" (ibid. p. B2). Within this exchange, self and world are interpreted, created, designed and contrived. The task force describes the aesthetic world-self relationship in the classical philosophical sense, but then also implies the active construction of self and world when it comes to aesthetic behaviour.

Aesthetic perceptions and expressions of children are differentiated, complex and dialogical processes of employment and exchange with oneself and the world. These processes are about encounter and resonance, about observing and interpreting, acting, marvelling and understanding. (Arbeitsgruppe Kunstpädagogik, 2009, p. B3, W.Weinlich, Trans.)

Aesthetic behaviour is thus the translation of world to the senses, and "at the same time, intentional, establishing sense and meaning, interpreting oneself and the world" (Arbeitsgruppe Kunstpädagogik, 2009, p. B2), while being a matter of both perception/creation of surroundings and identity. Hence, an educational accompaniment of aesthetic behaviour also makes sense at an early age. Aesthetic behaviour unfolds individually "in the interplay of reception and production" (Arbeitsgruppe Kunstpädagogik, 2009, p. B3). Therefore, aesthetic education cannot be limited to sharpening perceptions or learning specific techniques (painting, making music, dancing, etc.), but should endeavour to be relevant to the daily construction of the learner's self and world. Reception, viewing the world as material, begins with perception; handling and comprehension thus already include rudimentary production. Intrinsic processes take place at the same time: fantasy and sensation constantly link the self and the world in new ways (Arbeitsgruppe Kunstpädagogik, 2009, p. B5-B9).

In sum, actual aesthetic design processes result from reception and production processes. This result can be pedagogically manipulated or can happen spontaneously. It is up to educators to intervene in events, to stop processes, to encourage, or to steer in certain directions (Arbeitsgruppe Kunstpädagogik, 2009, p. B10 - B13). Section 4.1 discusses the linkage with transition.

Aesthetic experience and biography

Within art education theory, aesthetic experience is currently an important term that cannot easily be implemented in practice. The concept also has substance in terms of the transition theme. Georg Peez developed an elaborate argument to support this. This approach also succeeds in connecting art education to the existential experience of children and adolescents. For Peez, aesthetic experience begins with increased attention, which is aroused by special events or objects in the child's environment. These events involve the experiencer; they evoke a sense of immediacy and surprise and represent a discontinuity that breaks perceptual habits and everyday occurrences.

Aesthetic experience is thus also an experience of the self, combining openness and curiosity with meditation and emotional involvement and, ultimately, with an enjoyment of perception and pleasure. Aesthetic experience includes excitement, surprise and wonder. The experience of subjectivity and individuality in the aesthetic experience also involves stimulation of the imagination; the known and familiar is now mixed with new, unknown associations, before finally being reconciled with the existing interpretation of world and self, even before the child can relate this information to known cultural and artistic phenomena. Aesthetic experience is also a privileged starting point for one's own artistic production, which captures and communicates the experience (see Peez).

Discussion

Aesthetic behavior and transition: World and self

The aesthetic relationship of world and self tends to comprise ever changing aesthetic behaviour, according to the elementary school task force. It thus has a high potential for transition in the Nietzschean sense: "Observing children in their curious, adventurous and unconventional devotion to the world makes it obvious that children actively accept the challenge of life from birth: children are actors in their individual development, progressing within social and cultural contexts" (Arbeitsgruppe Kunstpädagogik, 2009, p. B3)

In the production process, "the active design of reality can be witnessed" (ibid.), including its growth and change. Aesthetic behaviour thus affirms and creates everyday transitions in exploring, re-comprehending and fantasizing, and in the everyday progress of early childhood development. In parallel, the procedures and praxis of art classes can easily be imagined as reflecting the individual growing into a new spatial environment, a new school, etc. Similarly, art and music classes may on a regular basis thematise the way we perceive/create the world, with the classroom acting as a token for the world. Learners could also reflect musically or artistically on how they gradually grow out of a framework, or gradually learn to create it.

Overall, aesthetic education's contribution to transitional education could be viewed as a didactic thematisation of transition, but not so much in the form of drawings of the learner in front of the new school building, but more as a constant reflection of the self in its changing relationship with its surroundings.

Perhaps, the task force's contribution does not sufficiently take into account that reception and production of the material world are also forms of communication. The world is always mediated by parents, educators and the media; thus, aesthetic behaviour remains embedded in interaction. However, this hardly represents an obstacle to a connection with the co-constructive transition concept and its emphasis on interaction. One possibility is to introduce group work into art classes. As groups, learners, could take on certain public areas of the school and classroom as their responsibility in the sense described above--by temporarily exhibiting the results of their work there, or even constantly adding to the design of these places. Performances or aesthetic actions/events could even become an endeavour for the entire class: for instance, the creation and maintenance of a recreational corner or organisation of a simulated fare.

Image imagination begins at a young age with the onset of the ability to draw; when thematising transition as a human condition in the fashion described above, various media corresponding more closely to the world of adolescents easily come into play:

It often happens that many children in the transition to puberty give up their ability to draw because their ability to represent does not correspond to their complex visuals, their communication and expression, so it is then worth considering whether the computer is a suitable tool, to bridge the discrepancy between representation and image concept. (Kirchner, 2003, p. 101, W.Weinlich, Trans.).

Media other than drawing may comprise SMS texts, smart telephone applications of photography and film, or computer applications. The interactive construction of self and world can be worked through in group assignments - as already stated - as well as within interactive media, starting with applications that enable users to re-design stock footage, and extending to interactive programming on websites such as <https://p5js.org/>, which give students the opportunity to practice their aesthetics through programming.

Eventually, even though thematising constant transition of self and world, aesthetic education, or simply art and music classes, provide continuity. Hence, art education offers itself as a permanent mesosystem, with changing protagonists, that deals explicitly with identity and the world. Aesthetic education could and should in that sense be institutionalised. The curiosity that seeks constantly to expand self and world could be re-evaluated in teaching materials and methods. In addition, the need to establish oneself in the world could be didactically re-defined with a focus on art and design skills. Fundamentally, the chance to practice drawing and painting

creates a permanence, for instance, in the transition from kindergarten to school, which children might not otherwise experience. In the context of the transition concept, it is generally advocated that children transitioning at the kindergarten and primary levels be supported in terms of personnel and location. Such permeability relieves the stress of the transfer, while supporting the transition to the new situation (Brandl, 2016, p. 272). Primary-level art education would be a formal breakthrough in terms of crossing the formal education barrier, as some preschool and kindergarten children were allowed to experience. However, beyond that, a structural commitment is certainly needed in order to anchor art education in the elementary education system. Relevant further training of educators can promote cooperation in practice.

Aesthetic experience and transition: Aesthetic biography

Over recent decades within German art education theory, a wide range of attempts have aimed to bring art classes closer to the real world and existence of learners. Aesthetic experience, even though a core notion of many attempts, is not an easy notion to concretize for art and music classes; as described above, aesthetic experiences imply authenticity; so, strong aesthetic experiences for today's youth would mostly be fostered by popular culture. At the same time, by means of copying from magazines, adolescents often enlarge their repertoire of image production; popular stereotypes, idols and icons become important symbols in complex and changing processes of identity formation (see Glas, 2016). Hence, art education eager to involve aesthetic experience must be tolerant of the stereotypes and preferences of learners rooted in popular culture as, for instance, represented by mainstream media or gaming.

One methodological concept, usually referred to as the aesthetic research (see Kämpf-Jansen, 2001), has found particularly widespread reception and application, even in primary education. The setting is process-oriented and similar to a workshop. Anything can become a subject of the aesthetic investigations learners set out to conduct. It is therefore common for the subjects of aesthetic research to have strong personal and biographical meaning. Learners may keep research diaries for their investigations, and thus develop a sense of aesthetic biography.

Aesthetic research projects could also be designed and set out for learners in a stricter form. Art educator Alessandra Nitsch, for example, gave learners in the eleventh grade the task to explore the forensics of the notion everyday life. The class collected footprints, arranged, photographed, and drew forensic details and

arranged small tours for presentation at the school (see Nitsch, 2001, p. 42). Such a method could be feasible for primary school or kindergarten.

Peez notes that bringing too much biography orientation into the classroom could risk "centring on the personal, subjective perspective," while "working on favourite topics and hobbies" (ibid.). Within the framework of this study, however, we note that especially in times of transition, a biographical approach could support the co-constructive process, since by constructing an aesthetic biography, learners practice cultivation and reflection of their own identity formation processes. Such practice and implicit awareness can only support learners in their ideal roles of being active participants in transition processes. Autonomy requires space to create experiences with one's own preferences, history and so on. Art and music classes could provide these spaces. Transition, on the other hand, would definitely be associated more with an individual rhythm of adaptation when linked with adolescent development in general.

Theoretical and practical implications

Possible fields of research (theoretical implications)

This study presents a series of theses to be either confirmed or refuted, both quantitatively and qualitatively. The paper at hand claims that art education based on the aesthetic relationship of world and self-construction (aesthetic behaviour) can assist children and adolescents in situations of transition, given its focus on the reception and production processes relevant for identity, particularly on the individual level. It also suggests that a biographical approach in art education might be supportive of transition, both approaches providing stability for children and adolescents in transition because of their emphasis on personal involvement and experience in our conceptualization. Obviously, a wide range of assumed linkages and possibilities could be investigated both qualitatively and statistically, for instance the link between identity formation and various formats of education, or possible effects of learners active participation in the design of new designs for the school or its environment.

The potential of art education on an interactive level has so far been only minimally addressed in a systematic fashion. Further conceptual work could thus aim to link interaction and transition in relation to art education, or to more detailed concepts

such as how, at the individual level, the reception and production processes, which have not yet become design processes, should be fostered, supported and taught. In an extension of the media spectrum, the present study has taken an initial step towards the art-pedagogical thematization of interaction. It may also be helpful to raise awareness or emphasize the communicative aspects of reception and production processes through didactic methodology. Experimental hourly designs or reports would be required to do so.

Cooperation and further education (practical implications)

As illustrated above, the co-constructive approach to transition aims at intensified collaboration among parents, educators and teachers. A change in the mesosystem implies a change in the constellation of caregivers. Additional human resources within the closer environment of the co-constructive process have proven to be stress relieving and to have a positive impact on the child (see Grotz, 2005, p. 30). The position presented here suggests that it makes sense to involve art education in this process. In this context, art educators and art education could create situations where, even during transition, the changing mesosystem can be consolidated (also in the sense of Bronfenbrenner).

These situations or spaces embody an organizational permeability of the boundary of formal education. At the transition from kindergarten to school, individual learning or competence acquisition is replaced largely by instructed learning and instruction (see Brandl, 2009, p. 272). Art lessons do not necessarily follow this categorization, especially not if they are based on the above-referenced approaches. As a result, institutionalized spaces of art education during the transition to formal education could assist in the challenge of transferring competences and developmental states into the new situation beyond the constancy of caregivers and routines, thus stabilizing and supporting the child, while relieving stress. In principle, art education extends the spectrum of forms of mediated knowledge, and aesthetic behaviour is a form of knowledge that should relate to childlike learning behaviour in both kindergarten and school curricula.

Institutionalization relieves the system of providing consistency in terms of personnel if constancy can be established in formal and content-related standards. The current instruments for this are training and further education of kindergarten teachers and teachers. In this context, the transition from kindergarten to school is largely organized within the private sector.

Consequently, measures and standards there are subject to considerable free competitiveness among ideas. Initiatives must therefore be supported at least privately, which in turn requires persuasion. In this situation, it seems almost necessary to rely on privately funded initiatives to provide art education spaces in the sense described here and in addition to those afforded by the existing micro- and mesosystems. Using this as a starting point, awareness work can be conducted, especially if such spaces could multiply in elementary education as well as the school domain through training opportunities.

Conclusions

All three models appeared promising for their potential link between art education and transitional education. Thus, ecological as well as sociological models of transition and an emphasis on stress avoidance seem to be generally advisable for future conceptual or empirical research in the field (RQ1). Against the background of changing ecological environments, art and music classes could constitute a mesosystem of their own, offering continuity even when art educators change. Aesthetic education, as a thematisation of the changing relationship of world and self, further contributes to transitional education by educating the concrete aesthetic perceptions/creations of spatial surroundings and environments. An emphasis on aesthetic experience in art education ultimately contributes to transitional education by educating cultivation/reflection of identity formation processes (RQ2).

Transitions are an important part of the *Conditio Humana*; in transition, we transcend life forms, roles, provisos and limitations, and as we grow older, we grow up. Educational transitions, however, are not determined autonomously but are largely determined at the contextual level. Participation in shaping education transition, however, is enhanced with the assistance of the co-constructive transition concept. Through participation and communication, children and parents jointly solve the adaptation and transfer challenges demanded by both. Educators and teachers in turn support the processes relevant to identity. Even in this extended environment of the co-constructive process, a general cooperative and communicative attitude is conducive to successful transition. The co-constructive transition approach includes art education as an equal participant in the pedagogy of transition.

The art pedagogy in the model presented in this work can be understood as a production of knowledge beyond specifications that are specific to the kindergarten or the school. As such, it provides stability in changing mesosystems. This stability

can also be institutionalized for mesosystems; for example, art-education spaces could be used in addition to and overlapping with the existing microsystems (school, preschool and kindergarten). Important impulses could also stimulate school and elementary education in these areas, thus creating the long-term prerequisite for art pedagogy to become cooperative at both the elementary and school levels in a meaningful way. Two approaches have been discussed in this context: art education as an accompaniment to the development of aesthetic behaviour, and the pedagogical focus on aesthetic experience and biography. Both approaches show great potential to provide an art pedagogical contribution to a pedagogy of transition. The theses put forward require empirical verification, but the relevant research questions are helpful in concretizing and establishing points of interest in the work.

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Author

Wolfgang Weinlich, PhDD

Professor, University College of Teacher Education, Grenzackerstraße 18, 1100 Vienna, Austria, e-mail: wolfgang.weinlich@phwien.ac.at

Profesor, Visoka šola za izobraževanje učiteljev, Grenzackerstraße 18, 1100 Vienna, Austria, e-mail: wolfgang.weinlich@phwien.ac.at

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Planinšec, J. (2002). Športna vzgoja in medpredmetne povezave v osnovni šoli. *Šport*, 50 (1), 11–15.

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