DIDACTICA SLOVENICA
pedagoška obzorja

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Vključenost slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje

POVZETEK – V okviru raziskav o vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v programe javnega glasbenega izobraževanja je bila raziskana povezava med izobrazbo in izkušnjami učiteljev kot tudi študentov glasbene pedagogike in njihovimi stališči do vključevanja teh otrok v javne glasbene šole. Cilj je bil raziskati, ali je nevključenost teh otrok v tovrstno izobraževanje posledica odnosa in znanja učiteljev/študentov. Obe raziskavi sta potekali v obliki anketnega vprašalnika, pri čemer smo odgovore na vprašanja odprtega tipa kategorizirali, odgovore na vprašanja zaprtega tipa pa obdelali na nivoju deskriptivne in inferenčne statistike s pomočjo programa SPSS. Ugotovili smo, da so tako učitelji kot študenti, ki se za učitelje šele izobražujejo, pozitivno naravnani do vključenosti takšnih otrok v javne glasbene šole, čeprav jim znanja s področja poučevanja otrok s posebnimi potrebami primanjkuje. Obe raziskavi sta pokazali potrebo po izobraževanju učiteljev in študentov na tem področju.

ABSTRACT – In the context of the two studies conducted on the integration of blind and visually impaired children in programs of public music education, the link between education and experience of teachers and students of music pedagogy was investigated with their views on the integration of these children into public music schools. The aim was to determine whether the problem of non-inclusion of these children in this kind of education is to be found in the relationship and knowledge of teachers/students. Both studies were conducted in the form of a questionnaire – answers to open type questions were categorized and answers to closed-ended questions were processed in descriptive and inferential statistics using SPSS. We established that both teachers and teacher students have a positive attitude towards the inclusion of these children in public music schools but lack the knowledge on how to teach the children with special needs. Both studies have shown that there is a need for educating teachers and teacher students in this field.

1   Uvod

V družbi je dolgo veljalo, da otroci s pomanjkljivostmi v razvoju ne sodijo v šolo, kar se je spremenilo šele z ustanovitvijo šol s prilagojenim programom. Od leta 1920 do 1960 je bila po svetu aktualna segregacija otrok s posebnimi potrebami, od leta 1960 do 2000 integracija, šele po letu 2000 pa tudi inkluzivna vzgoja in izobraževanje otrok s posebnimi potrebami. Šole s prilagojenim poukom so bile torej prve javne izobraževalne ustanove, ki so se ukvarjale z otroki s pomanjkljivostmi v razvoju ter njihovo izobrazbeno sposobnostjo in jim dale možnost obiskovanja javne šole. V Sloveniji smo se s to tematiko pričeli intenzivneje ukvarjati šele po izidu Bele knjige o vzgoji in izobraževanju v Republiki Sloveniji (1995), nato pa je postopoma prenovo doživela celotna šolska zakonodaja (Zakon o usmerjanju otrok s posebnimi potrebami, 2000). Trenutno je v Sloveniji 28 samostojnih osnovnih šol za otroke s posebnimi potrebami, v

katere je bilo v šolskem letu 2017/2018 vpisanih 11.077 otrok (Galeša, 1993; Brusling in Pepin, 2003; Krapše, 2004; Kesič-Dimic, 2010; Ministrstvo za izobraževanje, znanost in šport, 2018).

Izobraževalna politika je pričela spodbujati inkluzivno izobraževanje – kot način izobraževanja ljudi s posebnimi potrebami, skupaj z otroki, ki posebnih potreb nimajo, v istem učnem okolju. To pomeni vključenost, kot pojem socialne pravičnosti in enakih pravic za vse skupine ljudi. Glasba predstavlja pomemben estetski doprinos v življenja videčih posameznikov. Večinoma jim glasbeni programi predstavljajo rekreativno plat, ne pa tudi terapevtsko, kar je ravno nasprotno od stališč otrok, ki so slepi ali slabovidni; njim lahko glasba znatno pripomore k izboljšanju zdravstvenih težav, saj sluh postane pri njih nadomestilo za vid, pri čemer je pomembno vedeti, da lahko neustrezno izobraževanje otroka s posebnimi potrebami in nezadostna strokovna obravnava otroku povzročita nepopravljivo škodo. Ko otrok ne vidi, je odvisen od znanih glasov in izkušenj v interakciji s samim seboj in z drugimi. Zato je pri slepem in slabovidnem otroku ključna socialna podpora, ki ga ščiti pred negativnimi vplivi na njegovo duševno zdravje, znižuje stres in izboljšuje počutje, samozavest in samozaupanje ter daje občutek pripadnosti (Kersten, 1981; Heller, Swindle in Dusenbury, 1986; Sarason, Sarason in Pierce, 1990; Loots, Devise in Sermijn, 2003; Law idr., 2007; VSA, 2008; Thirumanickam, Raghavendra in Olsson, 2011; Starczewska, Hodkinson in Adams, 2012; Mäkinen, 2013; Topolovec in Schmidt, 2015).

Raziskav na področju glasbe, v povezavi z otroki s posebnimi potrebami, je malo. Še manj je raziskav na področju poučevanja glasbe slepih in slabovidnih otrok. Večina raziskovalcev ima namreč zelo malo ali nič izkušenj ali interesa za raziskovanje na tem področju. Razlog bi lahko bil tudi v tem, da se študenti, ki se izobražujejo za bodoči poklic učitelja glasbe ali inštrumenta s tem področjem v okviru šolanja ne seznanijo (Cloninger in Giangreco, 1995; Brown in Jellison, 2012; Engel-Yeger in Hamed-Daher, 2013; Devjak, Devjak in Polak, 2014; Kukanja Gabrijelčič, 2015).

Odnos videčih do slepih in slabovidnih je pomemben aspekt njihove integracije v redne razrede osnovnih šol in druge socialne aktivnosti. Še vedno je velikokrat tako, da otroci, ki imajo učne težave, sodelujejo v rednih razredih, slepi in slabovidni otroci pa so iz takšnih razredov izključeni oz. se šolajo drugje pod pretvezo, da za takšne otroke oziroma njihove specifične potrebe v splošnem razredu ne more biti primerno poskrbljeno. Kadar ima otrok pozitiven odnos do drugačnih, lahko le-to pospeši in olajša integracijo, ne pa jo ovira, kar so pokazale tudi mnoge tuje raziskave (Cloninger in Giangreco, 1995; Latt, Freriksen in Vervloed, 2012). Med drugim so pokazale tudi, da so tako otroci kot tudi odrasli, ki so imeli stik ali poznajo učenca s posebnimi potrebami, bolj pozitivno naravnani v odnosu do takšnih otrok, ne glede na to, kakšne težave ti otroci imajo. Pokazalo se je tudi, da dlje časa, kot so otroci ali odrasli preživeli z otrokom s posebnimi potrebami, bolj so bili odprti do inkluzije takšnih otrok in tudi sami so od tega veliko odnesli. Zato je potrebno posvetiti več pozornosti možnostim preživljanja prostega časa otrok s posebnimi potrebami ter skupnim dejavnostim v prostem času z vrstniki, še posebej z vrstniki, ki posebnih potreb nimajo (Kef in Deković, 2004). Pri tem je pomembno poudariti, da zraven vsega naštetega otroci potrebujejo tudi ustrezno vzgojno-izobraževalno okolje, bogato z glasbo in zvokom, v katerem bo učitelj lahko prilagajal svoje dejavnosti, metode, oblike poučevanja idr. sposobnostim in razvojnim značilnostim učencev (Borota, 2017; Mijanović, 2016).

Pedagoški študijski programi bi morali spodbujati pozitivno naravnanost študentov do inkluzije takšnih otrok, saj bi to znatno pripomoglo k sprejemanju učencev, kakršnih niso vajeni. Tudi učenčeva družina iz izobraževalnega procesa otroka ne sme biti izključena, saj le-ta predstavlja izjemno pomemben člen pri izobraževanju slepih in slabovidnih otrok, predvsem v psihološkem smislu. Podobno ugotavljajo tudi Nikolić, Blažič in Kodela (2016), ki navajajo, da so pogost vzrok neizkoriščenega glasbenega potenciala neugodne okoliščine in pomanjkanje družinske spodbude. Navsezadnje je zelo pomembno tudi sodelovanje učiteljev slepih in slabovidnih otrok s specialisti s tega področja. Dokazano je namreč, da so večinoma vsi učitelji, čeprav so sprva zavračali delo s slepimi otroci, se takega dela bali ali pa bili samo radovedni, do otrok s posebnimi potrebami postali bolj odprti, pozitivno naravnani, znatno pa se je povišal tudi njihov profesionalni nivo. Največji izziv za učitelje namreč izhaja iz njih samih, njihovih odnosov do različnosti ter notranjih vrednot in stališč do učenja (Cloninger in Giangreco, 1995; Latt, Freriksen in Vervloed, 2012; Mäkinen, 2013; Nikolić, Blažič in Kodela, 2016).

Glasba omogoča slepim in slabovidnim, da sodelujejo v aktivnostih z njihovimi videčimi vrstniki. V nekaterih primerih (npr. udeležba na koncertu, igranje v ansamblu ipd.) se slepi in slabovidni lahko celo poistovetijo z videčimi in z njimi komunicirajo kot vsi ostali, sodelujoči v socialni integraciji, kar izjemno pripomore k njihovemu občutku za pripadnost in enakost, glede na to, da so njihove možnosti za socialno in psihično integracijo z videčimi pogosto omejene. Pomembno je, da slep ali slaboviden otrok pri vključitvi v glasbeno šolo sodeluje s svojim videčim sovrstnikom. Ne le z vidika socializacije, temveč tudi zato, ker bo zaradi sodelovanja z vrstnikom imel večjo željo po uspehu. Slep ali slaboviden otrok namreč lahko doseže visok uspeh, čeprav na drugačen način, kot njegov videči sovrstnik. Za učitelja pa je predvsem pomembno, da ta način pozna in da mu lahko s svojim pedagoškim znanjem pomaga in ga lahko usmerja, čeprav zna biti slednje za učitelja težko in mu predstavlja izziv, je pa zelo nagrajujoče. Pomembno je, da učitelj obravnava vse učence enako, ne glede na njihove sposobnosti, socialni status, narodnost, vero ali spol. V svetu je, z razliko od Slovenije, uveljavljenih in uspešnih več šol in organizacij, kjer imajo slepi in slabovidni otroci možnost pridobiti glasbeno izobrazbo, notne materiale idr. (npr. Braille Institute, National Resource Center for Blind Musicians, The Academy of Music for the Blind, Kuopion konservatorio, Perkins School for the Blind, Miami Lighthouse for the Blind and Visually Impaired …) (Kersten, 1981; Tobin idr., 1997; Li, 2003; Mäkinen, 2013; Štemberger, 2013).

Slepi in slabovidni otroci imajo zaradi pomanjkanja vida bolj razvita čutila okusa, vonja in sluha, ker pa zanje v Sloveniji ni prilagojenih glasbenih programov, svojega čutila sluha ne morejo kvalitetneje razvijati, čeprav bi morda pri tem bili celo bolj uspešni kot njihovi videči vrstniki; le-ti imajo namreč v okviru javnega glasbenega izobraževanja velikokrat težavo, da se priučijo le vidnih zaznav (kot posledica branja not), ne razvijajo pa si tudi občutka za notranji posluh in estetiko, saj ne sledijo svojim osebnim nagnjenjem, temveč le temu, kar vidijo v notah. Da bi ugotovili, ali izobrazba in izkušnje učiteljev vplivajo na njihovo stališče do vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje, sta bili opravljeni dve raziskavi. V okviru prve raziskave – *Vključenost slepih in slabovidnih otrok v programe javnega glasbenega izobraževanja* (2014) nas je zanimalo, koliko je takšnih otrok (glede na izkušnje učiteljev), ali so učitelji v okviru študija prejeli informacije za delo z otroki s posebnimi potrebami

in v povezavi s tem, ali se jim zdi prav, da so takšni otroci vključeni v izobraževanje na javnih glasbenih šolah skupaj z videčimi otroki. Zanimala nas je tudi povezava med delovno dobo učiteljev in njihovim stališčem do izobraževanja takšnih otrok v programih javnega glasbenega izobraževanja ter povezava med delovno dobo učiteljev in izobraženostjo le-teh na tem področju. V okviru druge raziskave – *Vključenost slepih in slabovidnih otrok v programe javnega glasbenega izobraževanja glede na znanje ter stališča študentov glasbene pedagogike do dotične tematike* (2015) nas je zanimalo, kako to tematiko dojema generacija, ki se za učitelje šele izobražuje, ter poiskati morebitne vzporednice ali razlike med različnimi generacijami pedagoških programov in vplivu le-tega na stališča sodelujočih v raziskavi do raziskovalnega problema.

2 Metoda

Raziskava 1

Prva raziskava je temeljila na neslučajnostnem namenskem vzorcu učiteljev 10 slovenskih javnih glasbenih šol. V vzorcu je bilo zajetih 177 učiteljev, ki so v empirični deskriptivno-kavzalni neeksperimentalni raziskavi sodelovali od maja 2014 do septembra 2014.

Vzorec je zajemal 65 učiteljev (36,7 %), ki imajo do 10 let delovne dobe, 51 učiteljev (28,8 %), ki imajo 11−20 let delovne dobe in 61 učiteljev (34,5 %), ki imajo 21 let delovne dobe ali več.

Raziskava 2

Druga raziskava je temeljila na neslučajnostnem namenskem vzorcu študentov glasbene pedagogike Univerze v Ljubljani ter Univerze v Mariboru. V vzorec je bilo zajetih 40 študentov, ki so v empirični raziskavi sodelovali od junija do septembra 2015. Vzorec je zajemal 10 študentov (25 %), ki so končali 1. letnik študija glasbene pedagogike, 7 študentov (17,5 %), ki so zaključili 2. letnik študija, 7 študentov (17,5 %) 3. letnika in 16 študentov (40 %), ki so zaključili 4. letnik dodiplomskega študija glasbene pedagogike.

Obe raziskavi sta bili izvedeni s tehniko anketiranja (ankete v tiskani in tudi internetni obliki). Temeljna vprašanja v anketi so bila zaprtega tipa, podvprašanja pa zaprtega in odprtega tipa, pri čemer so bili odgovori na vprašanja odprtega tipa v analizi kategorizirani, odgovori na vprašanja zaprtega tipa pa računalniško obdelani na ravni deskriptivne in inferenčne statistike s pomočjo programa SPSS (različica 20). Podatki so analizirani in tabelarično prikazani z navedbo absolutnih frekvenc (f), odstotnih frekvenc (f%) in z χ^2-preizkusom.

Koliko so se učitelji v času svojega izobraževanja spoznavali s problematiko dela z otroki s posebnimi potrebami na splošno (v okviru splošne didaktike), s problematiko dela z otroki s posebnimi potrebami na področju glasbe (v okviru didaktike glasbe) in s problematiko dela s slepimi ali slabovidnimi otroki, je izjemno pomembno, saj nam daje uvid v učne načrte pedagoških programov na fakultetah in nakazuje smernice za prihodnje generacije učiteljev. Ker se učni načrti skozi generacije spreminjajo, je po-

membna primerjava učnih načrtov in znanja več različnih generacij, saj je le tako mogoče potegniti vzporednice. Prav tako je slednje zelo pomembno tudi, ker znanje lahko vpliva na učiteljeva stališča glede poučevanja takšnih otrok in njihove vključenosti v javne programe ter posledično tudi na osebni odnos do takšnih otrok.

3 Rezultati

Raziskava 1

Večina učiteljev se s problematiko dela z otroki s posebnimi potrebami na splošno v okviru študija ni spoznavala (84,7 %), niti se ni spoznavala s problematiko dela z otroki s posebnimi potrebami na področju glasbe (91,5 %). Tudi informacij za delo s slepimi in slabovidnimi učenci učitelji v času študija večinoma niso prejeli (94,3 %).

Večina učiteljev je pomanjkanje spoznavanja s problematiko dela z otroki s posebnimi potrebami komentirala kot problem, da v času študija nikoli niso omenjali ali jih seznanili s to problematiko, saj da na to temo ni veliko literature. Tisti učitelji, ki so v okviru študija to tematiko spoznali, menijo, da je problem tudi v tem, da je teoretični prikaz veliko premalo, da so se v času študija te teme le dotaknili, nekaterim pa je predstavljala zgolj del snovi na enem izmed izpitov pri pridobivanju pedagoško-andragoške izobrazbe. Mlajše kot so generacije, pogosteje se spoznavajo s to tematiko v okviru študija.

Tabela 1: Število (f) in strukturni odstotki (f%) učiteljev glede na delovno dobo v povezavi z izobraževanjem

		Problematika dela z otroki s posebnimi potrebami				Problematika dela z otroki s posebnimi potrebami na področju glasbe				Informacije za delo s slepimi in slabovidnimi otroci			
		da		*ne*		*da*		*ne*		*da*		*ne*	
		f	*f%*	*f*	*f%*	*f*	*f%*	*f*	*f%*	*f*	*f%*	*f*	*f%*
Delovna doba	do 10 let	14	7,9	51	28,8	9	5,1	56	31,6	6	3,4	59	33,3
	11−20 let	8	4,5	43	24,3	5	2,8	46	26,0	2	1,1	49	27,7
	21 ali več	5	2,8	56	31,6	1	0,6	60	33,9	2	1,1	59	33,3
Skupaj		27	15,3	150	84,7	15	8,5	162	91,5	10	5,6	167	94,4

Kot vzrok za pomanjkanje spoznavanja s to tematiko v okviru študija na področju glasbe so učitelji navedli, da pri študiju glasbe ta tematika ni v okviru rednih tem, da so se v času študija posvečali večino časa svojim inštrumentom in glasbi na splošno, ne pa tudi pedagoškemu delu oz. načinu dela z otroki. Le redki so v okviru študija pridobili tudi kakšne izkušnje s tega področja; le ena izmed učiteljic je v sklopu študija

obiskovala delovno skupino, ki se je nanašala na to temo in le ena učiteljica je v sklopu študentske prakse poučevala na šoli za otroke s posebnimi potrebami.

Tabela 2: Število (f) in strukturni odstotki (f%) učiteljev glede na delovno dobo v povezavi z izkušnjami poučevanja otrok s posebnimi potrebami ter slepega ali slabovidnega otroka

		Izkušnje s poučevanjem otrok s posebnimi potrebami				*Izkušnje s poučevanjem slepih ali slabovidnih otrok*			
		da		*ne*		*da*		*ne*	
		f	*f%*	*f*	*f%*	*f*	*f%*	*f*	*f%*
Delovna doba	do 10 let	20	11,3	45	25,4	0	0,0	65	36,7
	11−20 let	15	8,5	36	20,3	6	3,4	45	25,4
	21 ali več	14	7,9	47	26,6	2	1,1	59	33,3
Skupaj		49	27,7	128	72,3	8	4,5	169	95,5

Večina učiteljev nima nobenih izkušenj z delom z otroki s posebnimi potrebami (72,3 %), še manj pa je tistih učiteljev, ki so že kdaj učili slepega ali slabovidnega učenca (4,5 %). Ocenjeno je, da je v svetu okrog 285 milijonov ljudi slepih ali slabovidnih (World Health Organization, 2016), od tega je približno 19 milijonov otrok.

Koliko je slepih in slabovidnih v Sloveniji, ni točno znano, saj v Sloveniji registra slepih in slabovidnih še ni oz. je še v fazi priprave. Po podatkih je bilo v Zvezo slepih in slabovidnih leta 2010 vključenih 4.062 oseb (Zavod RS za šolstvo, 2012), mednarodne interpolacijske študije o slepih in slabovidnih pa sklepajo, da je v Sloveniji okrog 10.000 slepih in slabovidnih ljudi. Število slepih in slabovidnih otrok v Sloveniji ni znano, je pa v Zavod za slepo in slabovidno mladino letno spremljanih okrog 30, več kot 100 pa še mobilno spremljanih (Hafnar, b.d.). Edina javna glasbena šola v Sloveniji, ki izvaja program za otroke s posebnimi potrebami, t.i. izredni program, je glasbena šola Krško.

Tabela 3: Stališča učiteljev do vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje

		Informacije za delo s slepimi in slabovidnimi otroki v okviru študija				*Izkušnje s poučevanjem slepega ali slabovidnega učenca*			
		da		*ne*		*da*		*ne*	
		f	*f%*	*f*	*f%*	*f*	*f%*	*f*	*f%*
Stališče do vključenosti	da	7	4,0	119	67,2	6	3,4	120	67,8
	ne	3	1,7	48	27,1	3	1,1	49	27,7
Skupaj		10	5,6	167	94,4	8	4,5	169	95,5
Izid χ²-preizkusa		χ^2 (LR) = 0,007; P = 0,932				χ^2 (LR) = 0,061; P = 0,805			

Izid χ^2-preizkusa kaže, da razlika med izobraževanjem v okviru študija na področju poučevanja slepih in slabovidnih otrok in stališčem do vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje ni statistično značilna. Prav tako ni statistično značilna niti zveza med izkušnjami v poučevanju slepih in slabovidnih otrok in stališčem do vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje.

Zelo malo (1,7 %) je tistih učiteljev, ki se z vključenostjo slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje ne strinjajo in so bili s to problematiko v okviru študija seznanjeni. Še manj (1,1 %) je učiteljev, ki se z vključitvijo teh otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje ne strinjajo, pa so slepega in slabovidnega otroka že učili. Nekaj več kot četrtina (27,1 %) je učiteljev, ki se z vključitvijo slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje ne strinjajo in tudi niso bili seznanjeni s to problematiko v okviru študija, še malce več (27,7 %) je tistih učiteljev, ki se z vključitvijo slepega ali slabovidnega otroka v javno glasbeno izobraževanje ne strinjajo, pa izkušenj s poučevanjem takšnega otroka nimajo. Večina učiteljev se sicer z vključitvijo slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje strinja, ne glede na to, ali so takšnega otroka že kdaj učili (67,8 %), in ne glede na to, ali imajo s tega področja dovolj izobrazbe ali ne (67,2 %). Učitelji, ki se ne strinjajo z vključitvijo slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javne glasbene šole, so do slednjega negativno naravnani predvsem zaradi lastne neusposobljenosti in neizobraženosti za delo s takšnimi otroki, kar so v raziskavi poudarili sami. Menili so tudi, da bi jim poučevanje takšnega otroka predstavljalo dodatno (nepotrebno) delo in stres, pa tudi, da bi slep in slaboviden učenec v razredu z videčimi otroki bil vzrok za upočasnitev pouka.

Tabela 4: Stališče učiteljev do vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje glede na delovno dobo

| | | | *Delovna doba učiteljev* | | | *Skupaj* |
			do 10 let	*11−20 let*	*21 ali več*	
Stališče do vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje	da	f	44	35	47	126
		f%	24,9	19,8	26,6	71,2 %
	ne	f	21	16	14	51
		f%	11,9	9,0	7,9	28,8
Skupaj		f	65	51	61	177
		f%	36,7	28,8	34,5	100,0
Izid χ^2-preizkusa			$\chi^2 = 1,572$; P = 0,456			

Razlika v stališčih učiteljev do vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje glede na delovno dobo le-teh sicer obstaja, vendar je nismo zaznali na ravni statistične značilnosti. Vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje je najbolj naklonjena starejša generacija učiteljev oziroma tisti učitelji, ki imajo 21 let delovne dobe ali več.

Tabela 5: Stališče učiteljev do vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje glede na regijo/območje

		Stališče učiteljev do vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje (f%)	
		da	*ne*
Regija	Kranj	75,0	25,0
	Maribor	65,0	35,0
	Ptuj	73,7	26,3
	Lendava	33,3	66,7
	Krško	81,8	18,2
	Novo mesto	81,8	18,2
	Nova Gorica	76,9	23,1
	Celje	75,0	25,0
	Radovljica	80,0	20,0
	Ljubljana	55,6	44,4

Rezultati so prikazani zgolj informativno, saj so podatki, čeprav jih ni bilo malo (N = 177), variirali oziroma so bili neenakomerno razporejeni in razpršeni zaradi različnih velikosti glasbenih šol.

Najbolj negativna stališča do vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje imajo na severovzhodu Slovenije (Prekmurje) in v osrednji Sloveniji (Ljubljana), najbolj pozitivno naravnani do te tematike pa so na Dolenjskem in Gorenjskem. Sicer so učitelji v Sloveniji precej pozitivno naravnani do vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje, zato preseneča, da je teh otrok, ki bi bili dejansko vključeni v glasbene šole, zelo malo.

Učitelji, ki so naklonjeni vključevanju slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javne glasbene šole, so navedli mnogo razlogov za svoja pozitivna stališča; njihovi odgovori so kategorizirani in navedeni po pogostosti (K1 najbolj pogost, K9 najmanj pogost). Večinoma vsi učitelji menijo, (K1) da edini problem, ki se tu poraja, ni v učencu, ki je slep, temveč v učiteljih, ki s tega področja nimajo dovolj izkušenj, da bi znali prilagoditi učni proces, program in gradivo (zato za učitelje predlagajo več izobrazbe na tem področju). Kot razlog so navedli tudi, da (K2) takšni otroci zaradi svoje drugačnosti ne bi smeli biti zapostavljeni, temveč enakopravni, (K3) da morajo imeti enake možnosti in pravice za glasbeno izobraževanje kot videči otroci (med njimi se ne bi smelo delati razlik), (K4) da vid ni pogoj za glasbeno udejstvovanje in vključitev v glasbeno izobraževanje (temveč je pogoj sluh, posluh, talent in občutenje glasbe), (K5) da je svet glasbe dovolj širok, da si znotraj njega lahko vsak posameznik poišče nekaj, kar ga obogati, (K6) da je učitelj pri programu lahko fleksibilen in lahko pouk prilagodi učencu (sploh kar se tiče inštrumenta, saj je pouk individualen in omogoča prilagajanje), (K7) da bi tako slepi kot videči otroci s tem ogromno pridobili (slepim bi pomagalo na področju socializacije in na terapevtskem področju, videči pa bi se naučili strpnosti in medsebojne pomoči), izpostavili so tudi, (K8) da v glasbenih šolah primanjkuje improvizacije in igranja po

posluhu, pri čemer bi slep otrok lahko bil celo bolj uspešen od videčega (saj slep otrok vid nadomesti s sluhom in je posledično tudi njihova notranja muzikalnost širša ter je bolj dovzeten za glasbo), nekateri učitelji pa so celo mnenja, (K9) da bi se slep otrok tako lažje prilagodil življenju, čeprav se v osnovi takšni otroci znajo že zelo dobro prilagoditi okolju, v katerem živijo.

Učitelji, ki se za vključitev slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje ne zavzemajo, večinoma menijo, (K1) da takšni otroci ne spadajo v javno glasbeno izobraževanje, ker učitelji sami niso usposobljeni niti izobraženi za njihovo izobraževanje in bi to oviralo pouk drugih, nekateri učitelji so kot razlog zapisali celo, (K2) da vsak profesor tega ne bi bil niti sposoben, saj da se premnogi učitelji opirajo zgolj na predpisani učni načrt in niso dovolj odprti, da bi se lahko prilagodili potrebam takšnega otroka. Učitelji menijo, (K3) da bi takšni otroci v razredu upočasnili usvajanje programa, (K4) da bi to učiteljem predstavljajo dodatno in problematično delo, (K5) da takšni otroci potrebujejo več individualnega pristopa, čeprav že v osnovi nimajo enakih možnosti za uspeh (zato bi bili zanje bolj primerni posebni oddelki, ne pa redni, ker je učni načrt predviden za otroke brez posebnih potreb), veliko učiteljev med drugim meni tudi (K6), da bi takšni otroci potrebovali več časa in drugačen pristop/metode ter strokovno usposobljene učitelje zaradi njihovih drugačnih potreb in zahtev ter da bi potrebovali tudi primerne prostore za pouk, didaktične pripomočke in literaturo (ker obstoječa večinoma temelji na vidnih virih – note), (K7) takšni otroci bi imeli tudi težave pri branju not in pisanju na tablo, nekateri profesorji celo mislijo, (K8) da si takšni otroci zaslužijo specialno izobrazbo (kot je to urejeno na področju osnovnega šolstva) ter (K9) da bi jim problem predstavljalo tudi sodelovanje s terapevti za slepo in slabovidno mladino. Tukaj lahko potegnemo vzporednice z raziskavo Retar in Lepičnik Vodopivec (2017), ki sta preučevala kompetentnost vzgojiteljev za inovativno gibalno poučevanje ter ugotovila, da je najmanj razvita kompetenca vzgojiteljev "sodelovanje s športnimi strokovnjaki zunaj vrtca" (Retar in Lepičnik, 2017, str. 27).

Do podobnih zaključkov je prišla tudi Kukanja Gabrijelčič (2015), ki je v svoji raziskavi leta 2014, v katero je bilo vključenih 277 pedagoških delavcev (z različnih strokovnih področij), raziskovala kompleksnost problematike odkrivanja in dela z nadarjenimi učenci. Tako nadarjeni kot učenci s posebnimi potrebami morajo biti deležni posebne obravnave, zato je tukaj možno potegniti vzporednice. Ugotovila je, da učitelji čutijo veliko težavo v pomanjkanju didaktičnih pripomočkov, dodatnega učnega gradiva itn., da je stopnja informiranosti pedagoških delavcev na tem področju zelo slaba ter da se kaže velika potreba po dodatnem izobraževanju in strokovnem izpopolnjevanju. Učitelji, sodelujoči v tej raziskavi, so poudarili tudi, da je delo z nadarjenimi naporno in zahtevno, vendar po drugi strani polno izzivov in poučno, se pa zaradi svoje nekompetentnosti in strokovne neusposobljenosti mnogokrat počutijo nemočne (Kukanja Gabrijelčič, 2015).

Raziskava 2

Večina študentov se je v okviru svojega dosedanjega študija glasbene pedagogike sicer spoznala s problematiko dela z otroki s posebnimi potrebami (77,5 %), vendar te tematike niti polovica študentov (30 %) ni obravnavala v okviru glasbe. Manj kot četrtina vseh študentov (17,5 %) se je v času študija spoznala s problematiko dela ali poučevanja slepih in slabovidnih otrok.

Tabela 6: Število (f) in strukturni odstotki (f%) študentov glede na letnik in izobraževanje s področja specialne pedagogike

		Spoznavanje s problematiko dela z otroki s posebnimi potrebami				Spoznavanje s problematiko dela z otroki s posebnimi potrebami na področju glasbe				Spoznavanje s problematiko dela s slepimi in slabovidnimi otroci			
		da		ne		da		ne		da		ne	
		f	f%	f	f%	f	f%	f	f%	f	f%	f	f%
Letnik študija	prvi	7	17,5	3	7,5	3	7,5	7	17,5	1	2,5	9	22,5
	drugi	6	15,0	1	2,5	2	5,0	5	12,5	0	0,0	7	17,5
	tretji	6	15,0	1	2,5	2	5,0	5	12,5	2	5,0	5	12,5
	četrti	12	30,0	4	10,0	5	12,5	11	27,5	4	10,0	12	30,0
Skupaj		31	77,5	9	22,5	12	30,0	28	70,0	7	17,5	33	82,5
Izid χ^2-preizkusa		χ^2 (LR) = 0,811; P = 0,958				χ^2 (LR) = 0,026; P = 0,999				χ^2 (LR) = 4,226; P = 0, 238			

Izidi χ^2-preizkusov kažejo, da statistično značilnih razlik med letnikom študija in spoznavanjem problematike dela z otroki s posebnimi potrebami, dela z otroki s posebnimi potrebami na področju glasbe ter dela s slepimi in slabovidnimi otroki ni. Največ se s tem ukvarjajo študentje 4. letnika, najmanj pa študentje drugih letnikov.

Razlika med letnikom študija in stališčem do vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje ni statistično značilna. Vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje so naklonjene vse generacije študentov, ki v večini (okrog 70 % vsakega letnika, razen 4. letniki – 62,5 %) menijo, da bi slepi in slabovidni otroci morali biti v javno glasbeno izobraževanje vključeni.

Tabela 7: Stališče študentov do vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje glede na letnik študija

		Stališče študentov do vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje			
		da		ne	
		f	f%	f	f%
Letnik študija	prvi	7	17,5	3	7,5
	drugi	5	12,5	2	5,0
	tretji	5	12,5	2	5,0
	četrti	10	25,0	6	15,0
Skupaj		27	67,5	13	32,5
Izid χ^2-preizkusa		χ^2 (LR) = 0,308; P = 0,959			

Na študentova stališča do določenega problema vpliva več dejavnikov, med drugim tudi študentovo poznavanje problema. Zato so morali študentje v zadnjem delu vprašalnika rešiti tri naloge, ki so se navezovale na osnovno znanje o kriterijih, razvrščanju in uporabi učnih strategij, in sicer:

□ Naloga 1 – Obkrožite kriterije, ki jih upoštevamo pri razvrščanju učnih strategij

□ Naloga 2 – Obkrožite strategije, ki spadajo v kategorijo učnih strategij samo glede na namen

□ Naloga 3 – Katero izmed spodnjih strategij bi izbrali, če bi poučevali teorijo glasbe ali klavir slepega ali slabovidnega otroka začetnika?

Odgovori na zgornja vprašanja so bili zaprtega tipa, pri vseh treh pa je bilo možno obkrožiti več odgovorov. Kot odgovor na Vprašanje 1 so bili dani odgovori (pravilni odgovori so v poševnem tisku) "*namen učenja*", "*vsebina informacij*", "*kombinacija namena učenja in vsebine informacij*" ter "*časovni okvir*", nanj pa je pravilno odgovorilo le 5 % študentov, kar 30 % pa jih je na vprašanje odgovorilo z "ne vem". Pri Vprašanju 2 so bili dani odgovori "strategija določanja bistva", "*strategija ponavljanja*", "strategija branja z razumevanjem", "*organizacijska strategija*", "strategija ugotavljanja bistva", "strategija določanja podrobnosti", "*elaboracijska strategija*" in "strategija iskanja virov", pri čemer na vprašanje nihče ni odgovoril pravilno, z "ne vem" pa je odgovorilo 55 % študentov. Tudi na Vprašanje 3 ni nihče odgovoril pravilno (15 % jih je odgovorilo z "ne vem"), študentje pa so sicer imeli možnost obkrožiti naslednje odgovore: "*strategija ponavljanja*", "*elaboracijska strategija*", "strategija učenja z miselnimi vzorci", "*strategija učenja s poslušanjem*", "Paukova metoda" in "strategija podčrtovanja in označevanja", pri čemer je 37,5 % študentov odgovorilo delno pravilno – izbrali so strategijo ponavljanja ter strategijo učenja s poslušanjem.

4 Diskusija

V prvi raziskavi smo prišli do ugotovitve, da se večina (84,7 %) učiteljev v času svojega študija ni spoznavala s problematiko dela z otroki s posebnimi potrebami. Med tistimi, ki so se spoznavali z dotično problematiko, je največ učiteljev, ki imajo do 10 let delovne dobe. Slednje velja tudi za učitelje, ki so se s to problematiko seznanjali v okviru glasbe. Sicer je učiteljev, ki so se v času svojega študija spoznavali s problematiko dela z otroki s posebnimi potrebami na področju glasbe, še manj (8,5 %), zelo malo (5,6 %) pa je tistih učiteljev, ki so se v času svojega študija spoznali tudi s problematiko dela s slepimi in slabovidnimi učenci. Ugotovljeno je bilo tudi, da je vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje najbolj naklonjena starejša generacija učiteljev, čeprav ima večina (71,2 %) anketiranih do slednjega pozitivno mnenje. Do podobnih ugotovitev je prišla tudi Štemberger (2013), ki je leta 2012 opravila raziskavo, v kateri je sodelovalo 132 učiteljev slovenskih osnovnih šol, in v kateri je ugotovila, da se med učitelji največkrat pojavi občutek nemoči pri komunikaciji z otroki s posebnimi potrebami, ker so v času svojega izobraževanja za učiteljski poklic pridobili le malo znanja o delu z otroki s posebnimi potrebami. Bodoči učitelji bi si morali v času izobraževanja za učiteljski poklic pridobiti ne le znanje, temveč tudi izkušnje na področju poučevanja otrok s posebnimi potrebami (Štemberger, 2013).

V drugi raziskavi smo ugotovili, da se je velika večina (77,5 %) študentov v času svojega študija že spoznala s problematiko dela z otroki s posebnimi potrebami. Po drugi strani se večina (70 %) študentov s tematiko problematike dela z otroki s posebnimi potrebami na področju glasbe v okviru študija sploh ni seznanila, še manj (17,5 %) je študentov, ki so se v času šolanja spoznavali s problematiko dela s slepimi in slabovidnimi otroci. Vključenosti slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje so naklonjene vse generacije študentov, ki v večini (cca. 70 % vsakega letnika, razen 4. letniki – 62,5 %) menijo, da bi slepi in slabovidni otroci morali biti v javno glasbeno izobraževanje vključeni. Zelo malo (2,5 %) je tistih študentov, ki se z vključenostjo slepih in slabovidnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje ne strinjajo in so bili s to problematiko v okviru študija seznanjeni. Nekaj več kot četrtina (30 %) je študentov, ki se z vključitvijo takšnih otrok v javno glasbeno izobraževanje ne strinjajo in tudi niso bili seznanjeni s to problematiko v okviru študija.

Ugotovili smo, da je stopnja znanja študentov (glede učnih strategij) zelo nizka. Anketiranim so bila postavljena 3 vprašanja in na nobeno ni nihče odgovoril pravilno. Pri tem se nam poraja vprašanje, kako bodo študentje, bodoči profesorji glasbe, učili otroke, če nimajo niti osnovnega znanja s področja poučevanja. Vedno več je inkluzivnih praks v osnovnih in srednjih šolah, na katere mora biti učitelj dobro pripravljen. Potrebno je predvsem osnovno znanje, da lahko zadovoljiš potrebe otrok, kaj šele tistih otrok, ki imajo posebne potrebe. Do podobnih zaključkov je prišlo tudi v raziskavi (Devjak, Devjak in Polak, 2014), v kateri je leta 2013 sodelovalo 208 študentov (predšolske vzgoje, socialne pedagogike, specialne in rehabilitacijske pedagogike), avtorji pa so prišli do ugotovitev, da se študentje bojijo, da imajo za samostojno delo premalo izkušenj in zaupanja v lastno znanje, želijo pa si tudi praktičnega usposabljanja in povezovanja teorije s prakso. Morda bi lahko slednje povezali tudi z raziskavo Saquipija in Vogrinca (2016), ki sta ugotovila, da je trenutni sistem izobraževanja bodočih pedagogov usmerjen predvsem v spoznavanje raziskovalnega procesa, ne pa tudi v razumevanje smiselnosti le-tega, kar lahko privede do pomanjkanja motivacije študentov za raziskovanje problemov, ki jim niso znani (Saqipi in Vogrinc, 2017).

5 Sklep

Učenci s posebnimi potrebami imajo zaradi svojih lastnosti velikokrat težave pri vključevanju v programe javnega izobraževanja. Še težje se takšni otroci vključijo v programe javnega glasbenega izobraževanja, mnogi zaradi dodatnih zdravstvenih težav, med katere spadata tudi slepota in slabovidnost. Obe raziskavi sta pokazali veliko potrebo po izobraževanju tako učiteljev kot tudi študentov pedagoških programov na področju specialne pedagogike. Učitelji, ki se s to problematiko v času študija niso ukvarjali, so namreč najbolj negativno naravnani do vključitve takšnih otrok v glasbene šole, saj jim s tega področja primanjkuje znanja. To bi lahko bil tudi razlog, da takšnih otrok, ki bi bili vključeni v glasbene šole, ni veliko, saj se učitelji ne počutijo dovolj usposobljene za delo z njimi in jih posledično niti ne želijo učiti. To problematiko bi bilo treba pogosteje vključiti v študijske pedagoške programe (splošna didaktika, didaktika glasbe ipd.), saj bi s tem omogočili profesorjem in tudi učencem več možnosti za

uspeh na tem področju; pa ne le teoretično na papirju, temveč tudi v praksi. Treba jih je podučiti o tem, da obstajajo tudi drugačni načini poučevanja takšnih otrok in da obstaja tudi Braillova notna pisava, s pomočjo katere se lahko glasbe učijo slepi in slabovidni. V svetu je uspešnih več organizacij in šol, ki ponujajo glasbeno izobrazbo slepim in slabovidnim učencem, mnoge izmed njih pa imajo celo svojo lastno zbirko notnih materialov v Braillovi pisavi, ki so jih pripravljene deliti tudi z zunanjimi osebami, željnimi znanja. Dobro bi bilo, da bi kakšen podoben inštitut in zbirka obstajala tudi pri nas, saj bi s tem omogočili učiteljem dostop do informacij, znanja in materialov, ki jih potrebujejo, da se lahko soočijo z izzivi, ki jih prinaša učenje slepega ali slabovidnega otroka. Vsekakor pa moramo pedagogom ponuditi več izobraževanja in seminarjev na to temo, saj le-teh občutno primanjkuje.

Katja Sevšek, Janja Črčinovič Rozman, PhD

Integration of blind and visually impaired children in public music education

In the context of the two studies conducted on the integration of blind and visually impaired children in programs of public music education, the link between education and experience of teachers and students of music pedagogy was investigated with their views on the integration of these children into public music schools. The aim was to determine whether the problems of non-inclusion of these children in this kind of education is to be found in the relationship and knowledge of teachers/students. Both studies were conducted in the form of a questionnaire – answers to open type questions were categorized and the answers to closed-ended questions were processed in descriptive and inferential statistics using SPSS. We established that both teachers and teacher students have a positive attitude towards the inclusion of these children in public music schools but lack the knowledge on how to teach the children with special needs. Both studies have shown that there is a need for educating teachers and teacher students in this field.

The perspective that children with developmental disabilities do not belong in school was prevalent for a long time, but this changed later on with the establishment of schools with special curriculum. Schools with special needs education were therefore the first public educational institutions that addressed the children with developmental disabilities and their educational ability by offering them the opportunity to attend public schools. In Slovenia, this topic began to receive more and more attention with the publishing of the White Paper on Education in the Republic of Slovenia (Bela knjiga o vzgoji in izobraževanju v Republiki Sloveniji, 1995) and a subsequent reformulation of the complete school legislation (Placement of Children with Special Needs Act, 2000). Slovenia currently has 28 independent primary schools for children with special needs with 11,077 children enrolled in the academic year 2017/2018 (Galeša, 1993; Brusling and Pepin, 2003; Krapše, 2004; Kesič-Dimic, 2010; Ministry of Education, Science and Sport, 2018).

Pedagogical study programs should promote a positive attitude of students towards the inclusion of blind and visually impaired children, as this would significantly contribute to their acceptance by students who are not accustomed to interacting with children with developmental disabilities. The collaboration of the educator teaching the blind and visually impaired child with the specialists from this field is also crucial. Previous research proves that almost all teachers became more open to children with special needs even though they initially refused to work with blind children because of fear or were just curious, and developed a positive attitude and significantly increased their professional level. The biggest challenge for teachers comes from within – their attitude towards diversity, internal values and attitudes towards teaching (Cloninger and Giangreco, 1995; Latt, Freriks and Vervloed, 2012; Mäkinen, 2013).

In order to determine whether the knowledge and experiences of teachers affect their opinion on the inclusion of blind and visually impaired children in public music education, two studies were performed. In the first study entitled Inclusion of blind and visually impaired children in the programs of public music education (2014), we wanted to know how many blind and visually impaired children are involved in this kind of education (depending on the experience of teachers), if the teachers received information on how to work with children with special needs during their university studies and if they support their inclusion of in public music education. We also wanted to see if there is any connection between experiences of teachers (years of teaching) and their attitude towards education of these children in programs of public music education. The connection between years of teaching and the teacher's level of education was also investigated.

In the context of the second study entitled Inclusion of blind and visually impaired children in the programs of public music education in terms of knowledge and views of music pedagogy students on particular topics (2015), the focus of the research was on how this issue is perceived by the future generation of educators, and on determining if there are any parallels or differences between different generations of educators of the same educational program and the impact of the views of the study participants on the problem.

The first study included a sample of 177 teachers from 10 Slovenian public music schools that participated in the pedagogical research from May to September 2014. The sample comprised 65 teachers (36.7%) with up to 10 years of service, 51 teachers (28.8%) with 11-20 years of teaching experience and 61 teachers (34.5%) having 21+ years of experience. The second study was based on a sample of 40 students of Music Pedagogy at the University of Ljubljana and University of Maribor. The students participated in the research from June to September 2015. The sample included 10 students (25.%) who completed the first year of study, 7 students (17.5%) who completed the second year and another 7 third of study and 16 students (40%) who completed the fourth year of undergraduate study of Music Pedagogy.

In the first study, we came to the conclusion that the majority (84.7%) of teachers were not acquainted with the problems of working with children with special needs at the time of their university study. Among those who knew of this issue, the majority have 10 years of teaching experience (or less). This also applies to teachers who were acquainted with this issue in the context of music education. Furthermore, there are even fewer teachers (8.5%) who are acquainted with the problems of working with children

with special needs in the field of music. Only very few (5.6%) learned about the difficulties of working and teaching blind or visually impaired students in the course of their studies. It was also found that the generation of older teachers is more inclined to include blind and visually impaired children in public musical education; however, the majority of the respondents (71.2%) did have a positive opinion about it.

With the second study, we found out that the vast majority (77.5%) of students were already acquainted with the problems of working with children with special need during their university studies. On the other hand, the majority (70%) of students were not acquainted with those issues in the context of music pedagogy and even fewer (17.5%) were familiar with the problems of teaching blind and visually impaired children. All student generations are in favour of including blind and visually impaired children in the public music school – the majority (approx. 70% of each generation, except the last one with 62.5%) believes that they should be included in public musical education. We also found that the students' knowledge level (on the topic of learning strategies) is very low. The respondents have been asked three questions and none of them answered correctly to either of them. This raises the question of how will the future professors of musical pedagogy be able to teach children when they lack even the basic knowledge of pedagogy? There is an increasing number of inclusive practices in primary and secondary schools for which the teacher should be well prepared. First of all, they must have the basic knowledge to be able to respond to the children's needs, especially those with special needs.

Students with special needs tend to have problems integrating in public education programs. They experience even more difficulty integrating mainly because of their additional health problems, including blindness and visual impairment. Both studies have shown a great need to educate both teachers and students of educational programs in the field of special education. Teachers who were not acquainted with the issue of working with blind and visually impaired children have the most negative attitude towards the inclusion of children with special needs in public music schools, which is attributed to their lack of knowledge in this area. This could be the reason why there are not more of these children in music schools. Teachers do not feel sufficiently qualified to work with them and consequently refuse to teach them. This topic should have a more important role in the university pedagogical programs (general didactics, didactics of music, etc.), as this would provide both teachers and students with a greater chance of success in this area; not only theoretically on paper, but also practically through experience. They need to be informed about the fact that there are different ways of teaching these children and that the blind and visually impaired can also learn music using Braille music. Different organizations and schools around the world are already offering music education to blind and visually impaired students and many of them have their own collection of Braille music, which they are happy to share with anyone eager to learn. Establishing a similar institute and collection in Slovenia would be of great benefit, as this would enable teachers to access the information, knowledge and materials they need to face the challenges of teaching a blind and visually impaired child. But first, it is crucial to offer educators more courses and seminars on this subject which are still very rare in our university study programs.

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Inkluzija/integracija oseb s posebnimi potrebami v slovenski bibliografiji

POVZETEK – Uresničevanje integracije in inkluzije pri izobraževanju oseb s posebnimi potrebami je odvisno od mnogih dejavnikov, ki jih je treba sistematično preučevati, da bi s potrebnimi spremembami dosegli boljše rezultate in s tem enako možnost izobraževanja za vse. Eden izmed načinov za ugotavljanje uresničevanja le-tega je tudi analiza objavljenih del v nacionalni bibliografiji, saj po ugotovitvah avtorjev sistematična in dosledno vodena bibliografija dobro odslikava družbeno realnost: kulturo, izobraževanje, gospodarstvo pa tudi konkretni izobraževalni sistem oseb s posebnimi potrebami. S to raziskavo smo najprej ugotavljali uporabnost orodja – vodenja nacionalne bibliografije COBISS v raziskovalne namene. Z analizo bibliografskih virov in skozi sintagmo inkluzija/integracija, ki jo omogoča ta sistem, smo poiskali odgovore o uveljavljanju inkluzivnih in integracijskih procesov v slovenskem prostoru na principu refleksije v bibliografskih zapisih, da bi predlagali potrebne spremembe na tem področju.

ABSTRACT – Implementation of integration and inclusion in the education of people with special needs depends on many factors that need to be systematically studied in order to achieve better results with the necessary changes and thereby equality of education opportunities for all. One of the methods of determining the realization is also the analysis of published works in the national bibliography. According to the authors' findings, a systematic and consistently guided bibliography reflects well the social reality, such as culture, education and economy, as well as the concrete educational system of persons with special needs. With this research, we first determined the applicability of the COBISS bibliographic tool for research purposes. By analysing the bibliographic sources and through the inclusion/integration scheme provided by this system, we found the answers to the implementation of inclusive and integration processes in the Slovenian territory on the principle of reflection in bibliographic records in order to provide the basis for the necessary changes in this field.

1 Uvod

Eden izmed kazalcev uveljavljanja inkluzije/integracije v družbi ali državi, zlasti kar se tiče izobraževanja, je refleksija te tematike v nacionalni bibliografiji, torej kako se ta tematika odslikava v sistemiziranih nacionalnih zapisih. Da bibliografija dobro odslikava družbene realnosti govori tudi Sable (2014), zlasti če je sistemsko urejena in dostopna. Ravno ta konstatacija nas je spodbudila, da smo se lotili raziskovanja razvoja inkluzije s pomočjo analize nacionalne bibliografije skozi časovno in vsebinsko presečišče.

Podatki so že dolgo ključna sestavina pri prizadevanjih za spodbujanje enake obravnave, zlasti oseb s posebnimi potrebami, in procesov inkluzije ter integracije. Open society navaja, da so podatki ključni tudi za oceno diskriminacije na podlagi invalidnosti,

starosti, spola ipd. in s tem tudi za doseganje enakosti s pomočjo politik in ukrepov na področju zaposlovanja ali izobraževanja. To ugotovitev smo upoštevali tudi pri navedenem raziskovanju. S tem si lahko pomagamo odgovoriti na vprašanja, ki so pomembna za inkluzijo v teoriji in praksi.

Ključna vprašanja, ki so relevantna za našo raziskavo, so:

☐ Udejanjanje inkluzije in integracije v slovenskem prostoru od njenega nastajanja v 70-ih letih prejšnjega stoletja do danes. Skozi bibliografske zapise pod pogoji sistematičnosti, celostnosti, odprtosti in hkrati refleksije realnosti (Sable, 2014) bi lahko spoznali dinamiko uresničevanja inkluzije pa tudi integracije v primerjalnih obdobjih, kako je razvoj povezan s političnimi odločitvami, ki so instrumentalizirana v strateških dokumentih in zakonodaji.

☐ Zanima nas tudi dinamika raziskovanja inkluzije in integracije v tipih bibliografskih enot in v različnih vsebinskih oblikah.

☐ Uporabnost orodja – vodenja nacionalne bibliografije COBISS – v raziskovalne namene.

Na podlagi analize pridemo do ugotovitev o uveljavljanju inkluzije, težav in slabosti ter iz tega do predlogov za vodenje politike, izboljšavo izobraževalnih sistemov in raziskovalnih usmeritev.

Pri tem raziskovanju smo se omejili na področje vzgoje in izobraževanja, ostala področja, kot so zaposlovanje in integracija v družbo, ne bodo v našem fokusu raziskovanja, ker bi bila tematika preobširna, čeprav se zavedamo, da je inkluzija oseb s posebnimi potrebami celosten proces, ki je ni mogoče omejiti zgolj na izobraževalno področje. Še celo več, proces inkluzije pri vzgoji in izobraževanju terja identičen odziv tudi v drugih sferah človekovega delovanja, kot je delo in siceršnja integracija v okolje in samo v povezanosti ima svoj smisel.

Preden se konkretno lotimo analize, moramo pojasniti pojme, kot je posebni izobraževalni sistem za osebe s posebnimi potrebami, integracija in inkluzija.

V stroki govorimo o treh obdobjih izobraževanja oseb s posebnimi potrebami: obdobje posebnega (paralelnega) šolskega sistema, integracije in inkluzije.

Pred uvajanjem inkluzije in integracije v šolski sistem smo v svetu in pri nas za izobraževanje otrok/oseb s posebnimi potrebami poznali razvejan sistem posebnih šol in zavodov in, kot pravi Opara (2009), nekakšen paralelni sistem izobraževanja, ki je imel tudi posebno zakonodajo. Na te šole in zavode so se lepile posebne stigme, podcenjevanje in zapostavljanje oseb, zato so zlasti starši teh otrok prevzeli pobude in skupaj s strokovnjaki začeli prizadevanja za enotno šole za vse. Poleg tega te šole niso omogočale nadaljnjega izobraževanja in zagotavljanja poklicne kariere tem osebam, pač pa še naprej vodile v paralelne sisteme zaposlovanja ali delovne integracije (Drobnič, 2014). To obdobje je trajalo nekako do konca 70-ih let prejšnjega stoletja.

Obdobju posebnih šol sledi drugo obdobje, ki ga zaznamuje prizadevanje za integracijo teh oseb v običajne šole. Opara (2009) navaja, da so se predvsem zaradi novih idej v svetu in teženj po večji demokratizaciji ter uveljavljanju enakih možnosti, začeli procesi za zagotavljanje enotne šole za vse. Odvijali so se tako na področju civilnih prizadevanj, strokovnih krogov in mednarodnih asociacij. Ti procesi po "normalizaciji" so se začeli že v petdesetih letih prejšnjega stoletja in so se najprej pokazali kot

prizadevanje, da se vsi učenci, dijaki ali posamezniki vključijo v skupni učni prostor na način prilagajanja večinskemu sistemu ob zagotavljanju podpornih ukrepov. Dodaten zagon je dalo sprejetje Deklaracije OZN o pravicah invalidov v letu 1975. To obdobje je dominiralo nekako do konca 80-ih let prejšnjega stoletja in ga prepoznavamo kot obdobje integracije.

Vendar pa enotnosti o tem, kaj je integracija in kaj inkluzija ter kako sta ta dva pojma (procesa) povezana, med strokovnjaki ni (Norwich, 2013; Schmidt, 1999). Inkluzija je po mnenju Skidmora (2004) veliko več kot integracija ali "mainstreaming", saj je vtkana v širok družbeni kontekst – politični, socialni, psihosocialni in edukacijski. Tudi drugi avtorji navajajo (Bleidick, 1981; Geiger, 1983; Kosztantowicz, 1982: v Opara, 2009) različne dimenzije integracije.

Pri inkluziji ne gre samo za prilagajanje posameznika večini, pač pa tudi, da se večina prilagaja posamezniku oziroma je ta večina pripravljena sprejemati te osebe in jim nuditi vedno odprta vrata za vstop (Corbett, 1999). Zato je inkluzija kultura življenja v določeni skupnosti (šoli, razredu) (Resman, 2003), v kateri je vsak dobrodošel in sooblikuje šolsko skupnost, torej vnaša lastne osebnostne prvine. Preseganje koncepta prilagajanja OPP splošnim pogojem izobraževanja prepoznavamo preko socialnega modela obravnave (Norwich, 2013), ki poudarja pomen okolja in socialnih odnosov. Pojem inkluzija je najtesneje povezan s populacijo oseb s posebnimi potrebami ter njihovim vključevanjem v izobraževanje, čeprav ne moremo izključiti njene uporabe na drugih področjih življenja, npr. pri zaposlovanju in v vsakdanjem življenju.

Če pogledamo bibliografske vire, ugotovimo, da je problematika inkluzije stopala v javni, strokovni in znanstveni prostor že pred uveljavljenjem Bele knjige in prve zakonske ureditve sistema. To se je dogajalo v 80-ih letih prejšnjega stoletja, predvsem pod vplivom gibanj v zahodni Evropi in Ameriki. S tem se je začel tudi proces intenzivne refleksije v bibliografskih nacionalnih produktih ob dejstvu, da je v ta prostor hkrati prišla tudi tuja literatura v najrazličnejših oblikah (knjige, e-knjige, CD-ji, raziskovalni teksti, revije in druge oblike), kot jih strukturira mednarodni sistem COBISS, ki smo ga uporabili pri našem raziskovanju.

Glede na to, da smo opravili raziskavo s pomočjo analize nacionalnih bibliografskih enot, je treba dodati nekaj informacij o nacionalni bibliografiji v elektronski dobi.

Digitalizacija podatkov, ki je značilna za elektronsko dobo, je omogočila dobre možnosti za urejanje bibliografskih enot, izmenjavo podatkov in zagotavljanje široke uporabe bibliografije v mednarodnem prostoru (IFLA, 2009). Mednarodna zveza knjižničnih združenj in institucij si prizadeva za oblikovanje enotnih standardov in smernic. To je podlaga za sistematičnost zbirk bibliografskih enot ter preglednih odprtih podatkov, ki naj bi jih ustvarjali državni sistemi in omogočali široko javno uporabo.

Nacionalna bibliografija v modernem pomenu je navadno definirana kot popolna zbirka zglednih bibliografskih zapisov o založniški produkciji neke države, ki redno in s čim manjšim časovnim zaostankom izhaja v tiskani ali drugi fizični obliki (Guidelines for the national bibliographic agency and the national bibliography, 1979, 1997). Zapise v skladu z mednarodnimi standardi pripravljajo nacionalne bibliografske agencije (predgovor D. Anderson v Bell, 1998), ki podrobno preverjajo avtorstvo in ozadje publikacije, zapisi pa vsebujejo vse podrobnosti, ki jih zahteva široka in raznovrstna uporaba teh zapisov (International Congress on National Bibliographies, 1977).

Po preteku let nacionalna bibliografija postane pomembno orodje za zgodovinsko preučevanje, saj odraža rast in razvoj države, spremembe v socialnem, kulturnem, izobraževalnem in ekonomskem razvoju. Pomen nacionalne bibliografije kot dokumentacije narodovega kulturnega, socialnega in političnega razvoja je zelo velik (Žumer, 2000). Ob tem je seveda treba opozoriti, da bibliografija sama po sebi še ne predstavlja kulturne zavesti (Beaudiquez, 1992), saj je le popis, seznam dokumentov, ki dokumentov samih nikakor ne more nadomestiti.

Pomembno je tudi, da je sistem bibliografskih enot pregleden in povezljiv na mednarodni ravni. Ključni princip tega je uvedba ISDS (International Serials Data System). Države članice so vzpostavile nacionalne in/ali regionalne centre za ISDS znotraj nacionalne bibliografske agencije. Pri tem je treba poudariti, da so UNESCO (1997) in druge institucije pomagale pri vzpostavljanju nacionalnih bibliografskih agencij in pripravi nacionalnih bibliografij.

Z modernimi orodji, ki izhajajo iz digitalizacije, so sistemi nacionalne bibliografije še toliko bolj ažurni, natančni in celostni. Tak sistem je za področje držav Balkana pripravila Mariborska univerza. To je sistem COBISS oz. orodje za sistemizirano vodenje bibliografskih enot na osnovi mednarodnih standardov in smernic. Gre za povsem odprt sistem dostopnosti, ki omogoča koriščenje baze podatkov za najrazličnejše namene, predvsem raziskovalne.

2 Metodologija

Uporabili smo metodo analize bibliografskih enot po kriteriju pojavljanja posameznih izrazov in besednih zvez (2) s področja šolstva v sistemu COBISS. Za namen raziskave smo analizirali naslednja pojmovna področja: šolsko, pedagoško, učiteljsko, integracijsko, inkluzivno, inkluzivno-šolsko, inkluzivno-učiteljsko in inkluzivno-pedagoško in opravili filtriranje celotnega bibliografskega gradiva. Za namen primerjav smo edicije delili v tiri obdobja: od leta 1993, ko zasledimo ob prelomu družbenega sistema tudi pojav tendenc po inkluziji, do leta 2000, ko je bil formalno sprejet Zakon o usmerjanju otrok s posebnimi potrebami in pomeni dejansko uzakonitev inkluzivnega pristopa, ter preostalo obdobje, ki smo ga razpolovili na dvoje, da smo prišli do enakega časa trajanja za primerjavo.

Določili smo tri širša pojmovna območja: izhodiščno – šolsko področje, področje inkluzije in integracije na sploh ter integracije in inkluzije, ki sta omejeni na šolsko področje. Poleg tega smo za primerjavo vključili še pedagoško in učiteljske področje. Preverjali smo, kako se te besede (besedne zveze) pojavljajo v slovenski bibliografiji, ki jo zajema sistem beleženja v slovenskem COBISS-u. Ker ta sistem vključuje več kot 5 milijonov enot, je ta vzorec že blizu celotnemu bibliografskemu gradivu, zato je zanesljivost rezultatov visoka.

V analizo smo zajeli vse bibliografske enote, tako v materialni kot elektronski obliki. Analizirali smo samo slovensko bibliografijo, saj to najbolj neposredno kaže refleksijo tematike integracije in inkluzije.

Za namen raziskave smo se ravnali po kriteriju "ključne besede". Vsak bibliografski zapis je v procesu katalogizacije definiran s ključnimi besedami, kar omogoča razmeroma dobro opredelitev vsebine gradiva in verodostojno analizo. Analiza na podlagi ključnih besed je bolj zanesljiva in natančna kot na podlagi "naslova dela", zato smo se odločili za kriterij izbora po ključnih besedah.

Analizo smo izvedli s pomočjo filtriranja, ki jo omogoča sistem COBISS. Analiza na podlagi pojavljanja pojmov je v slovenščini bolj zapletena, ker slovenski jezik pozna pregibanje samostalnikov in pridevnikov, kar pomeni, da smo uporabili korene – začetni del izbranih pojmov s tega področja, kot je razvidno iz empiričnega dela, in potem upoštevali še vse pripone.

3 Rezultati in interpretacija

Dne 4.9.2017 je bilo v COBISS-u skupaj 5.020.935 enot, od tega 2.262.242 v slovenskem jeziku, kar je manj kot 50 %. S področjem šolstva, šolo ali šolanjem je povezano skupaj 273.641 bibliografskih enot.

Tabela 1: Število bibliografskih enot s šolskega področja (kriterij: ključne besede/vrsta gradiva)

Obdobja	Vrsta gradiva	Izbrane ključne besede							
		šol*	pedag*	učitel*	integr*	inkluz*	inkluz* šol*	inkluz* učitel*	inkluz* pedag*
Celotno obdobje	knjiga	178702	46027	7897	7473	587	442	109	450
	članek, sestavni del	84847	34508	10035	6622	581	467	75	312
	vse	273641	82117	18713	14216	1171	910	185	764
1993 do 2000	knjiga	29197	9954	1123	1435	21	8	0	2
	članek, sestavni del	21016	8598	2586	1635	12	8	0	6
	vse	53104	18898	3863	3096	33	10	0	8
2001 do 2008	knjiga	55530	14379	1954	2484	127	100	20	96
	članek, sestavni del	29235	10284	3136	2559	192	165	17	129
	vse	86921	25136	5239	5094	319	265	37	225
2009 do 2016	knjiga	53269	14393	2497	2281	407	316	83	325
	članek, sestavni del	23642	9017	2852	1622	359	284	55	170
	vse	79422	23739	5456	3933	768	601	139	497

Opomba: Seštevek vseh vrst gradiv (vse) ni 100 %, ker imamo tudi druge vrste gradiv, ki jih zaradi majhne pojavnosti nismo umestili v analizo.

Ker se je število bibliografskih enot z leti spreminjalo oz. narašča, je pomembno vedeti tudi, kako se giblje število bibliografskih enot, ki obravnavajo integracijsko in inkluzivno problematiko. Za ta namen smo pripravili prikaz deležev (%) bibliografskih enot v odnosu na vse enote s področja šolstva.

Tabela 2: Deleži posameznih izbranih bibliografskih enot s šolskega področja (kriterij: ključne besede/vrsta gradiva)

Obdobja	Vrsta gradiva	Izbrane ključne besede s šolskega področja						
		pedag*	*učitel**	*integra**	*inkluz**	*inkluz* šol**	*inkluz* učitel**	*inkluz* pedag**
Celotno obdobje	knjiga	25,76 %	4,42 %	4,18 %	0,33 %	0,25 %	0,06 %	0,25 %
	članek, sestavni del	40,67 %	11,83 %	7,80 %	0,68 %	0,55 %	0,09 %	0,37 %
	vse	30,01 %	6,84 %	5,20 %	0,43 %	0,33 %	0,07 %	0,28 %
1993 do 2000	knjiga	34,09 %	3,85 %	4,91 %	0,07 %	0,03 %	0 %	0,01 %
	članek, sestavni del	40,91 %	12,30 %	7,78 %	0,06 %	0,04 %	0 %	0,03 %
	vse	35,59 %	7,27 %	5,83 %	0,06 %	0,02 %	0 %	0,02 %
2001 do 2008	knjiga	25,89 %	3,52 %	4,47 %	0,23 %	0,18 %	0,04 %	0,17 %
	članek, sestavni del	35,18 %	10,73 %	8,75 %	0,66 %	0,56 %	0,06 %	0,44 %
	vse	28,92 %	6,03 %	5,86 %	0,37 %	0,30 %	0,04 %	0,26 %
2009 do 2016	knjiga	27,02 %	4,69 %	4,28 %	0,76 %	0,59 %	0,16 %	0,61 %
	članek, sestavni del	38,14 %	12,06 %	6,86 %	1,52 %	1,20 %	0,23 %	0,72 %
	vse	29,89 %	6,87 %	4,95 %	0,97 %	0,76 %	0,18 %	0,63 %

Opomba: Seštevek vseh vrst gradiv (vse) ni 100 %, ker imamo tudi druge vrste gradiv, ki jih zaradi majhne pojavnosti nismo umestili v analizo.

Za bibliografske enote, ki imajo ključne besede s pedagoško ali učiteljsko tematiko, ugotavljamo, da so izrazi v "pedagoški" skupini (30,01 %) precej pogosteje uporabljeni kot pa učiteljski (6,84 %), kar pomeni, da se terminologija s korenom "pedag*" bolj pogosto uporablja kot pa terminologija s korenom "učitel*". In še ena značilnost izstopa, ko govorimo o teh dveh skupinah pojmov na šolskem področju: v knjigah se te skupine pojmov redkeje pojavljajo (4,42 %) kot v člankih (11,83 %), pri čemer je to razmerje bolj izrazito pri uporabi pojmov s korenom učitel* (tu je razmerje skoraj 1:3), medtem ko so te razlike pri korenu pedag* le 15 %. Glede na te ugotovitve lahko povzamemo, da je knjiga kot vrsta vsebinskega zapisa na pedagoško-učiteljskem področju manj pogosta, kot članki ali sestavni deli knjige. Ker so članki bolj raziskovalnega in analitičnega značaja, to hkrati pomeni, da je pedagoško-učiteljska tematika pogosteje navzoča v raziskovalnih in analitičnih tipih besedila in manj v knjigah kot razlagalnih predstavitvenih besedilih, ki so običajno bolj zanimive za širši krog bralcev.

Z vidika uveljavljanja inkluzije in integracije na šolskem področju so za nas veliko bolj zanimivi rezultati pojavljanja pojmov inkluzija in integracija, ki se nanašata na problematiko izobraževanja oseb/učencev in posameznikov s posebnimi potrebami. V celotnem bibliografskem opusu se v odnosu na šolsko bibliografske enote pojavljata skupaj v manj kot 6-odstotnem obsegu, pri čemer zavzema integracija z vsemi izpeljankami veliko večji delež (5,20 %) kot inkluzija, ki je zelo malo navzoča, saj pomeni glede na vso bibliografijo s šolskega področja manj kot en odstotni delež (0,43 %). Povedano z drugimi besedami: samo v vsaki dvestoti bibliografski enoti s področja šolstva se omenja pojem inkluzija oz. njene izpeljanke, medtem ko je pojem integracija bolj pogost, saj ga najdemo v eni izmed oblik vsaj v vsaki dvajseti bibliografski enoti s področja šolstva. Zato lahko posplošimo, da se problematika integracije na šolskem področju vidno reflektira in razmeroma dobro uveljavlja, s tem pa lahko prihaja tudi v širši javni prostor, medtem ko je terminološki prostor inkluzije malo navzoč v bibliografskem opusu in zato redko dostopen in navzoč v javnosti.

Tabela 3: Število slovenskih bibliografskih del v sistemu COBISS (kriterij: ključne besede/vrsta vsebine)

Obdobja	Vrsta vsebine	Besede							
		šol*	pedag*	učitel*	integra*	inkluz*	inkluz* šol*	inkluz* učitel*	inkluz* pedag*
Celotno obdobje	dipl., mag., dr. dela	81136	30360	2977	4727	470	353	100	373
	učbeniki	35354	3462	445	381	1	1	0	0
	razisk. dela	21731	1269	295	679	20	11	0	8
	vse	273640	82117	18713	14216	1171	910	185	764
1993 do 2000	dipl., mag., dr. dela	11327	7011	328	864	17	1	0	0
	razisk. dela	3713	267	64	123	0	0	0	0
	učbeniki	7182	731	89	92	0	0	0	0
	vse	53104	18898	3863	3096	33	10	0	0
2001 do 2008	dipl., mag., dr. dela	29132	9862	741	1720	101	80	19	79
	razisk. dela	7094	265	101	86	1	1	0	0
	učbeniki	10049	1625	96	96	0	0	0	0
	vse	86921	25136	5239	5094	319	265	37	225
2009 do 2016	dipl., mag., dr. dela	27518	9877	1612	1681	324	250	75	266
	razisk. dela	8121	600	40	48	10	10	0	0
	učbeniki	6066	695	71	73	1	1	0	8
	vse	79422	23739	5456	3933	768	601	139	497

Ko gledamo pojavljanje teh dveh sklopov besed skozi tri obdobja – pred uveljavljanjem zakona o usmerjanju ter dve obdobji po usmerjanju – vidimo povsem različne trende. Opus bibliografskih enot se je na tematiko integracije do leta 2007 povečal s 3096 na 5094, kar pomeni več kot 70-odstotno rast, v letih od 2008 do 2017 pa je padel na 3933 enot. Pojav bibliografskih enot na tematiko inkluzije je ravno obraten: v obdobju pred letom 2000 je razmerje do področja integracije zelo neugodno 33: 3096, potem pa se do leta 2016 bistveno izboljša, ker se število edicij na temo inkluzije poveča za več kot dvajset krat (33→761), tematika integracije pa se zmanjša za več kot petino (5094→3933). Pri tej pojmovni dvojici smo ugotovili, da se navedena tematika bolj pogosto uveljavlja v člankih z znanstvenoraziskovalno ali strokovnoraziskovalno tematiko in manj v splošnem knjižnem gradivu, ki je običajno bolj dostopno običajnemu bralcu. Zato bi utegnile biti vsebine navedenega pretežno raziskovalnega gradiva povprečnemu bralcu manj zanimive, jasne in s tem tudi manj razumljive.

Tabela 4: Deleži slovenskih bibliografskih del v odnosu na vsa dela s šolskega področja v sistemu COBISS (kriterij: ključne besede/vrsta vsebine)

Obdobja	Vrsta vsebine	Besede							
		šol*	pedag*	učitel*	integra*	inkluz*	inkluz* šol*	inkluz* učitel*	inkluz* pedag*
Celotno obdobje	dipl., mag., dr. dela	100%	37,42%	3,67%	5,83%	0,58%	0,44%	0,12%	0,46%
	učbeniki	100%	9,79%	1,26%	1,08%	0,00%	0,00%	0,00%	0,00%
	razisk. dela	100%	5,84%	1,36%	3,12%	0,09%	0,05%	0,00%	0,04%
	vse	100%	30,01%	6,84%	5,20%	0,43%	0,33%	0,07%	0,28%
1993 do 2000	dipl., mag., dr. dela	100%	61,90%	2,90%	7,63%	0,15%	0,01%	0,00%	0,00%
	razisk. dela	100%	7,19%	1,72%	3,31%	0,00%	0,00%	0,00%	0,00%
	učbeniki	100%	10,18%	1,24%	1,28%	0,00%	0,00%	0,00%	0,00%
	vse	100%	35,59%	7,27%	5,83%	0,06%	0,02%	0,00%	0,00%
2001 do 2008	dipl., mag., dr. dela	100%	33,85%	2,54%	5,90%	0,35%	0,27%	0,07%	0,27%
	razisk. dela	100%	3,74%	1,42%	1,21%	0,01%	0,01%	0,00%	0,00%
	učbeniki	100%	16,17%	0,96%	0,96%	0,00%	0,00%	0,00%	0,00%
	vse	100%	28,92%	6,03%	5,86%	0,37%	0,30%	0,04%	0,26%
2009 do 2016	dipl., mag., dr. dela	100%	35,89%	5,86%	6,11%	1,18%	0,91%	0,27%	0,97%
	razisk. dela	100%	7,39%	0,49%	0,59%	0,12%	0,12%	0,00%	0,00%
	učbeniki	100%	16,17%	0,96%	0,96%	0,00%	0,00%	0,00%	0,00%
	vse	100%	28,92%	6,03%	5,86%	0,37%	0,30%	0,04%	0,26%

Naslednja trojica pojmovnih zvez je inkluzija v povezavi s šolo, učitelji in pedagogi. Če pogledamo vse te dvojice pojmov celotnem obdobju, vidimo, da je največ enot tistih, ki imajo povezavo inkluzije in šole (910), najmanj pa tistih, pri katerih je povezava inkluzija in učitelj. Inkluzija v povezavi s pedagogiko je relativno pogosteje prisotna (8→497 enot) od tiste z učiteljem (0→139). Tudi tu zaznamo velik trend rasti izdanih izvodov s tega področja v zadnjih obdobjih, kar pomeni, da se inkluzija vse bolj izrazito pojavlja v slovenski bibliografiji v zadnjih obdobjih; hkrati je vse bolj navzoča v raziskovalnih, znanstvenih in splošnih oblikah besedil, vendar pa še zdaleč ne dosega razširjenosti pojma integracija, čeprav je od uradne umestitve inkluzije (Bela knjiga) minilo že 20 let, saj integracija v svojih izpeljankah v slovenski bibliografiji dosega petkrat večje pojavljanje kot inkluzija.

Če najprej pogledamo bibliografske enote po tipu del, potem vidimo, da se bibliografija diplomskih, magistrskih in doktorskih del nadpovprečno pojavlja v vseh oblikah pomenskih sklopov našega raziskovanja razen pri pojmovnem sklopu "učitel*", pri čemer so te razlike največje v pojmovni povezavi inkluzija in pedag*. Iz tega lahko povzamemo, da se celotna tematika, ki smo jo vzeli v preučevanje, bolj prikazuje v okviru preučevalno-analitičnega gradiva, v veliko manjšem deležu pa so te vsebine v učbeniških in drugih oblikah, torej takšnih, ki se dotikajo širše bralne populacije. Zlasti to velja za področje pedagogike in inkluzije, kjer prevladujejo raziskovalno-analitične vsebine, manj pa tiste bolj splošne oblike. Ravno nasprotno je pri pojmu učitelj, kjer je raziskovalnih vsebin manj kot ostalih tipov gradiv.

Tabela 5: Učbeniki po posameznih sklopih v odnosu na vsa objavljena gradiva s področja šolstva v Sloveniji

Učbenik s področja šolstva	*Vsa bibliografija s področja šolstva*	*Delež v odstotkih*
35.354	273.640	12,92 %
3.462	82.117	4,22 %
445	18.713	2,38 %
381	14.216	2,68 %
1	1.171	0,09 %
1	910	0,11 %
0	185	0,00 %
0	764	0,00 %

Učbeniško gradivo na temo inkluzije in integracije ni prevladujoče, saj je med vsemi 273.640 bibliografskimi deli 35.354 učbenikov, kar pomeni 12,78-odstotni delež vse bibliografije, medtem ko je zaključnih del 81.136. Učbeniške bibliografske enote so pri vseh pojmovnih sklopih daleč pod povprečjem, najbolj to velja za področje inkluzije, ki ne dosega niti enega odstotka (0,09 %), oziroma v statističnem jeziku povedano – gre za neznatno pojavljanje.

Analizirali smo pojavljanje vsebin integracije in inkluzije v pretežno raziskovalnem tipu bibliografije zadnjih 16 let, in sicer v zaključnih delih študijskih programov ter raziskovalnih gradivih.

V objavljenih raziskovalnih gradivih in zaključnih delih študijskih programov skupaj pojem integracija od leta 2000 dalje kaže trend rasti in doseže vrh leta 2004 z 825 izvodi, potem pa konstantno pada vse do leta 2014, ko doseže najnižjo raven – 296 izvodov. Ugotovljeni padec je zelo velik, kar pomeni, da bibliografija s ključno besedo integracija zadnjih 10 let močno upada. Pri bibliografiji na temo inkluzije pa ugotavljamo do leta 2009 valujoč trend rasti iz razmeroma nizkega izhodišča – 13 oz. 7 izvodov, po tem letu pa zanimanje za to področje prične hitro naraščati in leta 2016 doseže 215 izvodov. Tako se relativno približa številu bibliografij na temo integracije.

Tabela 6: Raziskovalna gradiva in zaključna dela študijskih programov na tematiko integracije in inkluzije v Sloveniji

Leto	Dipl., mag. in dr. dela skupaj		Raziskovalna gradiva skupaj		Vse	
	integrac*	*inkluzi**	*integrac**	*inkluzi**	*integrac**	*inkluzi**
2000	167	5	18	0	594	13
2001	148	0	13	0	513	7
2002	213	7	19	0	653	33
2003	254	7	11	0	798	55
2004	233	11	10	0	825	27
2005	201	16	9	1	644	50
2006	232	22	6	0	624	63
2007	209	18	9	0	568	38
2008	215	20	14	0	525	49
2009	194	21	8	0	527	72
2010	179	19	8	0	502	90
2011	174	29	6	1	490	77
2012	169	36	9	2	461	95
2013	161	40	6	7	439	80
2014	178	44	4	0	443	84
2015	218	51	9	0	473	115
2016	184	84	5	0	296	157

Izrazitega upada bibliografskih enot s pojmovnega področja integracije pri zaključnih delih študijskih programov (diplomska, magistrska in doktorska dela) v tem obdobju ne ugotavljamo, saj se število edicij leta 2016 ne razlikuje bistveno.

Grafikon 1: Bibliografske enote na tematiko integracije in inkluzije od leta 2000 do 2016
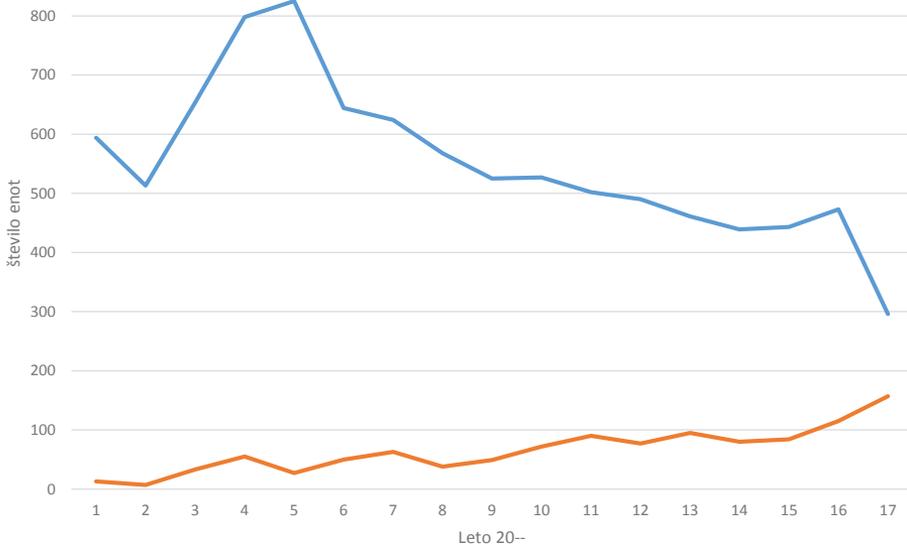
Zanimanje študentov, da bi pri zaključnih delih raziskali področje inkluzije, se z leti hitro povečuje. Ob tem beležimo upad bibliografskega gradiva na temo integracije zlasti pri drugih oblikah knjižničnega gradiva in manj na raziskovalno-analitičnih. Inkluzivna tematika pa je v splošnih oblikah v vseh obdobjih redko zastopana, dominirajo predvsem raziskovalne in analitične vsebine, katerih število pa v zadnjem obdobju močno narašča.

4   Razprava

Celovit in dosleden sistem urejanja in sistemiziranja bibliografskih enot je dobra osnova za verodostojne analize, kar omogoča zlasti digitalizacija podatkov (Mann, 2005). Ugotovili smo, da obstoječi slovenski bibliografski sistem COBISS ob veliki količini strukturiranih podatkov nudi veliko možnosti eksaktnega analitičnega presojanja. Z najrazličnejšimi načini filtriranja bibliografije – s pomočjo kriterijev – lahko razmeroma enostavno dostopamo do podatkov in z vgrajenimi orodji pridemo do odgovorov na raznovrstna raziskovalna vprašanja. S tem se izognemo nekaterim sodobnim težavam v raziskovanju, kot so zagotavljanje adekvatnih vzorcev, odzivanja respondentov, ki postaja vse bolj zahtevno, in zanesljivosti odgovorov, ker bibliografski sistem predstavlja hkrati izjemno velik vzorec, ki je identičen stvarni bazi. Zato imajo tovrstni pristopi v raziskovanju nadaljnjo perspektivo. Z analizo smo dobili verodostojen vpogled, kako se integracija in inkluzija reflektirata v slovenski bibliografiji, hkrati pa smo preverili, kako uporaben je sistem COBISSS za znanstvene in strokovne analize.

Na podlagi opravljene analize ugotavljamo, da se integracija in inkluzija kot ključna pojma izobraževanja oseb/učencev s posebnimi potrebami prepoznavno reflektirata v slovenski bibliografiji, vendar v relativno manjšem obsegu, saj dosegata skupaj v okviru šolske bibliografije 6-odstotno pojavljanje, sama integracija pa več kot 5-odstotno. To pomeni, da bi bilo treba spodbujati k večjemu številu analitičnih in raziskovalnih del, še posebej pa drugih oblik vsebine, kot so knjige učbeniki, gradiva, ki kažejo največji deficit/padec, saj te oblike nagovorijo na enostavnejši in bolj dostopen način tudi drugo bralstvo. Zlasti pa to velja za področje inkluzije/inkluzivnega izobraževanja, ki se sicer vse bolj bibliografsko odziva, vendar se pojavlja v zelo majhnem obsegu – 158 izvodov letno, zlasti pa v knjižnih vsebinah: priročnikih, učbenikih in poljudnih delih, kjer teh pojmov skoraj ne najdemo.

Preko trenda rasti edicij postajata inkluzija in sodobno izobraževanje oseb s posebnimi potrebami sicer bolj prepoznavna, vendar bolj nagovarjata akademske in raziskovalne kroge, do širših kategorij ljudi pa ne prodreta zadosti, ker nimata pravih oblik sporočanja. To ima nedvomno posledice za prepoznavanje in razumevanje sodobnega inkluzivnega izobraževanja, pa verjetno tudi naklonjenosti do teh izobraževalnih (inkluzivnih) pristopov, ker je večini ljudi vsebina preprosto neznana in zato nerazumljiva. Zato bi se morali tem vprašanjem in problemom posvetiti šole, fakultete in pa pristojno ministrstvo ter spodbujati objavljanje v knjižnih oblikah, razpravah, intervjujih in podobno, ki jih bibliografija sedaj skoraj ne vsebuje.

Integracija in inkluzija se reflektirata v bibliografiji v nasprotujočih se trendih: integracija z manjšim reflektiranjem, nekako tako kot bi bila v zatonu, inkluzija pa z eksponentno rastjo, vendar je ta rast največja pri raziskovalnih delih. Rast izdaj na temo inkluzije je lahko razveseljiva, vendar ni zadostna, tema integracije pa izgublja svoj delež v objavah. Integracija je očitno postala manj zanimiva tematika tako za raziskovanje kot tudi v razpravah, intervjujih in različnih oblikah knjižničnega gradiva za širšo bralno bazo. Integracijo in inkluzijo kot sodobna fenomena v izobraževanju oseb s posebnimi potrebami je treba razumeti kot način vzpostavljanja skupnosti v razredu in odmik od tendenc individualizma, ki se širi v sodobni šoli. Izsledki analize kažejo, da so ideje uresničevanja skupnosti (razreda, šole, skupin ...) vse manj v fokusu tistih, ki se ukvarjajo z izobraževanjem ali poučevanjem, bi se pa morali zavedati, da je inkluzija/integracija s socialno dimenzijo tisto, kar osebe/učenci in posamezniki s posebnimi potrebami najbolj pričakujejo, zlasti v sedanjem obdobju, ko se srečujemo s trendi opuščanja posebnih šol in vse več posameznikov s posebnimi potrebami vstopa v splošne izobraževalne oblike. To pa lahko pri večinski populaciji povzroča odklonilno in zavrnitveno obnašanje in stališča.

Ugotovili smo, da prihaja do zapostavljanja problematike integracije in inkluzije v splošni šolski sistem, s tem pa tudi do zapostavljanja OPP v kontekstu pravičnosti in enakih možnosti do kvalitetnega izobraževanja na integrativen način, saj ni sorazmernega vlaganja virov v raziskovanje, učbenike, knjižna dela in druge produkte na to tematiko. Ker je deficit refleksije predvsem v tistih oblikah, ki so bolj dostopne in razumljive širši javnosti, se to lahko kot posledica kaže v nerazumevanju in tudi odklonilnih stališčih do tega načina izobraževanja OPP oziroma do teh oseb.

Janez Drobnič, PhD

Inclusion/integration of people with special
needs in Slovenian bibliography

An indicator of the inclusion/integration of people with special needs in the society is the reflection of this topic in the national bibliography, i.e. how this topic is reflected in the systemized national records. This has prompted us to undertake research on the development of inclusion/integration in the educational field in the way of analysing the national bibliography through time and content intersection in the period since its inception in the 1970s.

National bibliography in the modern sense is usually defined as a complete collection of exemplary bibliographic records on the publishing production of a country, which regularly – i.e. with as little time lag as possible – appears in printed or another physical form. Countries regulate their national bibliographic collection with international standards such as the Guidelines for the National Bibliographic Agency and the National Bibliography as well as domestic regulations. Records in accordance with international standards are prepared by national bibliographic agencies which closely verify the authorship and background of the publication. These records contain all the details required by a wide and varied application. It is also important that the system of bibliographic units is transparent and interoperable on the international level. The key principle of this is the introduction of the ISDS (International Serials Data System). The member states that have adopted this system have established national and/or regional centres for the ISDS within the national bibliographic agency.

In our research, we limited ourselves to the field of education and training. The remaining areas, such as employment and integration into everyday life, are not in our research focus, because the topic would be too broad, although we are aware that the inclusion of people with special needs is a holistic process that cannot be limited to the field of education only.

The development of the education of the people with special needs has gone through three key development phases: the period of special education, the integration period, and the third period of inclusive education.

Prior to the introduction of inclusion and integration into the school system in the world and in our country, primarily for the purpose of educating children/persons with special needs, we knew the diverse system of special schools and institutions – a kind of parallel education system which also had a special legislation. Special stigmas, underestimation and neglect of people with special needs were glued to these schools and institutions. Therefore, in particular the parents of these children took initiatives and, together with experts, began efforts for a single school for all. This period lasted until about the middle of the 1970s.

After a period of extended special schools, a second period is marked by the efforts to integrate these people into ordinary schools, which took place in the field of civilian efforts, professional circles and international associations. These "normalization" processes began already in the 1950s. They were first shown as an effort to include all the

pupils, students or individuals in a common learning space in a way that was adapted to the majority system while providing supportive measures. This period dominated until about the end of the 1980s and we recognize it as a period of integration.

The third period is the period of inclusion where the emphasis is placed on the adaptation of the environment to an individual or where the environment is ready to receive these persons and always offers them open access. The overcoming of the concept of adapting people with special needs to the general condition of education is recognized through a social model of treatment that emphasizes the importance of the environment and social relations. The concept of inclusion is most closely related to the population of people with special needs and their inclusion in education, although we cannot exclude its use in other areas of life, such as employment and everyday life.

In our research, we used the method of analyzing the bibliographic units according to the criteria of occurrence of individual terms and in terms of expressions (2) in the field of education using the COBISS system. For the purpose of the research, the following conceptual areas were taken into account: school (all), pedagogical, teacher, integration, inclusive, inclusive-school, inclusive-teaching, inclusive-pedagogical.

We filtered the entire bibliographic material. For the purpose of comparison, the editions were distributed in the following period. Since 1993, when the breakdown of the social system also occurred, the phenomenon of inclusion trends was observed until 2000, when the Act on the Guidance of Children with Special Needs was formally adopted. It represents the actual enactment of the inclusive approach and the remaining period consisting of two phases: the first period represents the actual enactment of the inclusive approach and the second period of implementation of the inclusion in practice.

All the bibliographic units were included in the analysis, both in material and electronic form. We only analysed the Slovenian bibliography, since this is directly reflected in the reflection of integration and inclusion themes.

For the purpose of this research, we followed the "keyword" criterion. Each bibliographic record is defined by five keywords in the cataloging process, which enables a relatively good definition of material content and a credible analysis. The keyword analysis is more reliable and accurate than the one based on the "title of work," so we chose the keyword selection criteria.

We found that the existing Slovenian bibliographic system COBISS offers many possibilities of accurate analytical judgment with a large amount of structured data. With various methods of filtering bibliography – with the help of criteria –, we can relatively easily access the data. With built-in tools, we get answers to various research questions. This avoids some modern research problems, such as ensuring adequate patterns, responding to interviewees and the reliability of responses. Since the bibliographic system is at the same time an exceptionally large sample identical to the real base, this type of analysis is more reliable. All this enables the digitization of the area which must be consistent, systematic and accurate.

In our research, we sourced from 5,020,935 bibliographic records, of which 2,262,242 are in the Slovenian language, which is less than 50%. There are 273,641 bibliographic units in the field of education or in relation to the school system. Based on this experience, we find that such approaches in research have potential. Using the

analysis, we obtained a credible insight into how integration and inclusion are reflected in the Slovenian bibliography, and, at the same time, we verified how the COBISSS system is used for scientific and professional analysis.

On the basis of the performed analysis, we conclude that integration and inclusion as a key concept for the education of persons with special needs are reflected in the Slovenian bibliography, but to a smaller extent, as they together achieve a 6 % range in the school bibliography and more than 5 % of integration. This means that it would be necessary to give incentives for a greater scope of both analytical and research work, particularly other forms of content, such as books, textbooks, the materials that show the greatest deficit/fall, since these forms are addressed in a simpler and more accessible way also by other reading. This especially applies to the field of inclusion/inclusive education, which is still mostly a bibliographic response rather than an occurrence of a very small volume of 158 copies per year, and to the book contents of manuals, textbooks and popular works, where these concepts are hardly found.

Through the trend of growing editions, inclusion and modern education for people with special needs is more recognizable. However, they are focused more on academic and research circles and do not get enough access to broader categories of people, because they lack the right forms of communication. This undoubtedly has implications for the recognition and understanding of modern inclusive education and perhaps also the inclination towards these educational (inclusive) approaches, because for the most people they are simply unknown and therefore incomprehensible. Therefore, these issues and problems should be addressed by schools, faculties and the relevant ministry in order to intensify publication in book formats, debates, interviews and such which the bibliography now hardly contains.

Integration and inclusion are reflected in the bibliography in contradictory trends: integration with smaller reflectivity, appearing as if in decline, and inclusion with exponential growth. This growth, however, is the greatest in research works. The growth of the publication of the bibliography on the topic of inclusion can be gratifying but not sufficient. The bibliography on the topic of integration loses its share in publications. Integration has obviously become a less interesting topic both for research as well as discussions, interviews and various forms of library material for a wider reading base. Integration and inclusion as modern phenomena in the education of people with special needs should be understood as a prerequisite for a better establishment of a community in the classroom and a departure from the tendencies of individualism spread in today's schools. The results of the analysis show that the ideas of creating a community (class, school, group, etc.) are less and less focused on those who deal with education or teaching. All should be aware that inclusion/integration with the social dimension is the one which persons/pupils and individuals with special needs expect the most. Particularly in the current period, when we are facing trends of abandoning special schools and when more and more individuals with special needs enter general educational forms. This, in the majority of the population, can lead to adverse and rejecting behaviours and attitudes.

We have also found that the integration and inclusion in the general school system are neglected. Thus, the people with special needs are also neglected in the context of equity and equal opportunities to quality education in an integrative way, since there is no proportionate investment of resources in research, textbooks, books and other

products relative to this topic. Since the deficit of bibliographical reflection primarily concerns those types that are more accessible and understandable by the wider public, this may result in misunderstanding and refusal of attitudes towards this type of education for persons with special needs or towards these persons themselves.

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Anamarija Romih, dr. Katja Košir

Učinki treninga regulacije čustev pri učencih osnovne šole

POVZETEK – Regulacija čustev je ključna spretnost v življenju. Napoveduje splošno prilagoditev, kakovost socialnih odnosov, uspešnost in psihično ter fizično zdravje. V pričujoči raziskavi smo želeli preveriti, ali ima trening regulacije čustev za učence 5. razreda pozitivne učinke na njihovo sposobnost regulacije čustev, socialne spretnosti, pozunanjanje in ponotranjanje, socialne težave, težave s pozornostjo in šolsko kompetentnost. 15 učencev, starih 10 in 11 let, je bilo udeleženih v 11-tedenskem treningu regulacije čustev (enkrat tedensko po dve šolski uri). 23 učencev je sodelovalo v kontrolni skupini. Pri obeh skupinah smo pred in po treningu ocenili preučevane spremenljivke. Vprašalnike so izpolnili učenci, njihovi starši in razredničarke. Rezultati so pokazali, da trening ni imel pomembnega učinka na regulacijo čustev, sovražno gospodovalnost in sebičnost, pozunanjanje, socialne težave, težave s pozornostjo in šolsko kompetentnost. Pomemben učinek treninga pa se je po mnenju staršev pokazal pri treh spremenljivkah: sociabilnosti, socialni občutljivosti in ponotranjanju (depresivnost, anksioznost, somatske pritožbe).

ABSTRACT – Emotion regulation is a key life skill. It predicts a general adjustment, quality of social relations, achievements and mental as well as physical health. In the following study, we aimed to examine the effects of emotion regulation training on emotion regulation ability, social skills, externalizing and internalizing behaviours, social problems, problems with attention and school competence of fifth grade students. 15 students (aged 10 and 11 years) participated in emotion regulation training that lasted 11 weeks (once a week for two periods). 23 students participated in the control group. The variables of interest were assessed in both groups before and after the training using students' self-report, parent report and teacher report measures. The results showed that the training did not have an important effect on emotion regulation, hostile domination and selfishness, externalizing behaviours, social problems or problems with attention and school competence. A significant training effect was determined in the variables of sociability, social sensitivity and internalizing behaviours (depression, anxiety, somatic complaints) evaluated by the parents.

1 Uvod

Čustvena regulacija je spretnost, ki je potrebna, kadar doživljamo konflikt med tem, kar v določenem trenutku občutimo, in tem, kako se moramo vesti v določeni situaciji. Potrebna je, ko učenec potrebuje spremembo nabora informacij, da bi kontroliral svoje vedenje (Macklem, 2011). Thompson (1994) opredeljuje čustveno regulacijo kot zunanje in notranje procese, odgovorne za nadzor, oceno in modifikacijo čustvenih reakcij, še posebno intenzivnih ter začasnih oblik za dosego določenega cilja. Cilj regulacije je spodbuditev pozitivnih in zmanjšanje negativnih čustev (Gross, 2013). Zajema uravnavanje čustvenih stanj pri sebi in drugih (Salovey in Mayer, 1990).

V regulacijo čustev so vključene praktične spretnosti, kot so (Macklem, 2008):
- □ interpretacija obraznih in telesnih izrazov čustev (procesiranje informacij),
- □ jasnost izražanja lastnih čustev,
- □ zavedanje svojih čustev (čustveno znanje),
- □ razumevanje sprožilcev čustev in poznavanje posledic izražanja čustev v svoji kulturi ter
- □ sposobnost upravljanja z intenzivnostjo občutenja in izražanja čustev.

Te spretnosti so med seboj povezane.

Dejavniki razvoja čustvene regulacije so tako biološki kot tudi okoljski. Okoljski vključujejo starševski stil, starševsko vez in interakcijo z otrokom, vplive vrstnikov, vključno s pravili izražanja čustev, in kulturna pričakovanja. Biološki vplivi vključujejo otrokov temperament, nevrobiologijo in pozornost (Fox in Calkins, 2003). Osrednja razvojna naloga otrok in mladostnikov je, da se naučijo regulirati čustva, ko postajajo starejši in se srečujejo z novimi situacijami. Literatura o čustveni regulaciji predlaga, da se otroci lahko naučijo nadzora svojih čustev (Hammond, Westhues in Schmidt Hanbidge, 2009) in da so dobro razvite spretnosti čustvene regulacije varovalni dejavniki, ki spodbujajo socialno funkcioniranje (Izard idr., 2001), učno delovanje (Eisenberg idr., 1997) in fizično zdravje (Salovey, Rothman, Detweiler in Steward, 2000). Prav pri otrocih, ki so najdovzetnejši za učenje, je priložnost za spodbuditev sposobnosti regulacije čustev največja, saj bodo vzorci soočanja, ki jih bodo usvojili, preneseni v njihovo odraslost in nadaljnje soočanje s težavami v življenju (Izard idr., 2001).

Pomembnost regulacije čustev

Čustva lahko organizirajo pozornost ali jo motijo, spodbudijo ali prekinejo reševanje problemov in gradijo odnose ali pa jim škodujejo. Ta dvosmerna interakcija povečuje potrebo po pomoči otrokom, da se naučijo uravnavati svoja čustva. Nadzor pozornosti, reševanje problemov in zdravi odnosi so pomemben dejavnik šolske uspešnosti in osebnega zadovoljstva. Regulacija čustev je pomembno povezana z vedenjem (Gross, 1998), saj otrokom omogoča, da se lahko fleksibilno odzovejo na to, kar se dogaja okoli njih (Forbes, 2003). Je ključna komponenta odpornosti in kompetentnosti (Shapiro, 2000). Deluje kot močan socialni mediator (Smith, 2002), napoveduje zdravje (Salovey, 2006), je ključ do uspeha (Richards in Gross, 2000) in velja za enega najboljših napovedovalcev prilagoditve (Matsumoto, 2002).

Višja stopnja čustvene regulacije je povezana z boljšimi učnimi dosežki (Shipman, Schneider in Brown, 2004). Učenci, ki imajo ustrezne spretnosti regulacije čustev, so uspešnejši pri kognitivnih nalogah (Phillips, Bull, Adams in Fraser, 2002), medtem ko je pomanjkanje teh spretnosti povezano s težavami v delovnem spominu, pozornosti, načrtovanju in koncentraciji (Blair, 2003). Nižje spretnosti regulacije čustev lahko vplivajo na učenčevo usmerjanje pozornosti na navodila in dokončanje naloge. Dobre spretnosti zmanjšajo možnosti za vedenjske težave, ki lahko zmotijo učno funkcioniranje (Huberty, 2012). Sposobnost čustvene regulacije je pozitivno povezana z učno uspešnostjo in produktivnostjo učencev, kot jo zaznavajo učitelji. Pomembno je povezana tudi z zgodnjimi dosežki na standardiziranih testih iz slovenščine in matematike (Macklem,

2011). Raziskava Kwona, Hanrahanove in Kupzyka (2017) je na 417 učencih osnovne šole, starih povprečno 10 let, pokazala, da je regulacija čustev pozitivno povezana z več vidiki učnega delovanja, operacionaliziranega kot primer uspešnosti (branje, matematika), motivacije in truda ter vključenosti v učne naloge.

Sposobnost primernega prepoznavanja, izražanja, upravljanja čustev in odzivanja nanje je potrebna za socialno kompetentnost. Čustvena regulacija je povezana s kvaliteto socialnega funkcioniranja pri otrocih, priljubljenostjo, empatijo in prosocialnim vedenjem (Eisenberg, Fabes, Guthrie in Reiser, 2000). Spretni v čustveni regulaciji so na splošno ocenjeni kot bolj socialno zaželeni, so boljši pri spoprijemanju s konflikti in imajo boljše medosebne spretnosti (Gross in Muñoz, 1995). V zgodnji adolescenci so učenci, ki so lahko kontrolirali čustveno izražanje, imeli boljše odnose z vrstniki, so bili bolj prosocialni in manj agresivni. V adolescenci je čustveni nadzor ključna spremenljivka pri vzdrževanju dobrih odnosov (Vobach in Foster, 2003, po Macklem, 2011). Težave v čustveni regulaciji predstavljajo za otroke tveganje za izolacijo od vrstnikov ali njihovo zavrnitev (Macklem, 2008). Otroci s slabšimi spretnostmi regulacije čustev, ki kažejo impulzivnost, bodo pogosteje kazali socialne težave in bodo bolj verjetno socialno izključeni (Huberty, 2012).

Salovey (2006) je izpostavil, da je posameznik, ki ima težave z regulacijo negativnih čustev, ranljivejši za pritiske okolja. Prisotnost otroške psihopatologije je tesno povezana s čustveno regulacijo. Otroci z motnjami ponotranjanja, kot so depresivna motnja, anksiozna motnja, bulimija, in pozunanjenimi motnjami, kot sta motnja hiperaktivnosti in pozornosti ter motnja opozicionalne kljubovalnosti, konstantno kažejo slabši razvoj čustveno regulacijskih komponent (Gross in Muñoz, 1995). Težave s čustveno regulacijo se kažejo na razponu pogostih kliničnih težav, kot so depresija, anksioznost, posttravmatska stresna motnja in psihoze (Kring in Sloan, 2009). Neuspeh pri učinkovitem reguliranju čustev pa ima implikacije tudi za težave, kot so motnje hranjenja in zloraba drog (Nolen-Hoeksema, Stice, Wade in Bohon, 2007). Raziskovana je vloga čustvene disregulacije pri razvoju somatoformnih motenj, pri katerih primarna simptomatska bolečina ni del prepoznane motnje. Waller in Scheidt (2006) sta povezala te motnje z zmanjšano sposobnostjo doživljanja in razlikovanja čustev ter z nesposobnostjo izražanja čustev na zdrav način.

Trening regulacije čustev v šoli

Ko razmišljamo o podpiranju razvoja regulacije čustev pri učencih v šolah, se moramo osredotočiti tako na intervencijske kot na preventivne dejavnosti. Oba cilja zajemata tako *čustveno razumevanje* kot tudi *čustveno regulacijo*. Trening čustvene regulacije zajema število konceptov in spretnosti. Na začetku je ključen nagovor motivacije za spremembo. Učenci morajo razumeti tudi osnove fiziologije čustev, se naučiti o lastnih telesnih znakih naraščajočih čustev in svojih osebnih sprožilcih čustev. Usvojiti morajo repertoar strategij zmanjšanja čustev. Nadalje se morajo naučiti samonadzora in samozaznavanja za prekinitev agresivnosti, anksioznosti ali razpoloženjskih nihanj. Morajo se naučiti uporabiti besede za samonamige in pomirjevalne fraze, vaditi samogovor, samonagrajevanje in reševanje problemov. Strategije je treba vaditi, dokler niso generalizirane na vsa okolja in pripravljene na uporabo v določeni realni čustveno-provo-

kativni situaciji (Macklem, 2011). Intervencije se morajo osredotočiti tudi na izgradnjo samozavesti (Suveg in Zeman, 2004).

Teme, ki jih pokriva trening čustvene regulacije, so naslednje (Macklem, 2011):

- *čustveno znanje in razumevanje*: pozitivna, negativna in mešana čustva, funkcije in sprožilci čustev, približevanje in izogibanje kot čustveni akcijski težnji;
- *prepoznavanje čustev*: čustveno izražanje pri drugih, povezovanje situacij s čustvi;
- *čustveno izražanje*: čustveno izražanje in govorica telesa pri nas samih, pravila izražanja čustev in maskiranje, verbalno izražanje čustev (besednjak za čustva); čustvena intenziteta;
- *čustvena regulacija*: menjavanje čustev, strategije za pomiritev, uporaba pozornosti za regulacijo čustev in uporaba "glave" za regulacijo naših čustev.

Učinki treningov regulacije čustev za učence

V večini študij, ki so preverjale učinke programov spodbujanja čustvene regulacije, so bili ciljna skupina učenci z različnimi težavami, povezanimi s sposobnostjo čustvene regulacije (npr. Hammond, Westhues in Schmidt Hanbidge, 2009; Havighurst idr., 2015; Pat-Horenczyk, Sim Wei Shi, Schramm-Yavin, Bar-Halpern in Tan, 2015; Wyman idr., 2010). Raziskave večinoma preverjajo učinke teh programov z merjenjem neposredne sposobnosti, ki jo spodbujajo (regulacije čustev, čustvenega razumevanja; npr. Pat-Horenczyk idr., 2015; Pons, Harris in Doudin, 2002), z merjenjem socialnih težav, težavnega vedenja (npr. Havighurst idr., 2015), socialnih spretnosti (npr. Wyman idr., 2010) ter z zbiranjem mnenj zadovoljstva s programom (npr. Pat-Horenczyk idr., 2015). Starost učencev, vključenih v tovrstne treninge, se giblje med 7 in 14 let. Stabilno se potrjujejo učinki programov spodbujanja regulacije čustev na zadovoljstvo vključenih, povečanje pozitivnih strategij soočanja, povečano iskanje pomoči, zmanjšanje distresa, povečanje čustvenega razumevanja in empatije, manjše težave z vedenjem in izboljšanje socialnih spretnosti (Hammond idr., 2009; Havighurst idr., 2015; Ornaghi, Brockmeier in Grazzani, 2014; Pat-Horenczyk idr., 2015; Pons idr., 2002; Wyman idr., 2010). Raziskave pa potrjujejo tudi dolgoročne učinke programov spodbujanja čustvene regulacije (npr. tri leta po končanju programa). Rezultati študije Hammonda idr. (2009) so namreč pokazali, da je dosegla skupina, v kateri so spodbujali čustveno regulacijo, pomembno izboljšanje na štirih od desetih področjih: čustveno zavedanje, čustvena izraznost, število identificiranih telesnih namigov in število identificiranih pomirjujočih aktivnosti.

2 Namen raziskave

Namen pričujoče raziskave je bil sestaviti in izvesti učinkovit program spodbujanja regulacije čustev pri učencih ter predvsem kvazieksperimentalno preveriti učinkovitost sestavljenega programa pri učencih 5. razreda osnovne šole. Namen projekta je bil tudi opremiti učence 5. razreda izbranih šol z materialom in izročki, ki se jim bodo

lahko vračali v pregled vedno, ko bodo potrebovali pomoč pri uravnavanju čustev, in jih spodbuditi k čim večji aplikaciji naučenega v njihovo vsakdanje življenje. Učenci so bili v času izvajanja treningov deležni tudi svetovanja ob morebitnih stiskah, relevantnih vprašanjih in empatičnega prostora za ventiliranje. Raziskava je imela preventivni namen, kar pomeni, da ciljna skupina niso bili le učenci s težavami, povezanimi s sposobnostjo čustvene regulacije, ampak predvsem tisti učenci, ki so menili, da trening potrebujejo oziroma si ga želijo.

Učinkovitost izvedenega treninga regulacije čustev smo preverili z neposrednim kazalnikom (ali se je izboljšala sposobnost regulacije čustev) in z bolj posrednimi učinki (ali so se izboljšale spretnosti in težave, povezane s sposobnostjo regulacije čustev). Predpostavljali smo, da bodo učenci, ki so sodelovali v treningu regulacije čustev, kazali večji porast sposobnosti čustvene regulacije v primerjavi s kontrolno skupino (hipoteza 1). Predpostavljali smo tudi, da bodo učenci, ki so sodelovali v treningu regulacije čustev, dosegli večji porast socialnih spretnosti v meritvah pred in po treningu na samoocenjevalnem vprašalniku v primerjavi s kontrolno skupino (hipoteza 2). Učenci, ki so sodelovali v treningu regulacije čustev, bodo kazali večje razlike v s strani staršev in razredničarke poročanih vedenjih ponotranjanja (hipoteza 3) in pozunanjanja (hipoteza 4) med meritvami pred in po treningu v primerjavi s kontrolno skupino. Predvidevali smo tudi, da bodo učenci, ki so sodelovali v treningu regulacije čustev, v primerjavi s kontrolno skupino kazali večje razlike v meritvah pred in po treningu glede socialnih težav (hipoteza 5) in težav s pozornostjo (hipoteza 6), o katerih bodo poročali starši in razredničarka. Nazadnje smo predvidevali, da bodo učenci iz eksperimentalne skupine v primerjavi s kontrolno skupino kazali višjo šolsko kompetentnost po treningu kot pred njim (hipoteza 7).

3 Metodologija

Udeleženci

V raziskavo so bili vključeni učenci 5. razreda (starost med 10 in 11 let) treh različnih osnovnih šol v Mariboru. Sodelovalo je 38 učencev, pri čemer je eksperimentalna skupina zajemala 15 učencev, kontrolna pa 23 učencev. Udeleženih je bilo torej 38 učencev in 38 staršev ter 4 učiteljice, ki so pri obeh merjenih sodelovale le v eksperimentalni skupini. V tej skupini je sodelovalo 11 dečkov in 4 deklice, v kontrolni skupini pa 11 deklic in 12 dečkov. Učenci niso bili naključno razdeljeni v skupine, saj so sodelovali tisti, ki so želeli. Vsi sodelujoči so predhodno podpisali informirana soglasja o sodelovanju (sodelujoči starši tudi za svoje otroke).

Pripomočki

Za testiranje predpostavljenih hipotez smo uporabili Indeks čustvene regulacije za otroke in mladostnike (Emotion Regulation Index for Children and Adolescents – ERICA; MacDermott, Gullone, Allen, King, Tonge, 2010); Test socialnih spretnosti za šol-

ske otroke in mladostnike (ASSC – Assessing Social Skills in Children; Matson, 1983, po Lamovec, 1994); Ocenjevalno lestvico vedenja za otroke od 6 do 18 let; oblika za učitelja/-ico (Child Behavior Checklist-Teacher's Report Form – TRF; Achenbach, po Edelbrock in Achenbach, 1984); Ocenjevalno lestvico vedenja za otroke od 6 do 18 let; oblika za starše (Child Behavior Checklist – CBCL; Achenbach, 1978); Evalvacijski vprašalnik za učence in evalvacijski vprašalnik za starše sodelujočih v eksperimentalni skupini. Indeks čustvene regulacije za otroke in mladostnike, smo prevedli v namen raziskave. Prevod smo pred uporabo potrdili s pilotsko študijo. Indeks čustvene regulacije je samoocenjevalno merilo za oceno ključnih vidikov čustvene regulacije, predvsem procesov, ki vključujejo čustveno labilnost, intenzivnost, valenco, fleksibilnost in situacijsko primernost. Koeficient zanesljivosti kot notranje skladnosti vprašalnika na našem vzorcu znaša 0,74. Test socialnih spretnosti za šolske otroke in mladostnike služi za ugotavljanje značilnosti medosebnega odzivanja. Achenbachove lestvice ocenjevanja otrok in mladostnikov so del Achenbachovega sistema empirično utemeljenega ocenjevanja prilagojenega funkcioniranja, vedenjskih, čustvenih in socialnih težav. Evalvacijska vprašalnika smo sestavili, da bi z njima ocenili izvedeni trening regulacije čustev.

Postopek

Po pridobitvi soglasij s strani šol in pridobitvi mnenja o etičnosti raziskave smo projekt predstavili ciljnim učencem in staršem. Na dveh osnovnih šolah so bili učenci, ki so se prijavili za sodelovanje, vključeni v trening regulacije čustev. Tretja osnovna šola je služila kot kontrolna skupina.

Pred pričetkom treningov so sodelujoči učenci, njihovi starši in razredničarke izpolnili vprašalnike. Treningi regulacije čustev so potekali ločeno na obeh šolah, 11 tednov, enkrat tedensko po dve šolski uri, od marca do junija 2017. Vsebina dela z učenci se je osredotočala na psihoedukacijo in aktivnosti za spodbujanje razumevanja čustev in njihovega uravnavanja. Urili smo strategije povečanja pozitivnih čustev, znanje o funkcijah in sprožilcih čustev, prepoznavanje čustev pri drugih, razumevanje lastnih čustvenih izrazov, povezovanje situacij s čusti, razumevanje kulturnih pravil kazanja in maskiranja čustev, besedni zaklad za čustva, zavedanje in nadzor čustvene intenzivnosti, urili preusmerjanje, menjavanje čustev, strategije za pomiritev in miselne strategije regulacije čustev (kognitivna ponovna ocena). Udeležencem obeh eksperimentalnih skupin je bila v času treningov na voljo telefonska številka, namenjena podpori ob morebitnih stiskah. Vsako srečanje je bilo namenjeno tudi obnovitvi vsega že usvojenega in obujanju aktivnosti, ki smo jih izvajali na preteklih srečanjih. Ves čas smo učence opozarjali na pomembnost prenosa spoznanih tehnik v njihovo vsakdanje življenje.

V tednu od 5. do 9. junija smo na vseh treh šolah ponovno razdelili vprašalnike. Na osnovni šoli, ki je sodelovala le kot kontrolna skupina, razredničarke niso želele ponovno izpolniti vprašalnikov za pripadajoče učence. Konec junija smo zbrali vse izpolnjene vprašalnike in podatke kvantitativno obdelali v statističnem programu SPSS (IBM SPSS Statistics 20) s pomočjo deskriptivne in inferenčne statistike, bivariatnih ter multivariatnih analiz.

4 Rezultati

Tabela 1 prikazuje merila opisne statistike za vse preučevane spremenljivke glede na kontrolno in eksperimentalno skupino ter glede na merjenje pred in po treningu regulacije čustev v eksperimentalni skupini. Največja odstopanja med skupinami pri primerjavi prvega in drugega merjenja, vidimo pri sociabilnosti, socialni občutljivosti in ponotranjanju (ocena staršev).

Tabela 1: Mere opisne statistike za vse preučevane odvisne spremenljivke

Mera	Skupina	Meritev pred treningom		Meritev po treningu	
		M	SD	M	SD
Regulacija čustev	KS	64,43	6,24	65,78	6,17
	ES	61,47	7,17	63,00	8,31
Sovražna gospodovalnost in sebičnost	KS	35,17	6,15	34,35	6,55
	ES	34,27	9,44	32,40	6,61
Socialna iniciativnost	KS	41,78	5,81	42,13	6,96
	ES	44,33	5,50	42,53	9,05
Sociabilnost	KS	35,17	3,20	35,39	3,00
	ES	34,13	3,25	37,33	3,33
Socialna občutljivost	KS	18,39	3,62	18,91	3,40
	ES	15,73	2,52	19,27	3,17
Vedenja pozunanjanja (S)	KS	2,83	2,33	2,39	1,99
	ES	7,67	6,25	6,33	7,70
Vedenja pozunanjanja (U)	KS	3,62	5,86	/	/
	ES	4,87	6,74	6,40	6,81
Vedenja ponotranjanja (S)	KS	4,09	4,40	4,30	4,57
	ES	5,80	5,70	3,60	4,03
Vedenja ponotranjanja (U)	KS	3,48	3,11	/	/
	ES	5,60	4,26	5,27	3,15
Socialne težave (S)	KS	1,17	1,30	1,17	1,11
	ES	2,20	2,60	2,13	2,42
Socialne težave (U)	KS	1,21	1,78	/	/
	ES	2,27	2,58	1,33	1,92
Težave s pozornostjo (S)	KS	2,13	2,07	1,57	1,70
	ES	5,20	3,86	4,53	4,00
Težave s pozornostjo (U)	KS	5,21	7,34	/	/
	ES	9,20	7,68	11,13	8,59
Šolska uspešnost* (S)	KS	2,39	0,58	2,39	0,50
	ES	2,07	0,46	2,07	0,59
Šolska uspešnost** (U)	KS	3,79	0,73	/	/
	ES	3,20	0,86	3,07	0,80
Povprečje zadnjih PZ (U)	ES	3,72	0,94	3,68	0,79
Učenje*** (U)	ES	3,60	1,60	3,47	1,41

Opombe: KS – kontrolna skupina; ES – eksperimentalna skupina; S – ocene staršev; U – ocene učiteljev; PZ – preizkusi znanja; M – aritmetična sredina; SD – standardni odklon; * – ocene na lestvici od 0 (neuspešen) do 3 (nadpovprečen); ** – ocene na lestvici od 1 (zelo podpovprečno) do 5 (visoko nadpovprečno); *** – ocene na lestvici od 1 (veliko manj) do 7 (veliko več v primerjavi z vrstniki).

Tabela 2: Koeficienti povezanosti rezultatov na Indeksu regulacije čustev za otroke in mladostnike z raziskovanimi konstrukti

Spremenljivka	Regulacija čustev
Sovražna gospodovalnost in sebičnost	−0,51**
Sociabilnost	0,46**
Socialna iniciativnost	−0,25*
Socialna občutljivost	0,22*
Ponotranjanje – starši	−0,32**
Ponotranjanje – učitelj	−0,38*
Pozunanjanje – starši	−0,33**
Pozunanjanje – učitelj	−0,27
Socialne težave – starši	−0,15
Socialne težave – učitelj	−0,23
Težave pozornosti – starši	−0,56**
Težave pozornosti – učitelj	−0,36*
Šolska uspešnost – starši	0,13
Šolska uspešnost – učitelj	0,32*

Opombi: * – korelacija je statistično značilna na intervalu 0,05 (dvosmerno testiranje), ** – korelacija je statistično značilna na intervalu 0,01 (dvosmerno testiranje).

Zgornja tabela prikazuje koeficiente korelacije med sposobnostjo regulacije čustev in drugimi preučevanimi spremenljivkami. Smer in statistična značilnost koeficientov povezanosti dokazujeta, da večina preučevanih konstruktov ustreza teoretičnim predpostavkam o povezanosti s sposobnostjo regulacije čustev. Korelacije sicer niso visoke, vendar so statistično pomembne. Najvišji negativni korelaciji sta med sposobnostjo regulacije čustev in težavami pozornosti po poročanju s strani staršev ter med regulacijo čustev in sovražno gospodovalnostjo in sebičnostjo. Najvišja pozitivna povezanost s sposobnostjo regulacije čustev pa se pokaže pri spremenljivki sociabilnost. Najbolj odstopajoča je povezanost socialnih težav s sposobnostjo regulacije čustev, ki je sicer negativna, vendar v našem primeru ni statistično značilna. Zanimivo pa je tudi, da je socialna iniciativnost kot vidik socialne spretnosti statistično pomembno negativno povezana s sposobnostjo regulacije čustev. Analiza povezanosti s predpostavljenimi konstrukti načeloma kaže na konstruktno veljavnost prevedenega vprašalnika.

Da bi preučili učinke izvedenega treninga regulacije čustev pri učencih, smo uporabili dvosmerno mešano ANOVO, ki je bila izvedena za preverjanje učinka treninga in meritve na sposobnost regulacije čustev in vidike, ki so povezani s sposobnostjo regulacije čustev. Dejavnik znotraj subjektov pri tem predstavlja spremenljivka meritev pred/po treningu, medtem ko prisotnost/odsotnost treninga predstavlja dejavnik med subjekti. Pri ocenah razrednačark v kontrolni skupini nimamo pridobljenih rezultatov drugega merjenja, zato smo se osredotočili zgolj na preučevanje razlik med prvim in drugim merjenjem v eksperimentalni skupini. V ta namen smo uporabili t-test za odvisne vzorce.

Dvosmerna mešana ANOVA

Rezultati dvosmerne mešane ANOVE so pokazali, da učinek *meritve* ni statistično značilen pri naslednjih spremenljivkah:

- □ regulacija čustev: $F(1, 36) = 1,92$, $p = 0,18$;
- □ sovražna gospodovalnost in sebičnost: $F(1, 36) = 1,53$, $p = 0,22$;
- □ socialna iniciativnost: $F(1, 36) = 0,47$, $p = 0,50$;
- □ pozunanjanje (ocena staršev): $F(1, 36) = 1,68$, $p = 0,20$;
- □ ponotranjanje (ocena staršev): $F(1, 36) = 3,94$, $p = 0,06$;
- □ socialne težave (ocena staršev): $F(1, 36) = 0,02$, $p = 0,90$;
- □ težave s pozornostjo (ocena staršev): $F(1, 36) = 3,42$, $p = 0,07$;
- □ šolska uspešnost (ocena staršev): $F(1, 36) = 0,00$, $p = 1,00$.

Statistično značilen je učinek meritve na:

- □ sociabilnost: $F(1, 36) = 26,82$, $p = 0,00$, $\eta^2 = 0,43$;
- □ socialno občutljivost: $F(1, 36) = 28,68$, $p = 0,00$, $\eta^2 = 0,43$.

Rezultati so pokazali, da ni statistično pomembnega učinka *treninga (med subjekti)* pri:

- □ regulaciji čustev: $F(1, 36) = 2,02$, $p = 0,16$;
- □ sovražni gospodovalnosti in sebičnosti: $F(1, 36) = 0,47$, $p = 0,50$;
- □ socialni iniciativnosti: $F(1, 36) = 0,54$, $p = 0,47$;
- □ sociabilnosti: $F(1, 36) = 0,20$, $p = 0,66$;
- □ socialni občutljivosti: $F(1, 36) = 1,29$, $p = 0,26$;
- □ ponotranjanju (ocena staršev): $F(1, 36) = 0,12$, $p = 0,73$;
- □ socialnih težavah (ocena staršev): $F(1, 36) = 3,25$, $p = 0,08$.

Trening pa ima med subjekti statistično značilen učinek na:

- □ pozunanjanje (ocena staršev): $F(1, 36) = 9,86$, $p = 0,00$, $\eta^2 = 0,22$;
- □ težave s pozornostjo (ocena staršev): $F(1, 36) = 11,50$, $p = 0,00$, $\eta^2 = 0,24$;
- □ šolsko uspešnost (ocena staršev): $F(1, 36) = 5,37$, $p = 0,03$, $\eta^2 = 0,13$.

Interakcija med meritvijo in treningom ni statistično pomembna pri naslednjih spremenljivkah:

- □ regulacija čustev: $F(1, 36) = 0,01$, $p = 0,93$;
- □ sovražna gospodovalnost/sebičnost: $F(1, 36) = 0,23$, $p = 0.64$;
- □ socialna iniciativnost: $F(1, 36) = 1,02$, $p = 0,32$;
- □ pozunanjanje (ocena staršev): $F(1, 36) = 0,43$, $p = 0,52$;
- □ socialne težave (ocena staršev): $F(1, 36) = 0,02$, $P = 0,90$;
- □ težave s pozornostjo (ocena staršev): $F(1, 36) = 0,02$, $p = 0,88$;
- □ šolska uspešnost (ocena staršev): $F(1, 36) = 0,00$, $p = 1,00$.

Interakcija treninga in meritve je statistično pomembna za:

- □ sociabilnost: $F(1, 36) = 20,43$, $p = 0,00$, $\eta^2 = 0,362$;
- □ socialno občutljivost: $F(1, 36) = 14,71$, $p = 0,00$, $\eta^2 = 0,29$;
- □ ponotranjanje (ocena staršev): $F(1, 36) = 5,85$, $p = 0,02$, $\eta^2 = 0,14$.

T-test za odvisne vzorce (ocene razredničark)

Rezultati so pokazali, da pri udeležencih eksperimentalne skupine ni statistično pomembne razlike med testiranjem pred in po treningu v rezultatih pri:

- pozunanjanju: $t(14) = 1,09$, $p > 0,05$; koeficient korelacije med ocenami učiteljev in staršev na prvi meritvi težav pozunanjanja znaša 0,44 (korelacija je statistično značilna na ravni $p \leq 0,01$);
- ponotranjanju: $t(14) = 0,46$, $p > 0,05$; koeficient korelacije med ocenami staršev in ocenami učiteljev znaša 0,31 (korelacija je statistično značilna na ravni $p \leq 0,05$);
- socialnih težavah: $t(14) = 1,97$, $p > 0,05$;
- težavah s pozornostjo: $t(14) = 1,90$, $p > 0,05$; korelacija med ocenami staršev in razredničark znaša 0,57 (korelacija je statistično značilna na ravni $p \leq 0,01$);
- povprečju zadnjih preizkusov znanja: $t(14) = 0,53$, $p > 0,05$;
- učni uspešnosti: $t(14) = 1,00$, $p > 0,05$;
- količini učenja v primerjavi z vrstniki: $p > 0,05$;
- in trudu učencev: $p > 0,05$.

5 Razprava

Namen pričujoče raziskave je bil kvazi-eksperimentalno preveriti učinkovitost oblikovanega programa spodbujanja regulacije čustev pri slovenskih učencih 5. razreda osnovne šole. Želeli smo preveriti, ali 11-tedenski trening regulacije čustev pomembno vpliva na spremembe v sposobnosti regulacije čustev učencev, v njihovih socialnih spretnostih in težavah, pri ponotranjanju in pozunanjanju, težavah s pozornostjo in v šolski kompetentnosti. Hkrati smo želeli pridobiti tudi povratne informacije o všečnosti in koristnosti tovrstnega spodbujevalnega programa.

Predpostavljali smo, da se bo sposobnost regulacije čustev pri učencih v eksperimentalni skupini v primerjavi s kontrolno skupino pomembno povečala na merjenju po treningu. Izkazalo se je, da učenci v eksperimentalni skupini pri samooceni regulacije čustev v primerjavi s kontrolno skupino niso pokazali statistično pomembnih razlik. Razloge lahko iščemo v uporabi nestandardiziranega vprašalnika z našim lastnim prevodom, ki je hkrati zelo kratek (16 postavk). Vsekakor pa ocenjujemo tudi prekratko obdobje za možnost vidnih sprememb. Metaanalitična raziskava treningov otrokovega čustvenega razumevanja je namreč pokazala, da dolžina treninga pomembno vpliva na velikost učinka treninga na razumevanja čustev, še posebno reflektivnih vidikov čustev (Sprung, Münch, Harris, Ebesutani in Hofmann, 2015).

Naslednje so bile samoocene na vprašalniku socialnih spretnosti. Pri sovražni gospodovalnosti in sebičnosti se razlike niso pokazale kot zadostne, saj učinek interakcije treninga in meritve ni statistično značilen. Enako tudi pri lestvici socialne iniciativnosti. Aritmetična sredina sovražne gospodovalnosti in sebičnosti je v eksperimentalni skupini upadla za malo več kot eno točko več kot v kontrolni skupini. V eksperimentalni

skupini je bilo pred treningom tudi več razpršenosti v rezultatih, ki se je pri drugem merjenju zmanjšala. Rezultati so pokazali, da je regulacija čustev statistično pomembno negativno povezana s socialno iniciativnostjo. Rezultat upada aritmetične sredine pri socialni iniciativnosti za eksperimentalno skupino na meritvah po treningu (v primerjavi s kontrolno skupino, kjer se aritmetična sredina poveča), kaže na učinkovitost našega treninga. Socialna iniciativnost se kaže kot komunikativnost, samoiniciativnost pri vzpostavljanju, ohranjanju socialnih stikov, kot tekmovalnost in zmerno nezadovoljstvo z obstoječimi odnosi (Lamovec, 1994). Tekmovalnost in nezadovoljstvo z odnosi postavljata pod vprašaj poimenovanje socialne iniciativnosti kot socialne spretnosti. Še bolj pozitivni pa so rezultati za lestvici sociabilnost in socialna občutljivost. Pri obeh lestvicah se kaže statistično pomemben učinek interakcije meritve in treninga. Na meritvah po treningu se kaže večji porast spretnosti sociabilnosti (pripravljenost pomagati, prijaznost, ustrežljivost, odsotnost ljubosumnosti, držanje obljub in brezskrbnost v medosebnih odnosih) in socialne občutljivosti (občutljivost za druge, rahločutnost, skromnost in optimizem v medosebnih odnosih) (Lamovec, 1994) za eksperimentalno skupino. 36,2 % variance v sociabilnosti in 29 % variance v socialni občutljivosti lahko pripišemo interakciji treninga in meritve.

Predpostavljali smo tudi, da bo eksperimentalna skupina v primerjavi s kontrolno kazala po treningu manj nagnjenja k pozunanjanju (delinkventno, agresivno vedenje). Ocene so za udeležence dali njihovi starši in razredničarke. Izkazalo se je, da trening po ocenah staršev ni imel statistično pomembnega učinka. Statistično pomemben pa je učinek treninga med subjekti, ki pojasni 22 % variabilnosti v rezultatih. Udeleženci eksperimentalne skupine imajo tako precej več težav s pozunanjanjem kot kontrolna skupina. Eksperimentalno skupino sestavlja tudi več razlik znotraj skupine, saj je razrešenost okoli srednje vrednosti precej večja kot v kontrolni skupini. Učinek ocenjujemo kot večji prav zaradi dela s skupino, bolj nagnjeno k pozunanjanju in raznolikosti pri tem vedenju. Pri ocenah nagnjenja k pozunanjanju s strani razredničark se v eksperimentalni skupini ne pokažejo statistično pomembne razlike v rezultatih med testiranjem pred in po treningu. Razredničarke poročajo celo o povečanju pozunanjanja v eksperimentalni skupini. Udeleženci, ki niso obiskovali treningov, izražajo manj pozunanjanja tudi po poročanju učiteljev. Vendar pa so rezultati pomanjkljivi, saj so razredničarke učencev kontrolne skupine pri drugem merjenju odstopile.

Nekoliko drugačno dinamiko so rezultati pokazali pri ponotranjanju (depresivnost, anksioznost in somatske pritožbe), kjer smo prav tako pričakovali upad po treningu za eksperimentalno skupino. Analiza ocen staršev glede na meritev pred in po treningu in glede na eksperimentalno in kontrolno skupino je pokazala, da je imel trening pomemben učinek na rezultate. Učinek interakcije med meritvijo in treningom je statistično pomemben in pojasni 14 % variabilnosti v rezultatih ponotranjanja. Ponotranjanja so se v kontrolni skupini po treningu minimalno povečala, medtem ko so se v eksperimentalni skupini zmanjšala. Podobno Schuppert in sodelavci (2009) poročajo o statistično pomembnem učinku treninga regulacije čustev skozi čas na ponotranjanje, ne pa tudi na pozunanjanje. Pri ocenah razredničark ni statistično pomembnih razlik med meritvami pred in po treningu za udeležence eksperimentalne skupine.

Ocene staršev so pokazale, da trening prav tako ni imel učinka na rezultate na lestvici socialnih težav, saj so razlike glede na prisotnost/odsotnost treninga in meritev pred/po treningu neznatne. Enako tudi ocene razredničark kažejo, da ni statistič-

no pomembnih razlik v eksperimentalni skupini med testiranjem pred in po treningu. Rezultati se sicer skladajo s tem, da socialne težave na našem vzorcu niso statistično pomembno povezane z regulacijo čustev. So pa nekoliko bolj negativno povezane z regulacijo čustev po ocenah razrednjičark. Na to kaže tudi večja sprememba med rezultati pred in po treningu pri njihovih ocenah socialnih težav za eksperimentalno skupino (kar bi lahko govorilo v prid učinku treninga). Izsledki so sicer v nasprotju s predhodnimi dokazi pozitivnih učinkov treninga regulacije čustev na socialni umik in disciplinske napotitve (Wyman idr., 2010). So pa bile dane ocene nizke v primerjavi z ocenami na drugih lestvicah. Postavke na lestvici socialnih težav v našem primeru merijo tudi nesamostojnost, ljubosumnost, odvisnost od drugih, nerodnost in težave z govorom. Mogoče ravno te dimenzije socialnih težav niso dovolj visoko negativno povezane s sposobnostjo regulacije čustev. Predlagamo podrobnejše raziskovanje tega področja.

Predpostavljali smo, da bo eksperimentalna skupina v primerjavi s kontrolno skupino kazala večje razlike v težavah s pozornostjo med testiranjem pred in po treningu. Pri ocenah staršev se ni pokazal učinek treninga, saj meritev in interakcija med meritvijo in treningom nista imeli statistično pomembnega učinka. Pokazala se je velika razlika med začetnimi rezultati eksperimentalne in kontrolne skupine. Čeprav za obe skupini zaznamo manjši upad težav s pozornostjo v aritmetični sredini po treningu, pa verjamemo, da je napredek v eksperimentalni skupini s precej več težav sorazmerno večji. Omeniti moramo tudi, da smo imeli v eksperimentalni skupini udeleženca z diagnozo motnje hiperaktivnosti in pozornosti. Tudi pri ocenah razrednjičark se je pokazalo, da razlike med meritvami pred in po treningu v eksperimentalni skupini niso statistično značilne. Kljub temu pa učitelji na meritvah po treningu poročajo o večjih težavah s pozornostjo. Rezultatov ne moremo pripisati negativnim učinkom treninga, saj nimamo primerjave s kontrolno skupino. Učitelji so težave s pozornostjo v primerjavi z drugimi dimenzijami ocenjevali precej visoko.

Podobno so rezultati pokazali pri domnevi, da bodo učenci iz eksperimentalne skupine kazali po treningu večjo šolsko kompetentnost v primerjavi s kontrolno skupino. Trening po ocenah staršev ni imel učinka na šolsko uspešnost. Skupini sta ponovno težko primerljivi, saj obstaja razkorak med njima. Udeleženci eksperimentalne skupine so manj uspešni. Prav tako razlika po ocenah učiteljic med meritvami pred in po treningu v eksperimentalni skupini ni statistično pomembna. Razrednjičarke so v testni bateriji za vsakega učenca navedle tudi ocene zadnjih preizkusov znanja (4) in ocenile trud ter motivacijo za učenje v primerjavi z vrstniki. Tako se pri povprečju zadnjih preizkusov znanja in pri učenju ter trudu niso pokazale pomembne razlike v eksperimentalni skupini na meritvah pred in po treningu. Pri povprečju in učenju je aritmetična sredina na drugem merjenju neznatno padla, medtem ko se je za trud minimalno povečala. Podobno nakazuje raziskava, v kateri so dokazali, da je regulacija čustev pozitivno povezana s šolskim uspehom preko vključitve v šolsko delo (trud) (Kwon, Hanrahan in Kupzyk, 2017).

Omejitve

Eksperimentalna narava in obsežnost raziskave ter ovire motiviranja udeležencev za vključitev nam niso omogočale zadostnega vzorca za možnost posplošitve izsledkov na splošno populacijo učencev 5. razreda. Pri analizah rezultatov smo ugotovili, da eks-

perimentalna in kontrolna skupina pri merjenih spremenljivkah nista začetno izenačeni, še zlasti pri pozunanjanju, težavah s pozornostjo in šolski uspešnosti. Zaradi začetnih razlik v teh merjenih spremenljivkah so primerjave med skupinami ovirane. Pogojev zaradi raziskovanja v naravnem okolju nismo mogli popolnoma nadzorovati. Prav tako kljub uporabi šifrirnega sistema nismo mogli zagotoviti popolne anonimnosti. Kot omejitev ocenjujemo tudi udeležbo učencev eksperimentalne skupine na treningih, ki pri skoraj nikomur ni bila stoodstotna.

Kot pomemben dejavnik se je pokazal tudi čas merjenja. Drugo merjenje je namreč potekalo ob koncu šolskega leta, kar lahko glede na rezultate ocenjujemo kot omejitev. Rezultati so pokazali, da so razredničarke po treningu poročale o rahlem povečanju nagnjenosti k pozunanjanju in o težavah s pozornostjo. Čeprav rezultatov zaradi odsotnosti rezultatov v kontrolni skupini ne moremo pripisati učinkom treninga, pa lahko razloge za porast nagnjenja k pozunanjanju in težav s pozornostjo iščemo v napetosti ob zaključevanju šolskega leta in kopičenju obveznosti v zadnjem trimesečju. Učenci so takrat bolj pod stresom in hitreje vstopijo v konflikt z drugimi, njihov strah in anksioznost se lahko izrazita skozi jezo (Desautels, 2016). Učitelji so tudi na splošno občutljivejši na pozunanjanja, saj jim ponavadi sledijo vzgojni ukrepi. Težave s pozornostjo so bolj dispozicijske narave in potrebno je daljše in intenzivnejše delo na pozornosti, da se pokažejo spremembe. Otroci in mladostniki z boljšim nadzorom svoje pozornosti so tudi boljši v nadzorovanju svojih čustev (Macklem, 2008), zato morda težje govorimo o obratnem pojavu.

Med največjo omejitev raziskave pa štejemo odstop učiteljev v kontrolni skupini od drugega ocenjevanja. Razredničarke v kontrolni skupini so se zaradi obsežnosti vprašalnika odločile, da ne bodo sodelovale pri merjenju po treningu. Pri ocenah učiteljev smo tako lahko ocenili le razlike med meritvami pred in po treningu za eksperimentalno skupino. Zaradi odsotnosti kontrolne skupine, in s tem nadzorovanja pogojev, rezultatov ne moremo popolnoma pripisati učinku treninga.

Za nadaljnje raziskovanje predlagamo predvsem uporabo krajših vprašalnikov in uporabo manj kliničnega vprašalnika za starše in učitelje. Namesto samoocene učencev bi lahko kot merila uporabili teste znanja (na primer prepoznavanje, razumevanje in uravnavanje čustev). Vsekakor naj bo trening daljši ali pogostejši, saj bo le tako dosežena večja generalizacija naučenih spretnosti v vsakdanje življenje. Za optimalnejšo primerjavo kontrolne in eksperimentalne skupine ter nadzor nad eksperimentalno situacijo bi morali izvesti začetno ocenjevanje in skupini čim bolj izenačiti v začetnih pogojih (spretnostih oziroma merjenih spremenljivkah). Zelo dobro bi bilo, da bi v program spodbujanja vključili tudi kratek trening za starše. Vsebina bi se nanašala predvsem na to, kaj lahko oni naredijo pri spodbujanju regulacije čustev svojega otroka. Verjamemo v to, da bi bilo za najbolj optimalne dosežke treninga treba izobraziti razrednike, ki bi nato delali s svojimi učenci v smeri spodbujanja regulacije čustev. Zaradi nenehnega stika in visoke stopnje zaupanja so najprimernejši za posredovanje tovrstnega znanja tudi s prenosom v realne situacije. Ker pa imajo razredniki omejen čas in vsebine verjetno ne bi mogle biti tako podrobne, bi bilo dobro preveriti, kateri vidiki spodbujanja regulacije čustev imajo največji učinek. Tako za nadaljnje raziskovanje predlagamo, da se tudi v kontrolno skupino vključijo nekatere vsebine spodbujanja upravljanja s čustvi in se njihov učinek primerja z učinkom drugačnih vsebin v eksperimentalni skupini.

6 Sklep

Naša raziskava je pokazala, da se regulacija čustev pozitivno povezuje s sociabilnostjo, socialno občutljivostjo in šolsko uspešnostjo. Negativno pa je povezana s sovražno gospodovalnostjo in sebičnostjo, socialno iniciativnostjo, dovzetnostjo za ponotranjanje in pozunanjanje ter s težavami pozornosti. Izveden preventivni program spodbujanja regulacije čustev za 15 učencev 5. razreda dveh osnovnih šol je imel pomembne učinke na njihove socialne spretnosti (samoocena) – sociabilnost (pripravljenost pomagati, prijaznost, ustrežljivost, odsotnost ljubosumnosti, držanje obljub in brezskrbnost v medosebnih odnosih), socialno občutljivost (občutljivost za druge, rahločutnost, skromnost in optimizem v medosebnih odnosih) in na dovzetnost za ponotranjanje (depresija, anksioznost, somatske pritožbe) po ocenah staršev. To pomeni, da so učenci v eksperimentalni skupini v primerjavi s kontrolno skupino po treningu regulacije čustev kazali več sociabilnosti in socialne občutljivosti ter manj nagnjenosti k ponotranjanju kot pred treningom.

Statistično pomembni učinki se niso pokazali pri spretnosti regulacije čustev, pri nagnjenost k pozunanjanju, socialnih težavah, težavah s pozornostjo in šolski kompetentnosti. Pri sovražni gospodovalnosti in sebičnosti ter socialni iniciativnosti so rezultati nakazali pozitiven vpliv treninga, a ne statistično pomemben. Socialne težave na vzorcu tudi niso bile statistično pomembno negativno povezane z regulacijo čustev. Učitelji po treningu za eksperimentalno skupino poročajo celo o povečanju nagnjenosti k pozunanjanju in težav s pozornostjo. Vendar pa rezultatov ocen učiteljev ne moremo pripisati učinku treninga, saj nam manjka primerjava s kontrolno skupino. Pomembno je tudi dejstvo, da se kontrolna in eksperimentalna skupina precej razlikujeta v začetnih ocenah na skoraj vseh preučevanih spremenljivkah in sta zato težko primerljivi. Naša eksperimentalna skupina namreč nakazuje več težav na merjenih dimenzijah, še zlasti težav s pozornostjo, šolsko uspešnostjo in nagnjenju k pozunanjanju, kjer se učinek treninga in meritve tudi ni pokazal kot statistično pomemben. Verjamemo, da lahko spremembe po treningu v težavnejši eksperimentalni skupini (v primerjavi s kontrolno) vidimo kot nezanemarljiv napredek.

Učenci iz eksperimentalne skupine in njihovi starši so bili z izvedenim treningom regulacije čustev zadovoljni. Učenci so zelo uživali, se veliko naučili o čustvih in nekaj o uravnavanju čustev. Strategije regulacije čustev občasno tudi uporabljajo. Podobno za svoje otroke ocenjujejo tudi starši, ki na splošno menijo, da je treba takšne programe vključevati v šolski sistem. Učenci so ves čas izkazovali naklonjenost do naših srečanj, z njimi smo vzpostavili zaupen odnos in jih opremili z materialom vsebin z naših srečanj. Čeprav smo nenehno spodbujali prenos naučenih vsebin v njihovo vsakdanje življenje, pa menimo, da je bil 11-tedenski program prekratek za večjo aplikacijo, kar se je pokazalo tudi v manjšem učinku treninga, kot smo pričakovali. Učinke izvedenega treninga želimo ponovno preveriti po dveh ali treh letih. Predlagamo nadaljnje raziskovanje tako pomembnega področja in verjamemo, da lahko preventivni programi spodbujanja regulacije čustev v šoli pripomorejo k splošnemu blagostanju učencev.

Anamarija Romih, Katja Košir, PhD

The effects of emotion regulation training on primary school students

Emotion regulation occurs when a person experiences conflict between what they are feeling and how they should act in a particular situation (e.g. when the student is feeling angry but showing anger would be inappropriate in that moment). Emotion regulation is required when the student needs to change information processing for controlling his behaviour (e.g. to look away from something threatening) (Macklem, 2011). A simple way to think about emotion regulation is to think of it as an action of controlling which emotions the individual feels, how and when they feel them and the ways in which these emotions are expressed or might be observed by others (Gross 1998). Thompson (1994) defines emotion regulation as "the extrinsic and intrinsic processes responsible for monitoring, evaluating and modifying emotional reactions, especially their intensive and temporal features, to accomplish one's goals". The goal of emotion regulation is to increase positive and decrease negative emotions (Gross, 2013). It is important for maintaining desired emotional states and intentional goals (Gross, 2002). It includes executive control, spatial work memory and awareness of visual-verbal triggers (Berkman & Lieberman, 2009).

Emotion regulation is necessary for effective functioning. Emotions can organize attention or disturb it, increase or interrupt problem solving and build or harm relationships. This two-way interaction increases the need to help children regulate their emotions. Attention control, problem solving and healthy relationships are vital for academic achievement and personal satisfaction. Emotion regulation enables students to control their behaviour so they can act flexibly on what is going on around them (Forbes, 2003). It is the key component of resistance and competence (Shapiro, 2000). It acts like a strong social mediator (Smith, 2002), predicts health (Salovey, 2006), is considered as a crucial factor of success (Richards & Gross, 2000) and as one of the best predictors of adjustment (Matsumoto, 2002). Emotion regulation correlates with quality of social functioning, popularity and prosocial behaviour (Eisenberg, Fabes, Guthrie & Reiser, 2000). Stronger and more appropriate regulation of emotions is related with higher academic achievement (Shipman, Schneider & Brown, 2004) and higher achievement in cognitive tasks (Phillips, Bull, Adams & Fraser, 2002).

The ability to regulate emotion is essential for social and psychological functioning, and lack of emotion regulation may lead to a variety of problems, including development of psychopathology. Children with internalizing disorders, such as depression and anxiety, and externalizing disorders, including ADHD, substance abuse, oppositional disorders, conduct problems and aggression, evidence problems with emotion regulation (Gross & Muñoz, 1995). Problems with emotion regulation are also shown across a range of other clinical problems, such as PTSD, psychosis (Kring & Sloan, 2009), somatoform disorders, eating disorders and alcohol or drug abuse (Nolen-Hoeksema, Stice, Wade & Bohon, 2007).

Emotion regulation trainings in schools focus on understanding and regulating emotions. Students need to understand the basics of physiology of emotions. They need to learn about their own body signs of rising emotions, their personal triggers and they

need to master a repertoire of emotion reduction strategies. Students need to learn to self-monitor and self-record by completing anger, anxiety or mood logs. They need to learn to use self-cuing words or reassuring phrases, practice self-talk, self-reinforcement, self-evaluation and problem solving. They need to be able to use the skills they are learning in all school environments, with peers and at home with their families (Macklem, 2011). Interventions should focus on building self-esteem (Suveg & Zeman, 2004).

A central developmental task for children and adolescents is learning how to regulate emotions as they get older and encounter new situations. The literature on emotion regulation suggests that children can learn to control their emotions and that well developed emotion regulation skills are protective factors (Hammond, Westhues & Schmidt Hanbidge, 2009). The studies indicate short-term effects of programs for enhancing emotion regulation on regulation of emotion, emotional understanding, social problems, behavioural problems and social skills (Hammond et al., 2009; Havighurst et al., 2015; Ornaghi, Brockmeier & Grazzani, 2014; Pat-Horenczyk, Sim Wei Shi, Schramm-Yavin, Bar-Halpern & Tan, 2015; Pons, Harris & Doudin, 2002; Wyman et al., 2010). Important long-term effects (three years after the program) are also reported (Hammond et al., 2009).

The purpose of this study was to perform a self-designed program for enhancing emotion regulation on fifth grade primary school students in Slovenia. We wanted to quasi-experimentally test the effects of our program. The aim was to check if an 11-week long emotion regulation training would show significant positive changes in students' capability of emotion regulation, their social skills and problems, internalizing and externalizing problems, attention problems and school performance. In addition, feedback on likability and usefulness of the program was gained from the students and their parents. The purpose was also to equip students with material and handouts on key content of the training with the purpose of greater application of the content in their everyday life.

The participants were fifth grade students (aged 10 and 11 years) from three different primary schools in Maribor. Fifteen students (11 boys and 4 girls) participated in emotion regulation training that lasted 11 weeks. Twenty-three students participated in the control group. Parents (38) and teachers (4) were also included as informants. Because of the voluntary nature of the participation, the students were not randomly divided into groups. The study had a preventive purpose. The participants signed the participant consent form. We evaluated the studied variables in both groups before and after the training. The students themselves administered the Emotion Regulation Index for Children and Adolescents (ERICA; MacDermott, Gullone, Allen, King, Tonge, 2009) and the Test of Social Skills in Children and Adolescents (Lamovec, 1994, after ASSC – Assessing Social Skills in Children, Matson, 1983). To gain the parents' and teachers' perspective on the participants' emotion regulation, the Child Behaviour Checklist (CBCL; Achenbach, 1978) and the Child Behaviour Checklist-Teacher's Report Form (TRF; Achenbach, after Edelbrock & Achenbach, 1984) were used. Students of the experimental group and their parents also completed the evaluation questionnaire. Emotion regulation training lasted from March to June 2017. The training was performed in both schools once a week for two school hours. The third school was a control group school. The students gained the knowledge and understanding of positive, negative and mixed emotions, functions and causes of emotions, recognition of

emotion expressions and body language in others and themselves. They were connecting situations with emotions, learned about display rules, masking and they improved their emotion vocabulary. We also worked on emotional intensity, trained strategies for shifting emotions, downregulating and used attentional ability and cognitive strategies to regulate our emotions.

The two-way mixed ANOVA and paired sample t-test (for the teacher's assessment – because in the control group, they resigned at second measurement) showed that the performed preventive program for enhancing emotion regulation in students had a significant effect on their social skills (self-evaluation) – sociability, social sensitivity – and on internalizing behaviuor (depression, anxiety, somatic complaints) as evaluated by the parents. After the training, the experimental group students thus showed higher sociability (readiness to help, kindness, obligingness, absence of jealousy, keeping promises and carefreeness in social relations), social sensitivity (for others, sensibility, modesty and optimism in social relations) and less internalizing problems compared to the control group. The results of hostile domination/selfishness and social initiative showed a possible positive but not statistically significant effect of the training. The results showed that the training did not have an important effect on emotion regulation (self-evaluation), externalizing behaviours (aggression and delinquency), social problems, attention problems and school competence.

In our sample, social problems were not significantly negatively correlated with emotion regulation. After the training, the teachers reported increased externalizing behaviours and attentional problems. We cannot attribute these results to the effects of the training due to a lack of comparison with the control group. It should be taken into account that the control group importantly differed from the experimental group in the starting assessment. The experimental group indicated more problems, especially with attention, school success and externalizing behaviours – measures where the training effect was not statistically significant. In addition, that time of post-training measurement was not optimal because of the general tension intensification at the end of the school year. Also, the duration of the training (11 weeks) disables larger effects on students' emotion regulation.

The students from the experimental group and their parents were satisfied with the emotion regulation training. The students enjoyed the training sessions and believe that they learned a lot about emotions and emotion regulation. They reported that they occasionally use the learned regulation strategies. Their parents' feedback was that this type of programs should be included in school curriculum.

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The effects of civic education instruction

POVZETEK – V prispevku smo v komparativnem kontekstu prikazali status državljanske vzgoje v državah zahodnega Balkana. Prikazali smo sistemske rešitve, izkušnje, dosežke in nekatere ovire državljanskega izobraževanja v dvajsetletnem obdobju v Bosni in Hercegovini (BiH). Izpostavili smo rezultate predhodnih raziskav, zlasti dosežke in omejitve pri državljanski vzgoji. V empiričnem delu smo ugotovili, da se v šolah na področju BiH dosegajo pomembno boljši izobraževalni kot vzgojni učinki pouka državljanske vzgoje. Učenci dosegajo boljše rezultate na državljanskih in drugih verbalno-reproduktivnih področjih znanja kot pa pri izražanju državljanskih kognitivnih in participativnih spretnosti, sposobnosti, stališč, moralnega razsojanja in delovanja ter interpersonalnih aktivnosti. Identificirali smo tudi vzroke za tako stanje in oblikovali predloge za preseganje takega stanja, kar naj bi prispevalo k znanstveno utemeljenemu sistemskemu in inovativno-praktičnemu razvoju državljanskega izobraževanja in celotnega vzgojno-izobraževalnega dela v sodobni šoli.

ABSTRACT – The paper presents a comparative status of civic education in Western Balkans countries. Systemic solutions, experiences, achievements and obstacles of civic education over a twenty-year period in Bosnia and Herzegovina are introduced, along with an emphasis on the findings from several previous researches and the limitations of civic education in Bosnia and Herzegovina and neighbouring countries. In empirical research, the authors have found that in Bosnia and Herzegovina (RS and Federation of B&H) schools have achieved considerably better educational (academic) effects of civic education teaching than upbringing (character education) effects. The respondents achieve better civic and other verbal-reproductive knowledge than civic cognitive and participatory skills, abilities, attitudes (qualities), moral judgment and actions, and interpersonal skills. The causes of this situation as well as suggestions for improving it are provided together with scientifically justified systemic and innovativepractical improvement of civic education and overall education work in contemporary schools.

1 Introduction

At the end of the last (twentieth) century, civic education (education for democracy, foundations of democracy, society and culture, human rights, etc.) was introduced in the school systems of most Western Balkans countries. This intent has not yet been realised in Croatia, while in Serbia, Civic Education is an elective course (students choose between that subject and Religious Education). In the other former Yugoslavian countries, ofthe concept of this new subject (and field) is similar.

For two decades now (since 1996), elementary and high schools in the Republic of Serbia and the Federation of B&H (in Bosnia and Herzegovina) implement the teaching of civic education, so its educational and upbringing effects, scope and limitations can be explored. It is a compulsory subject of the sixth grade primary school (one hour per week) in the Republic of Serbia (RS) and in most cantons of the Federation of B&H in

the sixth, eighth or ninth grade (also one hour per week) as well as in the third grade of high school (two hours per week). In several teachers' colleges, civic education has been a mandatory one-semester course for a decade and a half (with one more semester of civic education teaching methodology). In addition, civic education is a cross-curricular subject (in thematically appropriate contents of other primary school subjects) and is included in the programs of class meetings of grades 2–9 (concepts: authority, responsibility, justice and privacy), in the study of public policy measures (the project "Project citizen" for senior primary and high school students) as well as in extracurricular activities (summer camp in the Brcko district, youth activism in the NGO sector, etc.). The expected effects of overall civic education include developed civic competences of students (children and young people). "Civic competences cover interdependent civic knowledge, skills, attitudes and beliefs, dispositions (qualities) and abilities that allow an individual an effective participation in social life." (Ilic, 2012, p. 45)

Examples of civic competences:

- *Civic knowledge*: Knowledge of citizens' rights and responsibilities in their own country; Understanding of the roles and responsibilities of the government at the local, cantonal and state level.
- *Cognitive civic skills*: Critical analysis of information about current political events or certain activity of citizens (using thematically relevant knowledge).
- *Participative civic skills*: Interaction with other citizens in promoting general interests.
- *Attitudes and beliefs of citizens*: Willingness to volunteer and participate in civic activities
- *Citizens' abilities*: Identification of the causes and consequences of social events and phenomena, distinguishing democracies from manipulation, arguments from indoctrination, etc.

All groups of the mentioned civic competences are in functional interdependence in the profile of an ideal citizen of a democratic society, as is evident from the following diagram.

Diagram 1. Ideal citizen profile
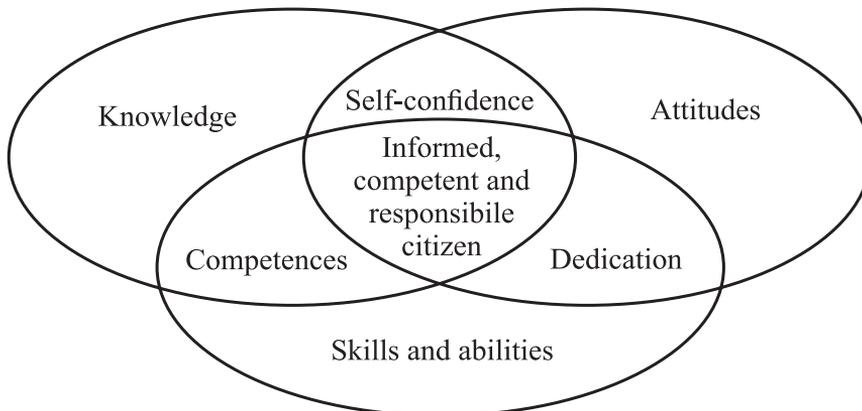
In developed democratic political systems and in countries in transition, laws in education and bylaws govern the rights and obligations of students, respecting the principles of the Convention on the Rights of the Child adopted on 22 November 1989 at the General Assembly of the United Nations. The Convention came into force on 9 February 1990. It guaranteed personal, social, educational, health, social, economic, cultural and judicial protection of children's rights. This document obligates states to ensure the protection of these rights of children, including those which were not hitherto present in international law. One of these rights is the right of the child to know his or her origin, and the right of children with mental and physical disabilities was created, which had previously been present only in the form of recommendation (Novaković, 2014). "Obligations of the school in guaranteeing the rights, freedoms and obligations of students have been regulated in normative and legal sense. In exercising and protecting the rights of students, the school is obliged to take all measures to ensure the safety and health protection of students, take measures to protect the students' rights, and inform of the violation of those rights." (Kostanjevac, 2012, p. 3)

Students learn about their rights and responsibilities in the civic education instruction, the implementation of the program of character education work in class meetings, and in the activities of their organizations. Thus, they gain similar verbal-reproductive civic knowledge of the documents which regulate their rightsand are able to name, explain and classify them. Consequently, the educationalacademic effects of traditional school learning and classical teaching become realised. However, what remains neglected are the corrective, character education effects in the context of authoritarian, even disciplining, communication in the classroom (including civic education) and in other school activities. The students are not frequently in a situation to identify the exercise, i.e. promotion, jeopardizing and preventing the rights and freedoms of students in school, in the family, in the social environment. They are not continuously encouraged to form and defend their views on this, to tolerate different and opposite points of view, to non-violently resolve misunderstandings, to make decisions on important issues of the educational process, life and work at school, public issues and the like equally with adults (teachers, school pedagogues and psychologists, school social workers, directors). Practical application and evaluation of civic knowledge are insufficient. The development of cognitive and participatory civic skills, free and active formation of civic beliefs, attitudes, positive effects and virtues is also neglected. These and other upbringing effects of teaching civic education are still at a low level.

In recent years, we have had a noteworthy empirical research on developments, results, achievements and weaknesses of civic education. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, "the initial investigation included 1505 and final investigation 1685 students in the second, third and fourth year of high school" (Spajić-Vrkaš, Džidić, 2011, p. 7). Findings of empirical research confirmed the expectations that this new subject justifies its purpose. The instruction of this subject contributes to the understanding of concepts, principles, institutions and practices of democracy, human rights and citizenship. However, the results have been better in the level of mastery of the civic knowledge than in the development of civic skills and dispositions (attitudes, virtues) with high school students.

Respecting the scientific points, experiences and open issues of the mentioned tangent research, the concept of our empirical research of educational and upbringing effects of civic education instruction was created.

2 Research methodology

A systematic non-experimental research was conducted in order to identify and analyse the indicators of educational and upbringing effects of teaching civic education or democracy and human rights. The main hypothesis was that in the civic education instruction, educational effects are significantly higher than upbringing effects.

Two research methods were used: ex post facto experiment and survey. Research techniques were testing, scaling and surveying. 11 measuring instruments were used (nine tests, one scale and a questionnaire), whose names are mentioned behind the correlation table below. The tests of knowledge (civic knowledge or acquisition of the contents of civic education, knowledge of the contents from history and biology), independent learning of geography and scale for measuring attitudes to democracy in school are constructed by and calibrated by the authors of this paper. Other instruments that we adapted for the purpose of this study were: the test of moral development – understanding the significance of moral qualities, knowledge of character, making judgement in social situations, moral behaviour and activity, written by Ranka Peašinović, who had already published the instruments in Appendices to the monograph "The function of teachers in the moral development of students" (Peašinović, 1976), and the questionnaire for self-evaluation of interpersonal skills according to Gardner's model of multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1983). The coefficients of reliability (as defined by the Richardson-Kuder form – Rtt) are between 0.74 and 0.84, which is considered sufficient in projects of this kind.

In a convenient sample, there were 810 sixth grade primary school students from the area of eight municipalities – four in Republic of Serbia (Banja Luka, Čelinac, Kneževo and Kotor Varoš) and four in the Federation of B&H (Bosanski Petrovac, Sanski Most and Bosanska Krupa). The research was conducted in the first week of June 2016.

3 Results and discussion

The effects of civic education instruction were classified conditionally in two relatively independent (and related) categories:
- Educational effects or variables (acquisition of contents from the program of civic education or civic knowledge, knowledge of the meaning of moral qualities, knowledge or recognition of the characters described in texts, knowledge of program contents from history, acquisition of contents from biology) and
- Upbringing effects (development of civic skills, judgment in social situations, moral behaviour and activity, independent studying of geography, attitudes towards democracy in school, self-assessment of interpersonal abilities).

The educational effects did not cover only civic knowledge but also a wider range of academic achievement in other subjects (history and biology) and general education (moral qualities, recognition of described characters). Thus, we covered the indications of the transfer of civic education instruction from a compulsory school subject (teaching democracy and human rights) to other subjects, cross-curricularly, as well as in the

integrated instruction focused on learning outcomes and teaching in the sixth grade of primary school. The upbringing effects covered the cognitive and participatory civic skills, abilities and attitudes (virtues), but also general moral competences (judgment and moral action, interpersonal skills) and self-learning ability. These are the connected elements of civic, moral and intellectual pedagogical work.

On average, the educational effects were determined as statistically significantly higher ($M_{oe} = 59.14$; $SD_{oe} = 5.26$) than the upbringing effects ($M_{ve} = 42.18$; $SD_{ve} = 7.34$), as indicated by the t-ratio (t = 6.04; p = 0.081). This confirms our initial hypothesis.

Correlation coefficients of the acquisition of the contents of civic education instruction and educational effects in other subjects and general knowledge show transfer effects and are in favour of the confirmation of our hypothesis.

Table 1. The correlations of the acquisition of the contents of civic education instruction and other educational effects

Variables	*ACCE*	*KMQ*	*KC*	*ACH*	*ACB*
ACCE	–				
KMQ	0.49**	–			
KC	0.38*	0.45**	–		
KCH	0.36*	0.32*	0.19	–	
ACB	0.32*	0.31*	0.17	0.29*	–

Remarks: * – correlation (r) significant at level 0.05; ** – correlation (r) significant at level 0.01; ACCE – acquisition of the contents in civic education; KMQ – knowledge of moral qualities; KC – knowledge of characters; ACH – acquisition of contents in history; ACB – acquisition of contents in biology.

These correlation coefficients show that the more successful the student is in civic education instruction (where civic knowledge is mostly valued), the better is his/her academic achievement in other subjects and moral knowledge, and vice versa. This can be explained by the similarities between teaching and learning in civic education instruction and instruction of other subjects and areas. The lecture style or teacher-centred and central work of teachers as well as students' passive and obedient activities play a key role. These result in memorised verbal-textual knowledge (civil, historiographical, biological, literary theory). Thereby, emancipatory-upbringing processes and outcomes still remain neglected, including the development of civic skills, abilities, attitudes, moral behaviour and prosocial actions.

The indicators of the study on the upbringing effects of civic education instruction are listed in the table 2.

Increasing civic knowledge still does not significantly improve the emancipatory-upbringing competences of students, such as cognitive and participatory civic skills, skills of critical thinking, evaluation and independent learning, moral behaviour and active expression, and positive attitudes towards democracy in schools are of reduced intensity.

Table 2. The correlations between the acquisition of program contents of civic educati-
on instruction (civic knowledge) and other upbringing effects (civic and other
competences of students)

Variables	ACDHR	DCS	JSS	MBA	ISG	ADS	SIS
ACDHR	–						
DCS	0.20	–					
JSS	0.18	0.37*	–				
MBA	0.15	0.43**	0.30*	–			
ISG	0.29*	0.31*	0.32*	0.19	–		
ADS	–0.12	–0.09	–0.05	–0.07	0.14	–	
SIS	0.19	0.39*	0.44**	0.11	0.16		–

Remarks: * – correlation (r) significant at level 0.05; ** – correlation (r) significant at
level 0.01; ACDHR – acquisition of contents in democracy and human rights; DCS – de-
velopment of civic skills; JSS – judgement in social situations; MBA – moral behaviour
and activity; ISG – independent study of geography; ADS – attitudes to democracy in
school; SIS – self-assessment of interpersonal skills.

Likely reasons of such contradictions are the following:
□ Dominant memorizing of verbal-reproductive, general, decontextualised, bookish
  civic knowledge without permanent transferable applicability;
□ Neglect of experiential, interactive and individualised learning permeated with
  reflective and critical thinking and sustained by effective and creative teaching in
  inclusive classes of civic education and other subjects, extra-curricular and other
  educational-upbringing activities. Knowledge acquired in this manner is insuffici-
  ently incorporated into longer lasting valuable personalised systems of creatively
  applicable knowledge of public issues;
□ Neglect of inventive application of civic knowledge in the exercise of non-violent
  communication, peaceful and compromise-aiming conflict resolution, tolerance of
  differences, forming individual attitudes and argumentative defence of them. As a
  result, civic knowledge, skills, abilities and virtues are still not substantially integra-
  ted into the profile of an ideal citizen dedicated to the common good, principles of
  democracy and humanism;
□ Insufficient exercise of free participation in elucidating controversial and contradic-
  tory contents;
□ Unexploited opportunities of developing cognitive and participatory civic skills,
  abilities and attitudes in a frequent, equitable and accountable democratic resolution
  of important issues and real problems of instruction, work and life in the classroom,
  club, school, local area and wider community;
□ Prejudices about social and pedagogical justifiability of introducing a new subject,
  Civic Education, in primary and high school, and mostly declarative support in edu-
  cational and general public for the improvement of human and material and tech-
  nical resources for the improvement of that subject's instruction (Ilić, 2016, p.84).

The research findings and the above interpretations indicate the necessity for improving social conditions, developmental systemic solutions and pedagogical prerequisites for improving civic instruction education and overall educational process at school.

4 Conclusion

Teaching civic education has extremely important and stimulating pedagogical value in humanistic socialisation of authentic individualities, in the formation of free, constructive-critical, creative, active and responsible citizenship dedicated to the common good in democracy and the realisation of human rights. Such processes, dynamism and outcomes also need to dominate in the teaching of other subjects (cross-curricularly), in extra-curricular, out-of-school and research activities (such as "Project citizen") and in the overall work and life of a modern school.

The results of previous projects and our empirical research indicate that there were significantly better educational than the upbringing effects of civic education instruction. There was a statistically significant correlation of the acquisition of mainly verbal-reproductive civic knowledge and other educational outcomes in the sixth grade of primary school, such as the knowledge of the contents of other subjects and moral knowledge. There was no significant correlation in the acquisition of program contents in the civic education instruction with emancipatory-upbringing competence of students (development of civic skills, judgment in social situations, moral behaviour and action, independent learning, self-assessment of interpersonal skills, attitudes towards democracy in school). This means that authoritarian education has not yet significantly yielded place to the emancipatory education in the teaching of civic education, nor in the whole educational and upbringing pedagogical work, that students do not have frequent opportunities to apply civic knowledge and skills in solving concrete problems in the classroom, school and its environment, that opportunities for considering controversial issues are rare, and that their social participation is neglected.

In the civic education instruction, experiential, context-sensitive, reflective and critical, interactive, heuristic and creative learning should dominate, as well as be supported by an effective teaching of a competent teacher. If involved in occasional decision-making in important issues of teaching and the organization of work and life of the school, free discussion of current social issues and controversial topics, students would internalize transferable civic knowledge.

By identifying phenomena and problems in the public and society, engaging in their analysis, processes of free attitude-formation and defence, critical thinking on the state in political and public life, students will intensively develop intellectual (cognitive) skills (and abilities), and by an interactive, humanitarian, cultural, voluntary and socially-beneficial engagement, they will obtain participatory civic skills and abilities. Such activities are permeated by an internalization of civic dispositions – moral qualities of a public nature which contribute to the functioning of democracy and commitment to its fundamental principles. In inventively using such civic knowledge and skills and manifesting civic virtues, students will increasingly become independent and release external influences and dependences. In the processes of such emancipatory education,

increasingly informed, free-thinking, courageous, critical, active and responsible citizens of a democratic society will be generated.

Achieving better upbringing effects and their alignment with the educational effects of civic education will depend on the improvement of the position of this subject in school, on the level of inclusiveness of all educational-upbringing activity within school, on the quality of continuous professional development (individual and collective professional development), on the teachers of civic education and other subjects, and on the continuous action-research and research activities in civic education.

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Učinki pouka državljanske vzgoje

Ob koncu 20. stoletja je v večino držav zahodnega Balkana uveden pouk državljanska vzgoja (vzgoja za demokracijo, osnove demokracije, družbe in kulture, vzgoja za demokracijo, demokracija in človekove pravice), razen na Hrvaškem. V Srbiji je državljanska vzgoja izbirni predmet.

V Republiki Srbski in Federaciji Bosne in Hercegovine se predmet državljanska vzgoja izvaja že dve desetletji. To nas je spodbudilo, da smo se odločili za raziskavo o njeni izobraževalno-vzgojni učinkovitosti, možnostih in omejitvah. Državljanska vzgoja je obvezen predmet v osnovni šoli v Republiki Srbski (RS) v 6. razredu in v večini županij v Federaciji BiH v 6., 8. ali 9. razredu, ter v tretjem razredu srednje šole.

Na nekaterih pedagoških fakultetah je državljanska vzgoja že več kot deset let obvezen enosemestrski predmet (s še enim semestrom metodike državljanske vzgoje). Poleg tega je zastopan tudi medpredmetno (v tematsko ustreznih vsebinah drugih predmetov), v programih od drugega do devetega razreda (koncepti: avtoriteta, odgovornost, pravica in zasebnost), v preučevanju ukrepov javne politike in v izvenšolskih aktivnostih. Pričakovani rezultati celotne državljanske vzgoje so razvite državljanske kompetence učencev. Pod tem pojmom razumemo med seboj odvisne državljansko znanje, spretnosti, stališča in vrednote ter sposobnosti, ki posamezniku omogočajo aktivno vlogo v družbenem življenju.

V zadnjih letih so bile na področju državljanske vzgoje opravljene empirične raziskave dosežkov in slabosti, ki so pokazale, da je uveden predmet upravičil svoj namen. Pouk tega predmeta prispeva k razumevanju pojmov, načel institucij in prakse na področju demokracije ter človekovih in državljanskih pravic. Ugotovljeni so boljši rezultati v stopnji državljanskega znanja kot v razvoju državljanskih spretnosti in dispozicij (stališč, vrednot) srednješolcev. Na tej osnovi smo kreirali koncept našega empiričnega raziskovanja izobraževalnih in vzgojnih učinkov državljannske vzgoje.

S sistemskim neeksperimentalnim raziskovanjem smo želeli identificirati in analizirati kazalce izobraževalnih in vzgojnih učinkov državljanskega izobraževanja ali demokracije in človekovih pravic. Uporabili smo naslednje raziskovalne metode: ex post facto eksperiment in anketo. Raziskovalne tehnike so bile: testiranje, razvrščanje in anketiranje. Uporabljenih je bilo je 11 merilnih instrumentov: devet testov, ena lestvica

in en vprašalnik. V slučajnem vzorcu je bilo 810 učencev 6. razreda osnovnih šol na področju osmih občin – štirih v RS in štirih v Federaciji BiH. Učinke državljanskega izobraževanja smo združili v dve relativno samostojni, a povezani skupini:

> □ *izobraževalni učinki (usvojenost vsebin iz programa državljanske vzgoje ali znanja, poznavanje pomena moralnih lastnosti, znakov, opisanih v besedilih, programskih vsebin iz zgodovine in biologije) in*
>
> □ *razvitost učinkov (državljanskih veščin, sodbe v različnih socialnih situacijah, moralno obnašanje in delovanje, samostojno učenje geografije, stališč do demokracije v šoli, samoocena interpersonalnih sposobnosti).*

Empirični rezultati so potrdili glavno raziskovalno hipotezo, da se v šolah na področju BiH (RS in FBiH) dosegajo pomemno boljši izobraževalni kot vzgojni učinki. Anketiraci so superiornejši na državljanskih in drugih verbalno reproduktivnih področjih znanja kot pri izražanju državljanskih kognitivnih in participativnih veščin, sposobnosti, stališč, moralnega presojanja in v interpersonalnem delovanju. Zapostavljeni so vzgojni učinki v kontekstu avtoritarne in disciplinske komunikacije pri pouku, pri državljanski vzgoji pa tudi pri drugih predmetih. Namreč, učenci nimajo pogosto možnosti, da prepoznajo uresničevanje, promocijo, ogrožanje in oviranje pravic in svobode učencev v šoli, družini in družbi. Zapostavljena je njihova pravica, da se zavzemajo za svoja stališča in jih branijo, da tolerirajo različna in nasprotna mnenja, da nenasilno rešujejo nesporazume, da enakopravno z odraslimi odločajo o bistvenih vprašanjih vzgojno-izobraževalnega procesa, življenja in dela v šoli, o javnih vprašanjih in podobno.

Ugotovljena je bila statistično pomembna korelacija med usvojenostjo programskih vsebin pouka državljanske vzgoje in izobraževalnih učinkov pri ostalih učnih predmetih in splošnih spoznanjih. To lahko pojasnimo s podobnostjo učenja in poučevanja državljanske vzgoje in ostalih predmetov. V didaktičnem smislu prevladujejo monološke metode, v okviru katerih prevladuje enosmerna komunikcija med učiteljem in učenci. Vse to se seveda odvija na frontalen način. V taki predavateljsko-prikazovalni zasnovi pouka je učenec praviloma pasiven, kar ima za posledico pomanjkljivo znanje, zanemarjeni so emancipatorsko-vzgojni procesi in rezultati, med drugim tudi državljanske spretnosti, stališča, moralni razvoj in prosocialno delovanje.

Ni ugotovljena statistično pomembna povezava usvojenih programskih vsebin pri pouku državljanske vzgoje z emancipacijskimi vzgojnimi kompetencami učencev. Ugotovitve kažejo, da dominira avtoritativna vzgoja pred emancipacijsko v celotnem vzgojno-izobraževalnem procesu. Samo znanje, pridobljeno pri državljanski vzgoji, še ne pomeni napredka in dviga ravni emancipacijsko-vzgojnih kompetenc učencev, kot so kognitivne in participativne državljanske spretnosti, sposobnost kritičnega mišljenja, ocenjevanja, samostojnega učenja, moralnega obnašanja in aktivnega delovanja. Možni razlogi za take protislovnosti so:

> □ *dominacija verbalno-reproduktivnega splošnega dekontekstualiziranega knjižnega znanja o državljanskih zadevah brez trajnejše transferabilne uporabnosti;*
>
> □ *zapostavljanje izkušenjskega, interaktivnega in individualiziranega učenja, prežetega z refleksivnim in kritičnim mišljenjem in podprtega z aktivnim in kreativnim poučevanjem v inkluzivni fazi državljanske vzgoje in ostalih predmetov;*

□ *zanemarjanje kreativne uporabe državljanskega znanja pri vajah nenasilnega komuniciranja, mirnega in kompromisnega reševanja konfliktov, tolerance različnosti, zavzemanja za argumente in obrambe lastnih stališč, zato se državljansko znanje ne vključuje v lik idealnega državljana;*

□ *premalo vaj svobodne participacije v razreševanju kontroverznih in nasprotujočih si vsebin;*

□ *neizkoriščene možnosti razvoja kognitivnih in participativnih državljanskih sposobnosti, spretnosti in stališč, v pogostem, enakopravnem in odgovornem demokratičnem reševanju bistvenih vprašanj in realnih problemov pri pouku in v celotnem okolju;*

□ *predsodki o družbeni in pedagoški upravičenosti uvajanja novega predmeta Državljanska vzgoja v osnovno in srednjo šolo ter deklarativna podpora izboljšanju pogojev za izvedbo predmeta.*

Iz analize in interpretacije podatkov ugotavljamo potrebo po izboljšanju družbenih pogojev, sistemsko-razvojnih rešitev in pedagoških predpostavk za inovativno–praktičen razvoj pouka državljanske vzgoje in celotnega vzgojno-izobraževalnega procesa v sodobni šoli.

Doseganje boljših vzgojnih učinkov in njihovo usklajevanje z izobraževalnimi učinki državljanske vzgoje bo odvisno od izboljšanja položaja v šoli, od nivoja inkluzivnosti celotnega vzgojno-izobraževalnega dela v šoli, od kvalitete profesionalnega razvoja učiteljev državljanske vzgoje in od kontinuiranega akcijsko-raziskovalnega in znanstveno–raziskovalnega dela v državljanskem izobraževanju. Pri pouku je bistveno izkustveno, kontekstno, kritično mišljenje, interaktivno, hevristično in ustvarjalno učenje, ki ga vodi kompetenten učitelj. S sodelovanjem učencev pri odločanju o pomembnih vprašanjih, ki se nanašajo na vzgojno-izobraževalno delo šole, pri svobodnem razpravljanju o širših družbenih vprašanjih, tudi o kontraverznih temah, se lahko postopno internalizira transferabilno državljansko znanje. Državljanska vzgoja ima izjemno pomembno stimulativno pedagoško vrednost pri humanistični socializaciji posameznikov in pri oblikovanju svobodnih, konstruktivnokritičnih, kreativnih, aktivnih in odgovornih državljanov. K temu bo moral prispevati celoten vzgojno-izobraževalni proces.

Ob prepoznavanju pojavov in problemov v javnosti in družbi, z njihovo analizo in svobodnim zavzemanjem za svoja stališča o njih, s kritičnim razmišljanjem o stanju in političnem javnem življenju bodo učenci intenzivno razvijali intelektualne spretnosti in sposobnosti, z interaktivnim, humanitarnim, kulturnim, volonterskim in družbeno koristnim delom pa si bodo pridobili participativne državljanske spretnosti in sposobnosti.

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The quality of pedagogical climate in schools

POVZETEK – V okviru našega preučevanja smo ugotavljali kvaliteto pedagoške klime pri učencih osnovnih šol, kakšne so razlike med respondenti glede na spol in razred, ki ga obiskujejo, zanimala pa nas je tudi povezanost pedagoške klime s šolskim uspehom učencev. V raziskavo je bilo vključenih 1639 učencev petih in osmih razredov osnovnih šol s področja srednjebosanskega kantona v Bosni in Hercegovini. Rezultati so pokazali, da se je v šoli razvila kvalitetna pedagoška klima. Podatki kažejo, da obstajajo statistično pomembne razlike med učenci glede ocene kvalitete pedagoške klime glede na razred, ki ga učenci obiskujejo. Ugotovili smo tudi močno povezanost med pedagoško klimo in šolskim uspehom. Rezultati raziskovanja bodo imeli svojo praktično uporabo v okviru učnega procesa pri razvoju učenčeve motivacije za učno delo in nadaljnjem konativnemu razvoju.

ABSTRACT – The aim of the research is to determine the quality of the pedagogical climate among primary school students, find the difference between the students' perception of the pedagogical climate in regards to their gender and grade, and find the correlation between the pedagogical climate and the students' achievement. 1639 fifth and eighth grade primary school students from the Central Bosnia Canton in Bosnia and Herzegovina participated in the research. The results of the research showed that there is a quality pedagogical climate in the schools. The findings also confirmed that there is a statistically significant difference between the respondents' perception of the pedagogical climate quality relative to their gender and grade. In addition, the correlation between the pedagogical climate and the students' achievement in school has been found. We believe that the obtained results will have their practical application in the teaching process and will help teachers and students in improving the pedagogical climate quality.

1 Introduction

The contemporary school needs to determine the need for practical action and help students develop a positive attitude towards almost all issues, problems and challenges from their environment. It is necessary to create certain preconditions for the school's well-functioning in order for the school to operate successfully. Among the significant elements of its successful functioning are the relationships between the factors of the educational system. "The school's functioning depends to a great extent on the way people in schools accept the roles assigned to them, their relationshipsand the way they feel at school." (Stepanović, Đurmanov, 2015, p. 183). All these relationships that exist within the educational system can be defined as pedagogical climate.

Đermanov thinks that the notion of pedagogical climate is an "umbrella term" compared to other concepts that are narrow contexts of education and related either to the level of the educational process organization (at the level of school, class, curriculum,

etc.) or to one of its aspects (psychological, social, emotional) (Đermanov, Kostović, 2008).

According to Bognar and Matijević (2002), pedagogical climate is the same as the educational climate. It represents the quality of relationships between teachers and students in the process of education; in other words, the behaviour of teachers towards students and students towards teachers.

Joksimović (2004) made a point from the widest perspective stating that pedagogical climate represents a set of all circumstances in which the process of education takes place as well as the network of relationships that exist among the participants in the educational process.

Puzić, Baranović, Dolan (2011) point out that there are several definitions ofpedagogic climate, yet most definitions simply denote pedagogical climate as an experience-based, multidimensional, relatively lasting perception phenomenon common to the members of a particular school. This perception depends on how the individual experiences school environment, for example, whether they feel comfortable in the school environment, whether it is a supportive learning environment, whether it is adequately organized and secure.

The educational process takes place under certain circumstances that define and determine learning outcomes, that is, create a positive or less positive working atmosphere in school. If the environment is characterized by warmth, understanding and respect, students learn better and faster, and better understand what they learn. Hence, it is very important that a favourable pedagogical climate is created in school.

In order to meet the students' needs and incorporate them into the school life, it is necessary that schools provide their students with personal and social education. Personal and social education is considered as the most important of all intercultural dimensions. A positive climate is also required to develop leadership and engagement of young people in order to encourage social and emotional learning (Durlak et al., 2011), improve the inclusion of people with disabilities and students (Coulston & Smith, 2013), and support efforts to prevent students from leaving school (Hammond, Linton, Smink & Drew, 2007).

A positive climate is one in which there are positive attitudes and desired behavior of students (Rubie-Davies, 2010).

It is important to emphasize that according to Domović (2004), each school has its own specific climate that influences its activities and the achievement of goals. This was the rationale for our study.

2 Objectives

The main goal of the study is to explore and determine the quality of the pedagogical climate in the schools of the Central Bosnia Canton. The second goal is to find the difference between the students' perception in terms of their gender and grade. The third goal is to find the correlation between the quality of the pedagogical climate and the students' achievement.

On the basis of the stated objectives, the following research hypotheses were developed:

☐ H1 – There is a quality pedagogical climate in the schools of the Central Bosnia Canton.

☐ H2 – There is a statistically significant difference in the students' perception of the quality of the pedagogical climate in school according to their grade.

☐ H3 – There is a statistically significant correlation between the pedagogical climate and the students' achievement.

3 Method

Participants

The study was conducted among 1639 students of grades 5 and 8 from the schools of the Central Bosnia Canton. The total number of the 5 and 8 graders is 14732, thus we can say that 11.13 % of all students participated in the study. The total number of female students in the schools of the Central Bosnia Canton is 7066 (48 %), while 7666 (52 %) are male. 802 (49 %) female and 837 (51 %) male students participated in the study. 846 (52 %) respondents were students of grade 5 and 793 (48 %) were students from grade 8. From the above data, it is evident that the sample is representative.

Instrument

The instrument used to determine the pedagogical climate in its original form is ISC-S: Inventory of School Climate. Its translation into Bosnian was done by Suzić (2005, p. 859). Upon the approval of the author, we adapted the questionnaire which was used in our research. A five-point Likert scale, used in the ISC-INVENTOR instrument, was applied to assess the pedagogical climate quality. The students indicated the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statements choosing one of the options (1 – never, 2 – rarely, 3 – sometimes, 4 – most of the time, 5 – always).

The reliability of the instrument was determined by the Cronbach's alpha coefficient ($\alpha = 0.91$).

Procedure

The research on pedagogical climate was conducted in May 2017 in the schools of the Central Bosnia Canton. In order to carry out the research, a consent was obtained from the line ministry of education and from all the principals of the primary schools included in the research. While delivering the questionnaire, the respondents were informed about the significance of the research itself and how to fill in the questionnaire.

We also explained that the survey is anonymous and serves scientific purposes. Each student responded voluntarily by circling the preferred answer right after the re-

searcher read the items. Thanks to this procedure, the respondents were able to give answers quickly and honestly, while at the same time additional explanations were provided when needed. In this way, the research followed an appropriate pace and it was possible to eliminate any ambiguities during the process of filling in the questionnaire. Responding to the questionnaire took one school hour.

4 Results

In order to process the 40 variables that constitute the instrument on pedagogical climate in school, we used an exploratory factor analysis (PCA) with oblique rotation and correlation greater than 1.0 and saturation 3.5.

The results of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Test correlation matrix is 0.943. It shows that there is a strong correlation between the particles and a linear dependence among the scattering particles.

Bartlett's sphericity test (23035.684 p < 0.01) shows statistical significance, implying that the correlation matrix statistically differs from the identity matrix, which leads to the extraction of factors or the continuation of the implementation of factor analysis. The Gutman Kaiser criterion (a characteristic root greater than 1) was used as a predictor of the number of common factors. 7 major components were originally obtained to explain 52.29 % of variants that somewhat match the original factor structure, because the distribution of manifest claims is almost identical to the original structure.

Although the original factorial structure somewhat restrained from the one we received due to shortening of the original scale for the two sub-scales, we decided to apply the original factor structure of 8 factors with a great deal of caution in interpreting the results.

The obtained 8 factors are: *teacher support to students* (6 items), *clarity and consistency of rules/expectations and support to students* (5 items), *student commitment and achievement orientation* (5 items), *negative peer interactions* (5 items), *positive peer interactions* (5 items), *disciplinary harshness* (5 items), *student input in decision making* (5 items), *instructional innovation* (4 items), *support to cultural pluralism* (4 items) and *security problems* (6 items).

We used descriptive analysis to measure the values of the arithmetic mean and standard deviation for all eight sub-scales. The results in Table 1 show that the highest mean score was for Sub-scale 2 *Clarity and consistency of rules/expectations and support to students* (M = 4.12) and lowest mean score was for Sub-scale *Student input in decision making* (M = 2.68). Findings show that the students scored above average on six out of eight sub-scales.

Table 2 shows summarized results of the entire instrument for pedagogical climate in school and confirms the above results. The arithmetic mean of all claims/items (M = 3.54) shows that the students rated the pedagogical climate quality above average. This is also confirmed by the value (t = 35.54; df = 1638; p = 0.000; $mean_{diff}$ = 0.54, $test_{value}$ = 3), which shows that the obtained results are statistically different from the average value of 3.

Table 1. Arithmetic mean and standard deviation for eight sub-scales (factors) of the pedagogical climate

Items	M	SD
Teacher support to students	3.82	0.96
Clarity and consistency of rules/expectations and support to students	4.12	0.78
Student commitment and achievement orientation	3.92	0.84
Negative peer interactions	2.96	0.96
Positive peer interactions	3.87	0.82
Disciplinary harshness	3.52	0.97
Student input in decision making	2.68	1.03
Instructional innovation	3.44	0.90

The standard deviation (SD = 0.61) indicates the small spread of scores around the arithmetic mean, which is barely confirmed by the coefficient of variability (CV = 17.23 %), and thus the homogeneity of the obtained results is evident. "When the coefficient of variability ranges from 15 to 30 %, it is a homogeneous set, and when it is greater than 30 %, it is a heterogeneous set." (Matijević, Bilić and Opić, 2016, p. 396)

The relationship between the arithmetic mean and the standard deviation indicates that this is a good homogeneity of the result, since the value of the arithmetic mean is three times greater than the standard deviation. "In fact, when the arithmetic mean is three times greater than its standard deviation, we consider that the set is homogeneous, and when the arithmetic mean < 3, it is then a heterogeneous set." (Ibid., p. 396).

Table 2. Measures of central tendency, variability and frequency for pedagogical climate

Scale	N	M	SD	SEM	95 % confidence interval of the difference		Skewness	Kurtosis
					lower	upper		
Pedagogical climate	1639	3.54	0.61	0.02	3.51	3.57	−0.255	0.185

Skewness results (Sk = –0.255) indicate that this is a negative asymmetry, thus the results are oriented towards higher values, or in other words, they are positive estimates. The results of Kurtosis (Ku = 0.185) indicates that this is a positive result concentrated around the arithmetic mean. Distribution has a slightly lower peak. This distribution shows a small dispersion around the arithmetic mean.

The value of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test K-S = 0.033; df = 1639; p = 0.000) indicates that the distribution does not meet the criteria of normality, since statistically significant deviation from the normal is observed. However, parametric statistical tests need to be used for the area of inferential statistics due to a large sample, unimodal distribution, moderate dispersion, mild asymmetry and Kurtosis.

The second aim of the research is to find a difference in the students' perception of the pedagogical climate quality in school according to their grade.

The results of the pedagogical climate in school relative to the students' grade are presented in Table 3. It is evident from the table that there is a statistically significant difference in the arithmetic mean (M) at the level (p < 0.01) between the primary school students of the fifth and eight grade, because the value is (t = 27.486; p = 0.00). Fifth grade students have a more positive perception of the pedagogical climate in school compared to eighth grade students.

Table 3. Differences in the students' perception of the pedagogical climate quality relative to their grade

Sub-scale	Grade	N	M	SD	Mean difference	Degrees of freedom	t-value	p
Teacher support to students	5	846	4.41	0.61	1.22	1637	32.779	0.00
	8	793	3.19	0.87				
Clarity and consistency of rules/expectations	5	846	4.49	0.51	0.77	1637	22.538	0.00
	8	793	3.72	0.82				
Student commitment and achievement orientation	5	846	4,19	0,77	0,56	1637	14.323	0.00
	8	793	3.63	0.82				
Negative peer interactions	5	846	3.08	0.95	0.24	1637	5.149	0.00
	8	793	2.84	0.95				
Positive peer interactions	5	846	4.19	0.73	0.67	1637	18.048	0.00
	8	793	3.53	0.77				
Disciplinary harshness	5	846	3.78	0.98	0.54	1637	11.736	0.00
	8	793	3.24	0.90				
Student input in decision making	5	846	3.09	1.04	0.84	1637	18.295	0.00
	8	793	2.25	0.83				
Instructional innovation	5	846	3.75	0.82	0.64	1637	15.556	0.00
	8	793	3.11	0.86				
Perception of the pedagogical climate in school	5	846	3.87	0.50	0.68	1637	27.486	0.00
	8	793	3.19	0.51				

A statistically significant difference is observed in all eight sub-scales at the level (p < 0.01).While comparing the arithmetic means, it can be concluded that lower-grade students have a positive perception of the pedagogical climate compared to eighth grade students. The mean score for Teacher support to students is (M = 4.41) for the fifth grade students and (M = 3.19) for the students who attend the eighth grade. Clarity and consistency of rules/expectations has the mean value of (M = 4.49) for the fifth grade students and (M = 3.72) for the students who attend the eighth grade. Fifth grade students have a positive perception of the Student commitment and achievement orientation (M = 4.19) compared to eighth grade students (M = 3.63). The same applies to Positive peer interactions (M = 4.19; M = 3.53), Student input in decision making (M = 3.09; M = 2.25) and Instructional innovation (M = 3.75; M = 3.11).

When it comes to *Disciplinary harshness*, the difference is evident more for the younger students, (M = 3.78) for fifth grade students and (M = 3.24) for eighth grade

students. This result also shows that fifth grade students estimate that they have less discipline at school, because we have reworded the items in the questionnaire so that the greater value indicates low presence of the phenomenon. The same is observed for the sub-scale *Negative peer interactions* (M = 3.08) for the students of fifth grade and (M = 2.84) for the students of the eighth grade. Fifth grade students believe that they have less negative peer interaction.

The third aim of the research is to examine the correlation between the pedagogical climate and the students' achievement. Pearson's correlation coefficient was used for the measurement. Based on the results shown in Table 4, it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant low positive correlation (r = 0.14**, p < 0.05) between the students' achievement and the pedagogical climate.

A statistically significant low positive correlation is evident between the students' achievement and *Teacher support to students* (r = 0.11**), *Clarity and consistency of rules/ expectations* (r = 0.15**), *Student commitment and achievement orientation* (r = 0.10**), *Positive peer interactions* (r = 0.09**) and *Instructional innovation* (r = 0.09**).

Table 4. Pearson correlation between students' achievement and pedagogical climate

Variables		A	TSS	CCR	SCAO	NPI	PPI	DS	SIDM	II	PPCS
		1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*
A	1		0.11**	0.15**	0.10**	0.01	0.09**	0.22**	0.02	0.09**	0.14**
TSS	2			0.72**	0.43**	0.24**	0.60**	0.35**	0.58**	0.54**	0.82**
CCR	3				0.50**	0.21**	0.59**	0.28**	0.44**	0.51**	0.77**
SCAO	4					0.17**	0.56**	0.12**	0.31**	0.35**	0.61**
NPI	5						0.34**	0.38**	0.28**	0.15**	0.52**
PPI	6							018**	0.49**	0.49**	0.77**
DS	7								0.18**	0.12**	0.50**
SIDM	8									0.55**	0.72**
II	9										0.68**
PPCS	10										

Reminder: ** – correlation level of significance p < 0.01; * – correlation level of significance p < 0.05; 1 – Achievement; 2 – Teacher support to students; 3 – Clarity and consistency of rules/expectations; 4 – Student commitment and achievement orientation; 5 – Negative peer interactions; 6 – Positive peer interactions; 7 – Disciplinary harshness; 8 – Student input in decision making; 9 – Instructional innovation; 10 – Perception of the pedagogical climate in school.

Positive and statistically significant correlation is evident between students' achievement and *Disciplinary harshness* (r = 0.22**). Since the items for this sub-scale were reworded in the questionnaire, findings indicate that a positive correlation represents a

low presence of *Disciplinary harshness*. This finding shows that *Disciplinary harshness* is reduced while students' achievement is increased.

Statistically significant positive correlation is observed between all factors, as well as between the factors and the overall sub-scales of the pedagogical climate in the school. Good relationships within the pedagogical climate scale imply that the conducted instrument was of good quality and reliability.

5 Discussion

The main aim of the study was to explore the pedagogical climate quality. The arithmetic mean shown in Table 2 shows that the students' perception of the pedagogical climate quality is above average (M = 3.54). The value (t = 35.54; p = 0.000) shows that the results are significantly different from the average value of 3.

The confirmation of the above claims can be observed from the analysis of eight original sub-scales. High values of arithmetic mean (M = 3.82) suggest that students perceive teachers supporting them by finding ways to do so if students show their desire for support, especially in the organization of work (Table 1). This finding indicates that the students and teachers have good relationships, and these relationships show that teacher support to the students is necessary for a good pedagogical climate.

A quality pedagogical climate can also be observed based on the results related to clarity and consistency in the application of rules and student support (M = 4.12). This segment of the pedagogical climate was highly scored by the students who emphasized that they receive clear instructions for activities and follow the rules, but they are aware of the sanctions if they violate the rules. The high scores for the above items indicate that students evaluate and respect the existence of rules in the teaching process that are regulated by the partner relationship in school (Table 1).

Table 1 shows the total value for Student commitment and achievement orientation (M = 3.92). In Table 1, the lowest mean score is related to the claim about energy investment for what they do in school. The highest mean score indicates that effort is due to a high grade. These findings partially address the dilemma about the reasons for the students' achievement.

The results of the study for negative peer interaction show that there is no negative interaction between the students (M = 2.96), Table 1. This means that the students have no major problems in mutual communication; they can cooperate without envy and inferiority in these relationships.

High mean scores for *Positive peer interactions* (M = 3.87) point out that there are quality relationships among students that can be observed through joint work and mutual acquaintance (Table 1). The obtained findings indicate that positive peer interaction is evident between students, yet the school needs to develop and encourage it further.

High values are observed after decoding the data for Disciplinary harshness (M = 3.51), as presented in Table 1. There are no strict rules in the schools where the research was conducted, the teachers are not strict and the students are not severely punished. The results show that the pedagogical climate is very pleasant and relaxing

for the students, which affects discipline severity. The findings show that if the school wants to develop a positive pedagogic climate, disciplinary harshness should be reduced, as this creates a pleasant work environment.

Students' input and decision making in our schools is very low (M = 2.68). This is also observed from the findings of our research where the students never or rarely participate in making rules and decisions in school (Table 1).

The last examined element of the pedagogical climate is Instructional innovation. The respondents perceive this element of the overall school climate as average (M = 3.44), Table 1. The findings suggest that there are some positive developments in our schools in innovating forms and methods of work, as well as changes in the approach to new ideas and support for the students' upcoming projects in the teaching process. This is a significant result and a positive indicator of the direction of the changes in our schools. However, it indicates that if the school wants to modernize and democratize its work, modern technical achievements must be implemented both in the area of teaching methods and student relationships. All of this together affects the creation of a favorable pedagogical climate.

The findings of the research conducted by Hadžić, Jašarević, Jašarević (2015) among a sample of primary school students of the fourth and eighth grade confirm that students highly perceive the pedagogical climate quality in school, because the arithmetic mean values range from (M = 3.46) to (M = 4.08).

The research results support the findings of another research: "For a successful emotional climate, there must be positive feelings such as: pleasantness, relaxation, laughter, joy, enthusiasm, democracy, pluralism of ideas, etc. In all of this, the role of teachers is significant." (Tomić, Osmić, 2006, p. 105)

The pedagogical climate in schools from five areas was examined by Kantorova (2009) with a sample of 231 students, 27 teachers and 221 parents, and she found that these relationships were most highly perceived by teachers (M = 4.23), then parents (M = 3.81) and students (M = 3.65).

A positive pedagogical climate is an important factor in preventing violence in schools. Numerous studies have clearly shown that a positive school climate is a crucial part of the program for prevention of peer violence (Cornell, Sheras, Gregory and Fan, 2009; Gregory, Cornell, Fan, Sheras, Shih and Huang, 2010).

The findings of our research confirmed that the pedagogical climate is very favourable. Our results are in line with the US research where students mostly perceive school climate as more or less positive rather than negative (Perkins, 2009).

The results of the investigation at the level of the pedagogical climate among students according to age showed that there are statistically significant differences in the perception of pedagogical climate. A more positive perception was evident among the students of the fifth grade, and this difference was noticeable in all sub-scales. This finding tells us that based on age or length of stay at school, the positive pedagogical climate decreases. The reasons for this could be that the same approach is performed in primary and secondary schools.

Before the sixth grade, students learn in a relatively familiar environment with one teacher, a teacher of religious education and a foreign language teacher, while in the

eighth grade there are a number of teachers for a particular subject. Thus, students tend to meet many teachers. Each of them has their own approach to the subject as well as the environment in a classroom. Due to poor communication among the teachers themselves and their attitude, some courses are considered to be more important than others. This means that, unfortunately, an uneven climate is created which results in different negative experiences for eighth grade students.

Our results coincide with the results of the research by Velka, Kuterovac-Jagodić, Antunović (2014), who found that students of the seventh and eighth grade perceived climate school more negatively than students of the fifth and sixth grade. The increase in negative school climate increases with the students' age of and it has a significant impact on the increase of peer violence (Ajduković, Rimac, Rajder and Sušac, 2012).

The research done by Hadžić, Jašarević, Jašarević (2015) confirms statistically significant differences between the students' perception of the pedagogical climate according to their grade. Lower grade respondents perceive pedagogical climate more positively than the students of higher grades.

Our research also examined the correlation between the pedagogical climate and students' achievement. The results show that there is a statistically significant low positive correlation ($r = 0.14^{**}$, $p < 0.05$) between students' achievement and pedagogical climate. This correlation is expected due to the fact that the teacher support students, clarity and consistency of rules/expectations, positive peer interaction, less presence of negative elements, and the instructional innovation significantly influence students' success.

Therefore, all of these are prerequisites and conditions that schools need to fulfill in order to make school achievement better. Knox (2011) also found that there is a correlation between school climate and students' achievement. He points out that school climate influences students' success. McEvoy and Welra (2000) also emphasize that a positive school climate results in better school results. The relationship between a positive school climate and school achievement was also examined by some other authors who found that a positive school climate was associated with higher school achievement and a sense of security and belonging to the school (Freiberg, 1999; Lee and Smith, 1999; Sherblom, Marshall and Sherblom, 2006).

6 Conclusion

Working in a positive pedagogical climate results in high educational outcomes and overall satisfaction of all participants in the teaching process, especially students and teachers. For this reason, it is particularly necessary to approach the organization and implementation of all aspects of educational system in the modern school, especially the teaching process. In order to create an appropriate and positive pedagogical climate, there is an important prerequisite, such as positive interpersonal relationships in schools in all segments where the education process takes place and between all the participants of the teaching and learning process.

In order to investigate the pedagogical climate in the Central Bosnia Canton, we conducted an empirical research to determine the quality of the pedagogical climate in

our schools. Moreover, we wanted to find a difference between the respondents' perception of the quality of pedagogical climate in their schools according to their gender and grade and the correlation between pedagogical climate and students' achievement.

After conducting the survey among the fifth and eighth grade students, we analyzed the results and reached the following conclusions: the students indicated a high-level perception of the quality of the pedagogical climate in school.

The findings related to the perception of the pedagogical climate in school according to gender and grade showed that there is a statistically significant difference. The obtained results that are related to correlation indicated a correlation between pedagogical climate and students' achievement.

Based on the data analysis, we can conclude that all three research hypotheses have been confirmed. Creating a quality pedagogical climate in schools and a positive school atmosphere is an inevitable part of modern-day school environment, in which children and young people are prepared for life and work, integration into a society that is constantly changing, i.e. a society of the future.

In a quality contemporary school characterized by a positive pedagogical climate, students are able to express their creative potential, communicate freely and independently with all teaching process participants, explore, ask, seek solutions independently and within a group without the teacher's interference and pressure.

Positive pedagogical climate is a prerequisite for the greatest development of each individual who wants to achieve good educational outcomes in the educational process. For this reason, quality pedagogical climate is important in achieving the goals of quality education.

The study is subject to several limitations. One of them is the fact that the pedagogical climate quality was determined by students' self-perception through the transnational research. The same research should also be carried out in other Cantons in the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Brčko District and Republika Srpska. In order to overcome the shortcomings of the research, it is necessary to carry out longitudinal or experimental research and include teachers and other factors of the teaching process.

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Kakovost pedagoške klime v šoli

Sodobna šola mora razviti potrebo po praktičnih dejavnostih in aktivni odnos učencev do skoraj vseh vprašanj, težav in izzivov iz svojega okolja. Da bi šola uspešno opravila svojo nalogo, je treba ustvariti določene predpogoje za njeno nemoteno delovanje. Eden od pomembnih elementov uspešnega delovanja šole so odnosi, ki se ustvarjajo med udeleženci v vzgojno-izobraževalnem procesu.

"Delovanje šole je odvisno predvsem od načina, kako ljudje sprejemajo svoje vloge, kakšni so njihovi medosebni odnosi, kako se počutijo v šoli" (Stepanović, Đurmanov, 2015, str. 183). Vse odnose, ki obstajajo v vzgojno-izobraževalnem procesu, lahko skupaj imenujemo pedagoška klima. Puzić, Baranović in Dolan (2011) ugotavljajo, da

obstaja več definicij pedagoške klime, večini pa je skupno, da vidijo pedagoško klimo kot izkušnjo, ki temelji na večdimenzionalni, relativno trajni percepciji, ki je skupna vsem članom določene šole.

Vzgojno-izobraževalni proces poteka v okoliščinah, ki predvidevajo določene učne rezultate in tako ustvarjajo v šoli pozitivno ali manj pozitivno delovno vzdušje. Učenci se učijo bolje in hitreje, bolje razumejo, kaj se učijo, če se v svojem okolju dobro počutijo, če v njem vlada razumevanje in spoštovanje. Zato je zelo pomembno v šoli ustvariti ugodno pedagoško vzdušje.

Glavni namen študije je raziskati in ugotoviti, kakšna je kakovost pedagoškega okolja v šolah Srednjebosanskega kantona. Drugi cilj je preučiti, ali obstajajo razlike med učenci glede na spol in razred, ki ga obiskujejo. Tretji cilj je ugotoviti, če obstaja povezava med kakovostjo pedagoške klime in uspešnostjo učencev.

Osnovno populacijo učencev 5. in 8. razreda osnovnih šol v Srednjebosanskem kantonu sestavlja 14.732 učencev, v anketi pa jih je sodelovalo 1639, kar predstavlja 11,13 % osnovne populacije.

Med anketiranimi učenci je bilo 802 (49 %) deklet in 837 (51 %) fantov. V celotni populaciji je sicer 7066 (48 %) deklet in 7666 (52 %) fantov. Učencev petega razreda je 846 (52 %), učencev 8. razreda pa 793 (48 %). Vsi navedeni podatki potrjujejo izenačenost vzorca s stanjem v populaciji.

Instrument za merjenje pedagoške klime v izvirni obliki je ISC-S: Inventory of School Climate. V Bosni in Hercegovini ga je prevedel in predstavil Suzić (2005, str. 859). Prevedeno različico smo s soglasjem avtorja prevzeli in uporabili v naši raziskavi.

Instrument ISC-S INVENTAR uporablja Likertovo ocenjevalno lestvico, ki je sestavljena iz petih možnih odgovorov, s katerimi učenci ocenjujejo kakovost pedagoške klime, to je stopnjo svojega strinjanja oz. nestrinjanja z danimi trditvami. Instrument se uporablja na podrejeni ravni in na vprašanja se odgovori tako, da se izbere eno izmed ponujenih možnosti (1 – nikoli, 2 – zelo redko, 3 – včasih, 4 – pretežno, 5 – vedno). Zanesljivost instrumenta je določen s koeficientom Cronbach Alfa ($\alpha = 0,91$).

Prva skupina vprašanj se nanaša na sociodemografske podatke, ki smo jih želeli zbrati o vprašanih. Podatki se nanašajo na spol, razred in uspeh v šoli.

Prvi podsklop vprašanj učiteljeva podpora učencem tvorijo trditve o zagotavljanju pomoči učencem na različne načine tudi takrat, ko bi le-ti želeli izostati od pouka ali imeli kakšne druge probleme, da bi lahko uživali pri pouku.

Podsklop jasnost in doslednost pri uporabi pravil in podpora učencem se nanaša na določitev jasnih pravil in njihovo upoštevanje s strani učiteljev, pomoč učiteljev, kadar učenci pokažejo željo po ukrepanju, tako da dajejo jasna navodila o tem, kako delati v razredu in ob tem izpostaviti najpomembnejša pravila. Isti podsklop določa sankcije in pojasni, kaj se bo zgodilo, če bodo kršili dogovorjena pravila.

Motivacija učencev za dosežke je podsklop, ki se nanaša na njihov trud, da prispevajo k ovrednotenju pomena ocen za učence, in vlaganje energije v to, kar počnejo v šoli.

V četrtem podsklopu negativna medsebojna povezanost zajema težave učencev pri medsebojnem sodelovanju, ko je prisotna zavist in podlost, ki se pojavljata v njihovi komunikaciji.

Pozitivna medsebojna povezanost vključuje trditve, povezane s pomočjo in sode-lovanjem med učenci v učnem procesu, vzajemno spoznavanje in uživanje v skupnih dejavnostih.

Disciplinska strogost ocenjuje stopnjo pravil v šoli z možnostjo izključitve iz nje na tak način, da se to lahko zgodi zaradi kršitve tudi najmanjšega pravila, pa tudi kazno-vanje in resnost, ki jo kažejo učitelji.

Sodelovanje učencev pri odločanju vključuje področje sodelovanja učencev pri delu šole preko odločanja, izražanja svojih mnenj, izražanja želje o tem, kaj učiti in kako poučevati.

Osmi podsklop pokriva inovacije pri pouku, ki so pomemben segment ustvarjanja pozitivne pedagoške klime. Vprašanja, na katera se nanaša, so uporaba inovacij pri pouku preko učnih oblik in metod, ustvarjanje novih idej, vključevanje v projekte in navodila, kako se obnašati zunaj šole v vsakdanjem življenju.

Raziskovanje je potekalo v osnovnih šolah Srednjebosanskega kantona s soglasjem resornega ministrstva in ravnateljev šol, v katerih smo raziskovali. Sodelovanje v razi-skavi je bilo prostovoljno, anketiranci pa so bili seznanjeni z namenom vprašalnika in so obkroževali ustrezne odgovore glede na trditve, ki jih je prebral izvajalec testiranja. Testiranje je trajalo eno šolsko uro.

Za zmanjšanje 40 očitnih spremenljivk, ki tvorijo instrument Izobraževalna kli-ma v šoli, smo uporabili faktorsko analizo (SPS), pri kateri smo prvotno dobili sedem glavnih komponent, s katerimi je pojasnjene 52,29% variance, kar do neke mere iz-polnjuje izvirno faktorsko strukturo, ker je razpored trditev skoraj identičen prvotni strukturi. Čeprav se prvotna faktorska struktura razlikuje od tiste, ki smo jo dobili, pa smo se, ob upoštevanju skrajšanja prvotnega sklopa za dva podsklopa in ob nadaljnji previdnosti pri interpretaciji rezultatov, odločili uporabiti prvotno faktorsko strukturo z osmimi dejavniki: učiteljeva podpora učencem (6 vprašanj), jasnost in doslednost pri uporabi pravil in podpora učencem (5 vprašanj), motivacija učencev za dosežke (5 vprašanj), negativna medsebojna povezanost (5 vprašanj), pozitivna medsebojna po-vezanost (5 vprašanj), disciplinska strogost (5 vprašanj), sodelovanje učencev pri odlo-čanju (5 vprašanj), inovacije pri pouku (4 vprašanja), podpora kulturnemu pluralizmu (4 vprašanja) in varnostni problemi (6 vprašanj).

Rezultati kažejo, da ocene kakovosti pedagoške klime segajo od najvišjih v pod-sklopu 2 – jasnost in doslednost pri uporabi pravil in podpora učencem z vrednostjo M = 4,12 do najnižje ocenjene vrednosti za podsklop vključenost učencev v odločanje z vrednostjo M = 2,68. Ugotovitve kažejo, da so učenci nadpovprečno ocenili šest od osmih podsklopov.

Aritmetična sredina vseh trditev (povzetek spremenljivke) M = 3,54 kaže, da so učenci kakovost pedagoške klime ocenili nadpovprečno dobro. To je potrjeno z vre-dnostjo t-testa (t = 35,54; df = 1638; p = 0,000; povprečna razlika = 0,54, testna vre-dnost = 3), kar kaže, da se rezultati bistveno razlikujejo od kriterija (povprečna/nev-tralna vrednost) 3.

Rezultati raziskave o pedagoški klimi v šoli glede na razred sodelujočih učencev ka-žejo, da obstaja statistično značilna razlika med aritmetičnima sredinama (M) na ravni (p < 0.01) med učenci 5. in 8. razreda osnovne šole, ker je vrednost t = 27.486; p = 0,00. Učenci petega razreda bolj pozitivno ocenjujejo pedagoško klimo v šoli kot osmošolci.

Statistično pomembno razliko opazimo pri vseh osmih podsklopih na ravni p < 0,01. Ob primerjavi aritmetičnih sredin lahko ugotovimo, da učenci nižjih razredov bolj pozitivno ocenjujejo elemente pedagoške klime glede na učence osmih razredov.

Tretji cilj raziskave je bil preučiti povezavo med pedagoško klimo in uspehom anketirancev. Za izračun smo uporabili Pearsonov korelacijski koeficient. Na podlagi rezultatov, prikazanih v tabeli 3, lahko sklepamo, da obstaja statistično značilna nizka pozitivna korelacija (r = 0,14**, p < 0,05) med uspehom učencev in pedagoško klimo.

Statistično značilna pozitivna in nizka korelacija obstaja med uspehom učencev in učiteljevo podporo učencem (r = 0.11**), uspehom in jasnostjo in doslednostjo pri uporabi pravil in podpori učencem (r = 0.15**), uspehom in motiviranostjo učencev za dosežke (r = 0,10**), uspehom in pozitivnim medsebojnim sodelovanjem (r = 0,09**), uspehom in inovacijami pri pouku (r = 0,09**).

Med uspehom in disciplinsko strogostjo obstaja pozitivna in statistično pomembna povezava (r = 0,22**). Glede na to, da so bili podatki za ta podsklop ponovno kodirani, ugotovitve kažejo, da je pozitivna korelacija manjša disciplinska strogost. To pomeni, da se pri povečanju uspeha disciplinska strogost zmanjša.

Statistično pomembna pozitivna korelacija obstaja znotraj vseh dejavnikov, pa tudi med dejavniki in celotno pedagoško klimo v šoli. Dobra povezava znotraj sklopa pedagoške klime govori o dobrem instrumentu in njegovi zanesljivosti.

Pozitivna pedagoška klima je predpogoj za kar največji razvoj vsakega posameznika, vključenega v vzgojno-izobraževalno delo in visokih vzgojno-izobraževalnih rezultatov. Zato je za doseganje ciljev kakovostnega izobraževanja pomembna kakovostna pedagoška klima.

Raziskava ima več omejitev. Prva omejitev je dejstvo, da je bila kakovost pedagoške klime določena s pomočjo ocenjevanja anketirancev v transverzalni raziskavi. Raziskati bi jo bilo treba tudi v drugih kantonih v Federaciji Bosne in Hercegovine, Brčkemu okrožju in Republiki Srbski. Da bi odpravili pomanjkljivosti v raziskavi, so potrebne dolgoročne ali eksperimentalne raziskave, zato morajo biti vključeni tudi učitelji in drugi udeleženci v učnem procesu.

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Dr. Alenka Žbogar

Intra- in interkulturna tujost antične književnosti v gimnaziji

POVZETEK – V članku skušamo, upoštevajoč starost, recepcijo in kognitivne zmožnosti 15-letnikov ter vsebinske zahteve sklopa Antična književnost, pojasniti, kako in s katerimi učnimi metodami jih mladim bralcem približati, navajamo pa tudi sive lise učnega načrta in opozarjamo, katere vsebine so v njem spregledane. V prid obravnavi antične književnosti (mitologije) v gimnaziji govori teorija recepcije oz. teorija bralčevega odziva, ki nas mdr. uči, da strukturna večpomenskost ustvarja potrebo po pomenski enoznačnosti, s tem pa bralca iritira, ga spodbuja k opredeljevanju, kritičnosti, ustvarjalnosti, pa tudi vztrajnosti, branja med vrsticami, natančnosti. Klasična, kanonska literatura, kamor sodi tudi antična mitologija, je univerzalna, transnacionalna, odpira univerzalna vprašanja človeškega bivanja in obstoja, aktualizira moralna in etična vprašanja, na estetski način v bralcu prebuja nova spoznanja o svetu oz. ga utrjuje v spoznavnosti. Partikularnost artikulacije je v kanonskih literarnih besedilih sredstvo za spoznavanje univerzalnosti partikularnosti.

ABSTRACT – This article takes into account the age, reception and cognitive capacity of fifteen-year-olds as well as the required material in the curriculum for teaching secondary-school students. It introduces the basic concepts for interpreting ancient mythology, explains how and with which teaching methods it can be presented to young readers, identifies some of the gaps in the curriculum while pointing out which material was overlooked. Reception theory or reader-response theory speaks in favour of covering ancient literature (or mythology) in grammar school. Among other things, this theory teaches that structural polysemy creates a need for semantic unambiguity, stimulating and motivating the reader toward definition, criticism, creativity and perseverance, reading between the lines, and precision. Traditional canonical literature, which also includes ancient mythology, is universal and transnational. It raises universal questions of human life and existence, human dilemmas, frustrations and conflicts. It foregrounds moral and ethical issues, and awakens, in an aesthetic manner, new awareness in readers about the world or establishes it in their cognition. In canonical literary texts, the particularity of articulation is a means of learning about the universality of particularity.

1 Uvod

V sodobnem hipertehnološko razvitem svetu, digitaliziranem in družbeno omreženem okolju, v katerem odraščajo mladostniki, je težko pričakovati, da bo branje starejše književnosti zelo priljubljeno. Mladostniki se v mitične svetove in probleme, ki jih odpirajo antična literarna besedila težko vživljajo, kar seveda ni in ne more biti argument v prid idejam, da starejše književnosti v šoli ne bi več poučevali. Argumente v prid obravnavi starejše književnosti navaja prispevek Pouk književnosti slovenske reformacije za

21. stoletje (Žbogar, 2010, str. 282). Tam so – prirejene po Šlibar (2006) – že definirane vrste tujosti umetnostnih besedil, zato jih tu le v grobem povzemamo. Namen prispevka je, da, upoštevajoč starost, recepcijo in kognitivne zmožnosti 15-letnikov ter vsebinske zahteve sklopa Antična književnost (prim. Učni načrt za slovenščino v gimnaziji, 2008), naniza temeljne pojme za interpretacijo antične mitologije ter pojasni, kako in s katerimi učnimi metodami jih gimnazijcem približati. Opozarjamo na določene pomanjkljivosti posodobljenega učnega načrta (2008) ter na osnovi specialnodidaktičnih in literarnovednih kriterijev oblikujemo priporočilni seznam antičnih besedil, ki so bila doslej pri gimnazijskem pouku književnosti – najbrž neupravičeno – spregledana.

2 Material in metode

Uporabljena je kvalitativna metodologija: s primerjalno metodo na podlagi sodobnih spoznanj o recepciji književnosti in temeljnih didaktičnih načel gimnazijskega pouka književnosti (Žbogar, 2014), s posebnim ozirom na antično literaturo in njeno intra- in interkulturno tujost, analiziramo gimnazijski učni načrt za slovenščino (2008) ter izsledke sintetiziramo. Nato z analizo virov določimo, katera od antičnih literarnih besedil bi bila primerna za obravnavo v gimnaziji. Na podlagi kompilacije sodobnih spoznanj literarne vede in didaktike književnosti utemeljujemo, zakaj so predlagana besedila primerna, pa tudi s katerimi metodami in oblikami dela bi jih bilo smiselno uvajati v pouk književnosti, vse z namenom izobraziti literarno kompetentne in kulturno razgledane gimnazijce.

3 Rezultati

Učni sklop Antična književnost je vključen v 1. letnik (UN 2008). Gimnazijci spoznajo pomen antične književnosti za razvoj evropskih in slovenske književnosti ter njen pomen danes, trojanski mit (Iliado in Odisejo) in tebanski mit, kamor uvrščamo Kralja Ojdipa, Ojdipa v Kolonu in Antigono. Pri pouku književnosti se gimnazijci srečujejo večidel s klasičnimi umetnostnimi besedili, razporejenimi po literarnozgodovinskem načelu, hkrati pa ob prepoznavanju medbesedilnih vezi ozaveščajo vzajemno oplajanje različnih kulturnih dediščin ter ploden vpliv antike na razvoj in razmah posameznih nacionalnih književnosti. Medbesedilne navezave, ki jih v času šolanja spoznajo tudi gimnazijci, so najbolj izrazite v naslednjih besedilih svetovne književnosti: Rainer Maria Rilke: *Soneti na Orfeja*, Franz Kafka: *Preobrazba*, James Joyce: *Ulikses*, George Bernard Shaw: *Pigmalion*, Ezra Pound: *Cantos I*, Heinrich Heine: *Lorelaj*, Jean-Paul Sartre: *Muhe*, Jorge Luis Borges: *Astrinova hiša*. Navezave, ki jih gimnazijci spoznavajo ob slovenski književnosti, pa so: *Rošlin in Verjanko* (ljudska balada), Dominik Smole: *Antigona*, Dane Zajc: *Medeja*, France Prešeren: *Pevcu, Sonetni venec*.

Ena pomembnejših nalog učitelja književnosti je predvideti ravni tujosti antičnih mitov ter načrtovati strategije, učne oblike, metode dela ter motivacijska sredstva, ki blažijo implikacije tujosti in olajšujejo stik z besedilom. Sistemski razlogi izhajajo iz

sistemske literarne vede in razumevanja literarnega besedila kot deležnika znotraj relacij, ki besedilo zavezujejo, nanj vplivajo, ga omejujejo, institucionalizirajo, pritegujejo k obstoječemu sklepu razpravljanja in sidrajo njegov smisel v širših in znanih kontekstih: udejanjajo se preko prepletov besedila z diskurzom, topiko, tradicijo, ideologemi in konvencijami (Juvan, 2000, str. 32–38). Besedilo funkcionira kot izvir ali rezervoar predstav, s katerimi se s selitvami med govoricami umetnosti, prava, politike, znanosti, religije in vsakdanjega življenja, oblikujejo kohezivne vezi, kanali, po katerih se v družbenem diskurzu selijo in razvrščajo znaki – pomeni, vrednote in predstave, ki ideološko/nazorsko držijo skupaj neko kulturo, družbo, razred ali sloj (Juvan, 2000, str. 24–26). Funkcijski argumenti (Šlibar, 2006) v prid obravnave starejše književnosti v gimnaziji so v specifičnih funkcijah literature, zlasti v pospeševanju empatije, solidarnosti, diferenciranega pogleda na svet in njegovo pojavnost. Empatija, ki jo branje leposlovja spodbuja, podpira samoodločanje in prevzemanje odgovornosti, s tem pa podpira razvijanje strpnosti, sočutja, socialne kohezije in občutljivosti za spoštovanje človekovih pravic. Strukturni dejavniki, ki dajejo pouku antične književnosti svoje mesto v kurikulumu, so v tem, da se literatura od drugih družbenih sistemov razlikuje po avtoreferenčnosti, v ustvarjanju svetov s svojimi pravili ter v spodbujanju aktivnosti bralcev (ob dejavnem stiku z leposlovjem se aktivira t.i. estetski doživljaj, razvija se kulturna kompetenca). V prid obravnavi antične književnosti (mitologije) v gimnaziji govori tudi teorija recepcije oz. teorija bralčevega odziva, ki nas mdr. uči, da strukturna večpomenskost ustvarja potrebo po pomenski enoznačnosti, s tem pa bralca iritira, ga spodbuja k opredeljevanju, h kritičnosti, k ustvarjalnosti, pa tudi vztrajnosti, branju med vrsticami, natančnosti.

Pomembna naloga učitelja književnosti je tudi motiviranje za branje, tj. vzpostavljanje pristne notranje potrebe po spoznavanju kulturne raznolikosti, tiste, ki izhaja iz radovednosti, torej želje po vednosti o tem, kaj delajo drugi, kdo so ti drugi, kako živijo, čustvujejo, v čem so nam podobni, v čem se od nas razlikujejo, kaj se lahko od njih naučimo, kaj jih mi lahko naučimo, kaj nas oplaja, bogati. Literarno branje je tako v osnovni kot srednji šoli osrednja dejavnost pouka književnosti, dejavnost, ki je tudi zelo zahtevna in naporna spričo svoje izjemno kompleksne psihične interakcije opomenjanja grafičnih znamenj, besed, podatkov, njihovega povezovanja, dojemanja oz. razumevanja idejno-sporočilne, jezikovno-slogovne in motivno-tematske strukture literarnega besedila. Najbrž ni treba posebej razlagati, da zato branje v današnjem času permisivne vzgoje, idej o veseli šoli in učitelju animatorju ni prav posebej priljubljena dejavnost.

Da je branje književnosti in njeno poučevanje v šoli smiselno tudi v današnjem tehnološko razvitem svetu, v katerem sicer obstajajo težnje po dokazovanju, da književno znanje na trgu dela nima posebne pragmatične vrednosti, dokazuje Boyd (2009a), ki razpravlja o evolucijskem pomenu pripovedovanja zgodb. Ob nizanju evolucijskih izvorov umetnosti in pripovedovanja, pojasnjuje, zakaj je pripovedovanje za človeško vrsto tako pomembno, kako se je človeški um oblikoval tako, da lahko ustvarja in razume zgodbe in kako je mogoče tudi literaturo dodatno pojasniti skozi razumevanje biološko-kulturne evolucije človeške narave. Dokazati skuša, da je človekova sposobnost ustvarjanja zgodb po eni strani izjemno pozitivno vplivala na njegovo delovanje v skupnosti in v medsebojnem komuniciranju znotraj nje, po drugi strani pa mu je zaradi sposobnosti imaginacije in predvidevanja različnih scenarijev v posameznih življenjskih okoliščinah omogočala preživetje.

4 Razprava

Analiza učnega načrta (2008) je pokazala, da se pri pouku književnosti gimnazijci srečujejo večinoma s klasičnimi umetnostnimi besedili, razporejenimi po literarnozgodovinskem načelu. Klasična, kanonska literatura je univerzalna, transnacionalna, medkulturna, odpira univerzalna vprašanja človeškega bivanja in obstoja, človeških dilem, frustracij, bojev, aktualizira moralna in etična vprašanja, na estetski način v bralcu prebuja nova spoznanja o svetu oz. ga utrjuje v spoznavnosti. Priporočamo, da branje antične literature spodbujamo preko inter- in intrakulturnega dialoga: vzajemnega spoznavanja in razumevanja lastne ter tuje kulturne dediščine. Ob spoju različnosti in podobnosti se odpira niz kontekstov: literarnoteoretskih, literarnozgodovinskih, družbenozgodovinskih in kulturnozgodovinskih, filozofskih, umetniško-estetskih, filozofskih, religioznih, biografskih, jezikovnih ipd., kar dokazuje, da je pouk književnosti pravzaprav pouk kulturnega kapitala, senzibiliziranje za estetske, etične in spoznavne vrednote različnih civilizacij ter spodbuda k strpnosti do drugih in drugačnih. Partikularnost artikulacije je v kanonskih literarnih besedilih sredstvo za spoznavanje univerzalnosti partikularnosti. Razkriva različne življenjske sloge, navade, običaje, religiozne, filozofske, idejne in jezikovne temelje določenega družbeno-kulturnega okolja. Odstira moralne, etične in filozofske probleme iz različnih obdobij človeške zgodovine, opozarja na njihovo kontinuiteto ter drugost in drugačnost (Žbogar, 2015, 766). Pri pouku književnosti preko razmišljanja o tem, kaj različne kulture združuje, kaj jih razdružuje, v čem smo si podobni, v čem se razlikujemo, v prakso prevajamo načelo integracije. Razumevanje antičnega teksta se torej izkazuje kot interpretacija prebranega, njegova sintetična in kritična refleksija, pa tudi ustvarjalna nadgradnja, ki omogoča bolj ali manj izvirno preoblikovanje prebranega. (Žbogar, 2014).

Na uspešnost literarnega branja vplivajo različni dejavniki, od socialnih (družinskega odnosa do knjige in branja), razvojnih (v gimnaziji jo najpogosteje obravnavamo v 1. letniku gimnazije, torej z učenci, starimi okoli 15 let), do kognitivnih dejavnikov, npr. njihovega predznanja, izkušenj, inteligentnosti, znanja jezika in tudi čustvenomotivacijskih dejavnikov (interes za antiko, horizonti pričakovanj, ki jih razpirajo antična besedila). Kako poteka opomenjanje prebranega? Pri ustvarjanju pomena uporabljamo različne procese, spretnosti in strategije, s katerimi pospešujemo, spremljamo in vzdržujemo razumevanje. Ti procesi in strategije se razlikujejo glede na kontekst in cilj branja, pa tudi glede na naše znanje (literarnozgodovinsko, literarnoteoretsko ipd.) ter vrste besedilnih in situacijskih iztočnic, ki pogosto izhajajo iz konkretnega družbenega in kulturnega okolja. Literarnega namreč ni mogoče enačiti npr. s t.i. podatkovnim branjem, saj terja estetsko in domišljijsko odzivanje, ki pri slednjem ni nujno. Večina 15-letnikov ima relativno dobro razvite domišljijske sposobnosti in spomin, so zmožni branja med vrsticami in razumejo retorične figure. Časovna komponenta je pomembnejša mladostnikom, starim do 13 let, kasneje se prostovoljno branje začne umikati podatkovnemu branju, kar vpliva na to, da časovnost začne nadomeščati prostorska orientacija. Mladostniki po 13. letu lažje prepoznavajo znotrajliterarne prvine (npr. slogovno zaznamovanost, arhaični jezik, obrnjeni besedni red), se zanimajo za čustvovanje literarnih oseb in njihove medsebojne odnose. Po Chall (1996) se v starosti od 14 do 18 let začnejo razvijati metakognitivne bralne sposobnosti, tudi zmožnost samoregulacije bralnega procesa. Gimnazijci so sposobni lastno literarno branje načrtovati, spremljati

in prebrano vrednotiti, presojati, primerjati, analizirati in interpretirati iz različnih zornih kotov.

Pomanjkljivost učnega načrta (2008) je, da ne predvideva bolj poglobljenega seznanjanja z antično mitologijo, kljub temu da ta velja za zibelko evropske kulture. Mit je "pripovedka, zgodba ali pripoved o dejanjih bogov, duhov in božanskih herojev, o dejavnosti nadnaravnih sil na nebu, na zemlji, v podzemlju" (2009b, str. 241–242). Miti govorijo o nečem realnem, kar se je zgodilo zunaj realne časnosti, a je vplivalo preko kulta na sedanje življenje. Mit živi v vseh religijah, preko teh je odločilno vplival na literaturo, še posebej na epe in tragedije (prav tam). Da bi gimnazijci razumeli, kakšno funkcijo je imel mit v tedanji družbi, jim moramo pojasniti razliko med ritualom in mitom (ki je ritual nadomestil, prim. Kastelic, 2005, str. 55). Ritualna dejanja so bila ponavljalna dejanja, namenjena preganjanju slabega (zime, jalovosti, smrti), povezana z žrtvovanjem, npr. bikov, kozlov, ovnov, nekakšnim grešnim kozlom, nosilcem umazanije, teme in vsega starega. Rituale pa so izvajali tudi za privabljanje rodovitnosti, pomladi, svetlobe, ponovnega razcveta. Vse mlado, lepo, rodovitno v ritualih pogosto izražajo predvsem ženske kot nosilke pomladi in poletja, oživljanja, zlasti v podobah razcvetanja rastlinstva (npr. v mitu o Dionizu in Adonisu). Ko je ritual postal nesmiseln, nerazumljiv, je prešel v pozabo, nadomestil ga je mit, tj. pripovedka o vračanju domov – nostalgija. Danes nam nostalgija pomeni zlasti hrepenenje po nekdanjih, boljših časih. Če gimnazijci razumejo, da je antični Grk mit razumel kot resnično zgodovino in ne pesniško preoblikovano zgodbo, kakor ga razumemo danes, bo lažje kulturno ovrednotil pomen mita nekoč in danes.

Miti so glede na vsebino iz teogonije, to so miti o nastanku bogov, kozmogonije (govorijo o nastanku sveta) ter antropogonije (zgodbe o nastanku ljudi). Mit o nastanku sveta pripoveduje, da je bil na začetku Kaos, zevajoča praznina, napolnjena z meglo. Iz te praznine je nastalo življenje: iz Kaosa so nastali Gaja (Zemlja), Tartar (temno brezno pod Zemljo) in Eros (Ljubezen) kot ustvarjajoča in oblikujoča moč. Gaja je iz same sebe rodila Urana (nebo) in Ponta (morje), po združitvi z Uranom pa je rodila še Titane (šest moških Titanov in šest ženskih velikank, imenovanih Titanide), orjaške enooke Kiklope in storoke velikane Hekantonhejre (Schwab, 2005). Gimnazijci po veljavnem učnem načrtu (2008) ne spoznajo zgodb niti o najpomembnejših grških bogovih, npr. o Uranu in Kronosu. Uran je veljal za najvišjega med bogovi, a so mu lastni otroci, predvsem Kiklopi, hoteli odvzeti oblast, zato jih je vrgel v Tartar. Kronos se je podal v boj, pri katerem mu je pomagala Gaja. Iz svojih globin je vzela žezlo, dala iz njega skovati srp ter ga podarila Kronosu, da je z njim skopil svojega očeta. Iz krvi ranjenega Urana, ki je kapljala na zemljo, so se rodile erinije, boginje maščevanja, ki kaznujejo vsako kršitev naravnega reda na Zemlji in v podzemlju, strašni Giganti, Titanom podobni oboroženi velikani, in Melijske nimfe, nimfe jesena, iz katerega so izdelovali morilske sulice. Kronosu je Uran tik pred smrtjo prerokoval, da ga bo doletela očetova usoda: lastni otroci mu bodo stregli po življenju. Iz strahu pred prerokbo je vse svoje otroke takoj po rojstvu požrl, izjema je bil tretji otrok. Tega je Rea, Kronosova žena, odšla na prigovarjanje svojih staršev Urana in Gaje rodit na Kreto. Tam se je v temni votlini rodil Zeus. Kronosu naj bi se po eni izmed rimskih različic posrečilo pobegniti v Italijo, kjer je vladal kot bog rodovitnosti in setve (Saturn). Njegov praznik – saturnalije – so Rimljani obhajali 17. decembra: v spomin na zlato Saturnovo dobo so ga proslavljali z objestnostjo, razposajenostjo, popivanjem, kockanjem, obdarovanjem. Zevs, poglavar Olimpa, oče bogov in ljudi, najvišji

izmed grških bogov, ki si je podelil oblast nad nebom in zemljo, je pogosto upodobljen z žezlom in strelo v roki, ob njem pa se pojavlja orel, ki tehta usodo ljudi: pooseblja harmonijo nebeških stvari, red in zakonitost na Zemlji. Je varuh nravnega reda, kaznuje zlorabo moči, varuje kralje in družine, tujce, pomoči potrebne, usliši prošnje in kaznuje krivo prisego. V antični literaturi se poleg Zevsa pogosto pojavljata tudi njegova brata: Pozejdon, ki mu je po prevzemu oblasti Zevs podelil oblast nad morjem, in Had, ki je dobil oblast nad podzemljem (Schwab, 2005).

Tematski sklop Tebanski in trojanski mit (UN 2008) omogoča medbesedilno navezavo med *Odisejo* (že delno obravnavano v osnovni šoli) in *Iliado*. *Iliado* in *Kralja Ojdipa* učni načrt (2008) sicer predpisuje kot izbirni besedili, v praksi pa se zaradi številnih tujosti, ki jih odpirata, ne obravnavata prav pogosto. Zato opozarjamo na nekatere zgodbene in strukturne posebnosti obeh besedil (z ozirom na recepcijske, kognitivne in čustvene specifike mladih bralcev) ter nizamo možnosti, kako premagovati njune intra- in interkulturne tujosti. Ob analizi motivov in tem, jezika in sloga ter idejno-sporočilnih elementov dijake spodbudimo k razmisleku, ali bi lahko zagovarjali tezo, da je ta dva, relativno različna mita, napisal isti avtor. To t.i. homersko vprašanje, z učnim načrtom predpisano za interpretacijo, sproža različne odgovore že od antike (od preučevalcev Ksenona in Helanikosa dalje). Zagovorniki mnenja, da mita ni napisal isti avtor, so se imenovali chorizontes (ločilci), nasprotniki so prepričani, da je *Iliado* Homer napisal v mladostnem žaru, *Odisejo* pa v svojem zrelem obdobju.

Iliada je lahko – ob ustrezni motivaciji in razlagi – za mladega bralca tako na zgodbeni kot strukturni ravni na moč vznemirljivo branje. Odvija se v zadnjem, desetem letu vojne, dejansko pa popisuje le 51 dni (od tega štiri dneve bojev). V predzgodbi izvemo, da je lepa Helena, žena špartanskega kralja Menelaja, s svojo lepoto očarala trojanskega princa Parisa, ki jo je ugrabil in s tem spodbudil trojansko vojno. Zgradba je torej sintetična: na sedanjost močno vplivajo dogodki iz preteklosti. Prvi verz tega junaško-mitološkega epa "Pesem, zapoj, boginja, o jezi Pelida Ahila" (1997, str. 5) razkriva vodilni motiv, ki poganja zgodbo, to je Ahilova razjarjenost. Ahil se med dogajanjem v epu razvija (Vrečko, 1994): sprva je klasični grški heroj, ki si, upoštevajoč etični kodeks "prsi na prsi", pripisuje pravico do vojnega plena in ženske (Brisejde), potem se prelevi v užaljenca, umaknjenega na rob tabora, zročega na morje, nazadnje, ko mu Agamemnon odvzame žensko in mu umre najboljši prijatelj, pa postane vojni zločinec, razjarjeni vojak, ki se želi maščevati Hektorju, Patroklovemu morilcu. Ahilov srd je neizmeren: ne pomiri se niti, ko je prijateljeva smrt maščevana in Hektor ubit. Z njegovim truplom, ki ga vlečejo konji, kar sedemkrat obkroži mesto.

Tudi zgradba *Iliade* ponuja vrsto analitično-interpretativnih izhodišč: obsega 24 spevov (kolikor je grških črk), napisana je v heksametrih in simetrično zgrajena. Za enega biserov homerske poezije velja šesti spev, v katerem se Hektor poslavlja ob bližnjih. Ganljivo je slovo od sinčka in žene Andromahe, do katere ima relativno stereotipen odnos, ki ga lahko razberemo v verzih: "Zdaj pa se vrni domov in poglej po svojih opravkih,/statvah in preslici, da, in dekle mi drži na uzdi,/vojno pa pusti možem: Oni naj se menijo zanjo,/vsi, ki jim Troja je dom, a najbolj je meni na ramah!" (1997: 42) Tragičnost slutnje smrti razbijata podoba Hektorjevega brata Parisa ("kakor se konj spočit strga s konopa /.../ v svesti si mlade lepote prožnih kolen ko burja vrši na pašne livade: spušča tako sin Priama, Paris, se s Pergama grada" (1997, str. 43) in Hektorjeve besede, ki so kljub slovesu vendarle polne upanja ("če da nama Zeus kdaj, večnim bogovom

na čast, v zahvalo bivalcem nebeškim, vrč svobode postaviti v hiši, na mizo svobodno, kadar poženemo iz Troje Ahajce v čvrstih golenkah" (Prav tam.)).

Naj šolsko branje *Iliade* poteka po stopnjah, ki jih didaktiki književnosti običajno priporočamo, tj. od doživljajskega branja h kognitivnemu (kritičnemu) branju (prim. Žbogar, 2014)? Subjektivno sprejemanje leposlovnega besedila, pri katerem so udeleženi še nerazčlenjeni, čutni, čustveni, miselni procesi odzivanja posameznih bralcev je ob branju *Iliade* oteženo zaradi verzne oblike, pa tudi arhaičnega jezika (prim. Gantarjeve prevode npr. v izdaji l. 1959 in l. 1997). Besedilo je zato gimnazijcem tuje na diskurzivni ravni (Šlibar, 2006, str. 15): (ne)poznavanje jezika (arhaičnega, tujega), besedišča in slovničnih struktur sproža odpor, ki izvira bodisi iz nezmožnosti ubeseditve doživetja bodisi iz nerazumevanja prebranega. Premoščanje teh tujosti omogočata prozifikacija in prevajanje v sodobno slovenščino. *Iliada* odpira tudi t.i. receptivno tujost (Šlibar: prav tam): verzno besedilo namreč ne dopušča hitrega branja. Preko vodenega tesnega branja in metode učne verige lahko učinkovito premagujemo napetosti in občutke neugodja, ki jih sprožajo besedilne tujosti. Z metodo pogovora o prebranem gimnazijcem pomagamo uspešno zapolnjevati besedilne praznine. Opozarjanje na literarnoteoretične specifike besedila, npr. preko pogovora o strukturi razširjene komparacije in njeni funkciji v besedilu, poglabljamo razumevanje in uvid v poetiko ter estetiko besedila. Leksikon *Literatura* razširjeno komparacijo definira kot pesniško sredstvo "z obsežnejšo ponazoritvijo kakega dogodka ali predmeta" (2009, str. 353), v kateri je "povečan eden izmed členov komparacije, običajno komparand, lahko sta povečana oba člena". Za šolsko rabo je najbrž primernejša Kmeclova definicija (1983, str. 106): primero ali komparacijo sestavlja prvo v primeri (primerjana beseda), npr. oči, drugo v primeri ali primerjalna beseda, npr. zvezde, ter primerjalni veznik, ki člena povezuje (ko, kakor, kot). Primerjano in primerjalno besedo povezuje tretje v primeri (*tertium comparationis*), ki običajno ostane neizrečeno (npr. lesk, blesk, lepota). Homersko primero obravnavajo že v osnovni šoli ob Prešernovem *Uvodu h Krstu pri Savici*, zato definicijo ponovimo oz. nadgradimo ob odlomku iz 22. speva: "Kakor če v gori se pes, prepodivši jelenče z ležišča,/ besno poganja za njim po klancih, doleh in tokavah,/da, če se tudi potuhne in skrije mu v gostem grmovju,/vendar sledu ne zgubi in teče, dokler ga ne najde:/prav tako Hektor ne uide očem dirjača Ahila." (1997, str. 144) 22. spev sicer odlikuje dramska napetost in ritmična razgibanost, Sovre ugotavlja, da je mojstrsko zgrajen: uvod in zaključek tvorijo po trije govori (v uvodu so to Priamov; Hekabin, Hektorjev, v zaključku pa Priamov, Hekabin in Andromahin). Dejanje ima dva dela: Hektorjev beg in dvoboj, vmes je vrh: trenutek, ko Zeus tehta usodo obeh junakov, t.i. psihostazija.

Vrednotenje prebranega lahko poteka npr. ob primerjavi značajev literarnih oseb: primerjava Parisa in Hektorja tako mdr. pokaže, da je njun odnos do izbrank precej različen: Paris in Helena njunega odnosa nista poglobila, Helena Parisa pomiluje, zdi se ji premalo možat: Hektor se nasprotno kaže kot dober in skrben mož, ljubeč oče, pogumen in odločen vojak, poudarja, da bi se globoko sramoval, če se ne bi podal v boj in bi mu nasprotniki ugrabili ženo Andromaho, njegov odnos do nje pa je precej pokroviteljski in stereotipen. Primerjajo lahko tudi obe ženi: Andromaha v nasprotju s Heleno, ki Parisa priganja v boj, Hektorja prosi, naj ostane doma, boji se za njegovo življenje. Sinteza naj pripomore k prepoznavanju vzročno-posledičnih odnosov, ki so vplivali na trojansko vojno.

Antično dramatiko dijaki spoznajo bodisi preko Sofoklesove *Antigone* bodisi preko *Kralja Ojdipa*, in to ob pojmih zgradba tragedije, tragično, vloga zbora, katarza. Gimnazijce je smiselno opozoriti, da antična dramatika odseva tako tragičnost kakor komičnost Dionizovega kulta. Tako bodo lažje razumeli, da se razlike med obema literarnima vrstama kažejo tudi na ravni dogajanja, sloga (tragedije so napisane v izrazito visokem, komedije v nizkem slogu), pa tudi pri izbiri literarnih oseb. V tragedijah nastopajo bogovi in polbogovi ter pripadniki višjih slojev, ljudstvo se pojavlja v vlogi zbora ali tipiziranih likov (npr. sel, stražar, pastir), v komediji pa nastopajo zlasti povprečneži (v stari komediji tudi znane osebnosti tedanjega časa, npr. vojskovodje, v novi komediji pa le stalni tipi, npr. skopuhi, bahači). Poleg časovne umestitve z razlago razvoja antične dramatike (od Tespisove uvedbe prvega igralca, do Ajshilove uvedbe drugega in Sofoklesove uvedbe tretjega igralca) je pomembno pojasniti še eno od interkulturnih tujosti, namreč dejstvo, da je bilo tedanje gledališče v primerjavi z današnjim bistveno drugačno. Drugačna je bila že prostorska razporeditev, saj je bilo antično gledališče na prostem, drugačna pa tudi sama postavitev scene in odra: običajno postavljeno na vznožje griča ter polkrožno s tremi osrednjimi prostori (oder se je imenoval *skene*, prostor med odrom in gledališčem *orchestra*, prostor za gledalce pa *theatron*). Iz polkrožnega gledališča so Rimljani razvili teater v krogu (amfiteater), namenjen predvsem gladiatorskim igram (in ne toliko uprizarjanju dram). Gledališče je bilo takrat v primerjavi z današnjim precej bolj ljudsko. Uprizoritvam so prisostvovali tisoči gledalcev, največja gledališča so jih sprejela celo do 30.000. Glede na to, da so običajno uprizarjali teatrologije (po tri tragedije in eno komedijo), so predstave trajale po ves dan. Gimnazijcem se bo najbrž zdelo zanimivo tudi dejstvo, da so igrali le moški in da je imel poleg igralcev pomembno vlogo zbor. Z reformami, npr. z uvedbo tretjega igralca, povečanjem zbora z 12 na 15 članov in uvedbo scenskih poslikav, so bili narejeni koraki k današnjemu gledališču.

Od skupno 130 dram, kolikor naj bi jih napisal Sofoklej, ohranjenih je sicer le sedem, se v gimnaziji večinoma obravnava *Antigona*, ki nudi bogate medbesedilne povezave s Smoletovo *Antigono*. *Kralja Ojdipa*, ki je po mnenju številnih literarnih zgodovinarjev Sofoklejeva najpomembnejša in najpopolnejša drama, odpira vprašanja boja za oblast, disonance med voljo in močjo moralno nepopolnih literarnih oseb, pa tudi incesta in volje do moči. Začenja se s koncem mita o kralju Ojdipu. Ob tragediji, ki naj bi že po Aristotelovi definiciji zbujala katarzo, torej očiščenje strahu in groze, ter imela tako rekoč terapevtsko moč, je dijake smiselno soočiti zlasti s problemom, ali je Ojdip res tragični junak, morda z vprašanjem, v čem se Ojdip razlikuje od ostalih antičnih oseb, zlasti z vidika reševanja ovir, s katerimi se sooči na svoji življenjski poti (Ojdip se pri reševanju Sfingine uganke poslužuje zlasti razuma, pri čemer je znanilec novega razumevanja časa, ne več cikličnega, pač pa zgodovinskega, ko vodilno vlogo prevzame intelekt; Ahil pa se v nasprotju z Ojdipom poslužuje zlasti moči, fizične sile). Ojdip ni v sporu z božanskim, pač pa sam s sabo, zaradi česar tragično propade. Kot moralno nepopoln človek, posameznik z napakami, pomanjkljivostmi omogoča lažjo identifikacijo, ki na koncu sproži katarzo.

Kako opisane implikacije poleg že navedenega še učinkovito aplicirati na gimnazijski pouk književnosti? Glede na recepcijske specifike mladostnikov se obrestuje raziskovalno, izkustveno, problemsko-ustvarjalno učenje, učenje z odkrivanjem, sodelovalno skupinsko delo, ustvarjalno pisanje, igra vlog, učna veriga, tesno branje, izraba različnih medijev. Razumevanje antične mitologije spodbujamo s samostojnim in

usmerjenim branjem, npr. z ustvarjalnim, kognitivnim, tj. kritičnim, dejavnim in študijskim branjem. Dijake motiviramo z različnimi oblikami čustvenih spodbud, pa tudi z domišljijskimi in intelektualnimi izzivi. Poglobljeno bralno razumevanje spodbujajo tudi izpisovanje neznanih besed in tvorjenje slovarčka, prevajanje arhaičnih besed v sodobno slovenščino (in obratno), povzemanje in obnavljanje odlomkov, grafični prikazi (v obliki miselnih vzorcev ali računalniških predstavitev), lahko pa tudi različne oblike ustvarjalnega dela z besedilom, kot so dramatizacija, medijska poustvaritev, radijska igra ipd.

Prepričani smo, da je uporaba novih metod dela v razredu običajno učinkovita zaradi uvajanja novega, drugačnega, neobičajnega pristopa, ne pa toliko zaradi metod samih po sebi. Omenjeno dejstvo nas napeljuje k sklepu, da je temeljna značilnost odličnega učitelja avtonomija. Avtonomno izbira učne oblike, metode dela in učne vsebine ter se zaveda, da s poglobljenim in intenzivnim delom na izbranih besedilih lahko dosega vse učne cilje in standarde, ki jih predpisuje kurikulum, in da je bolj kot kvantiteta pomembna kvaliteta dela, s posebno pozornostjo na gojenju lastne ter učenčeve ustvarjalnosti in fleksibilnosti.

Alenka Žbogar, PhD

The intracultural and intercultural foreignness of ancient literature in grammar school

In today's hyper-technologically developed world and the digitalized and socially networked environment where young people are growing up, it is difficult to expect that reading literature would be popular. Older literature especially presents challenges in literature instruction, because it seems alien and distant to young people, therefore it is difficult for them (at least initially) to relate to the mythical worlds and issues that ancient literary texts offer. Of course, this is not and cannot be an argument supporting the thesis that older literature should no longer be taught. Arguments in favour of covering older literature are cited in the article "Pouk književnosti slovenske reformacije za 21. stoletje" (Teaching the Literature of the Slovenian Reformation for the Twenty-First Century; Žbogar, 2010, pp. 282). According to Šlibar (2006), it defines a series of foreign qualities of literary texts, which are only summarized here. This study takes into account the age, reception and cognitive capacity of fifteen-year-olds and the required material in the curriculum whose objective is to teach students about the importance of ancient literature for the development of European and Slovenian literature and its importance today. It presents the basic concepts for interpreting ancient mythology and explains how and with which teaching methods they can be presented to young readers. It also identifies some of the gaps in the curriculum and draws attention to which material was (probably unjustifiably) overlooked.

Reception theory or reader-response theory speaks in favour of covering ancient literature (or mythology) in grammar school. Among other things, this theory teaches that structural polysemy creates a need for semantic unambiguity, stimulating and motivating the reader toward definition, criticism, creativity and also perseverance, reading

between the lines, and precision. With regard to young people's reception specifics, it is beneficial for them to engage in exploratory, experiential, problem-solving creative learning, learning through discovery, participatory group work, creative writing, role-playing, learning chains, close reading, and the use of various media. Understanding ancient mythology is promoted through independent and directed reading, for example creative, cognitive (i.e. critical), active and study-oriented reading. Traditional canonical literature, which also includes ancient mythology, is universal and transnational. It is intercultural and raises universal questions of human life and existence, human dilemmas, frustrations and conflicts. It foregrounds moral and ethical issues, and awakens, in an aesthetic manner, new awareness in readers about the world or establishes it in their cognition. In canonical literary texts, the particularity of articulation is a means of learning about the universality of particularity.

A qualitative method is applied: using a comparative method based on the recent findings about the reception of literature and basic teaching principles for high-school literature instruction (Žbogar, 2014) and with a special focus on ancient literature and its intra- and intercultural foreignness, it analyses the Grammar-School Curriculum for Slovenian (2008) and synthesizes the findings. It then analyses sources to determine which ancient literary texts are appropriate for grammar school. Based on a compilation of recent findings in literary studies and literature instruction, it substantiates why these texts are appropriate and which methods and approaches should be used to introduce them in literature classes to produce competent and culturally informed readers.

Reception theory or reader-response theory speaks in favour of covering ancient literature (or mythology) in grammar school. Among other things, this theory teaches that structural polysemy creates a need for semantic unambiguity, stimulating and motivating the reader toward definition, criticism, creativity and also perseverance, reading between the lines, and precision. With regard to young people's reception specifics, it benefits them to engage in exploratory, experiential, problem-solving creative learning, learning through discovery, participatory group work, creative writing, roleplaying, learning chains, close reading, and the use of various media. Understanding ancient mythology is promoted through independent and directed reading, for example creative, cognitive (i.e. critical), active, and study-oriented reading. Traditional canonical literature, which also includes ancient mythology, is universal and transnational. It is intercultural and raises universal questions of human life and existence, human dilemmas, frustrations and conflicts. It foregrounds moral and ethical issues, and awakens, in an aesthetic manner, new awareness in readers about the world or strengthens their cognition. In canonical literary texts, the particularity of articulation is a means of learning about the universality of particularity. It reveals various lifestyles, habits and customs as well as religious, philosophical, conceptual and linguistic foundations of a particular sociocultural environment. It unveils moral, ethical and philosophical issues from various periods of human history and draws attention to their continuity, otherness, and difference (Žbogar, 2015, pp. 766).

By teaching literature through thinking about what unites different cultures, what separates them and what makes people similar and different, the principle of integration is translated into practice. Successful intercultural dialogue is more successful if it is based on intracultural elements: getting to know and understand one's own cultural heritage alongside creatively combining differences and similarities as well as a se-

ries of contexts: literary aesthetic, literary historical, sociohistorical, cultural histori- cal, philosophical, artistic aesthetic, religious, biographical, linguistic, and so on; this shows that teaching literature more or less entails teaching cultural capital, sensitiza- tion to the aesthetic, ethical and cognitive values of various civilizations, and an incen- tive to be tolerant towards others and those that are different. One of the important tasks for literature teachers is therefore to anticipate the level of foreignness of ancient myths and to plan strategies, forms of teaching, working methods and motivational means that mitigate the implications of foreignness and facilitate contact with the text. A second task is to motivate students to read; that is, to establish in them an authentic internal need to learn about cultural diversity, one that proceeds from curiosity; that is, the desire to know about what others do, who these others are, how they live and feel, how they are similar to us, how they differ from us, what can be learned from them, what one can teach them and what enriches us. A successful teacher is aware of the processes of literary reading and is able to rationally manage them. Understanding an ancient text thus turns out to be an interpretation of what is read, its synthetic and critical reflection as well as its creative improvement, which makes possible a more or less original reshaping of what is read (Žbogar, 2014). Various factors affect the success of literary reading, from social (family perspective on books and reading) and developmental factors (taking into account that ancient literature is most often covered in the first year of secondary school; that is, with students about fifteen years old) to cognitive factors (e.g. students' background knowledge, experience, intelligence and command of language) and ultimately emotional motivation (in the context of ancient literature, this involves secondary-school students' interest in antiquity and their hori- zon of expectations). Creating meaning from what is read takes place based on students' knowledge and a range of textual and situational cues that often originate from a con- crete social and cultural context. In creating meaning, readers use various processes, skills and strategies in order to stimulate, monitor and maintain their understanding. These processes and strategies differ with regard to context and goal of reading. The majority of fifteen-year-olds have relatively well-developed imaginative capacities and memory, are capable of reading between the lines and understand rhetorical figures. The time component is more important for young people up to age thirteen and later leisure reading starts to be replaced by reading for information, which results in time orientation gradually being replaced by a spatial orientation. Young people after age thirteen find it easier to recognize internal literary elements (e.g. stylistic marking, ar- chaic language and inverted syntax) and they take an interest in the feelings of liter- ary characters and their interpersonal relations. According to Chall (1996), from ages fourteen to eighteen, students start to develop metacognitive reading abilities, including the capacity for self-regulation of the reading process. Secondary-school students are capable of planning their own literary reading, monitoring it, assessing what they read, and judging, comparing, analysing and interpreting it from various perspectives. The fact that ancient literature is the cradle of European culture is reflected in the rich in- tertextual references in world literature and Slovenian literature. The intertextual refer- ences that secondary-school students also become aware of during their education are most apparent in the following works of world literature: Rainer Maria Rilke's Sonnets to Orpheus, Franz Kafka's The Metamorphosis, James Joyce's Ulysses, George Ber- nard Shaw's Pygmalion, Ezra Pound's Cantos I, Heinrich Heine's Lorelei, Jean-Paul Sartre's The Flies, and Jorge Luis Borges's The House of Asterion. The references that

secondary-school students get to know from Slovenian literature are found in the folk ballad Rošlin in Verjanko (Rošlin and Verjanko), Dominik Smole's Antigona (Antigone), Dane Zajc's Medeja (Medea), and France Prešeren's "Pevcu" (To a Poet) and Sonetni venec (Wreath of Sonnets). The Grammar-School Curriculum for Slovenian (2008) requires that secondary-school students learn about Trojan mythology, which includes the Iliad and the Odyssey, and Theban mythology, which includes Oedipus Rex, Oedipus at Colonus, and Antigone. A myth is a "narrative, story or tale about activities of gods, spirits and divine heroes, about the activity of supernatural forces in the sky, on Earth and in the underworld" (2009b, pp. 241–242). Myths tell about something real that happened outside of real temporality, but that has influenced current life through a cult. Myths are alive in all religions through which they have had a decisive influence on literature, especially on epics and tragedies (2009b, pp. 241–242), and they are narratives about returning home (cf. the original meaning of the word nostalgia, whereas today's meaning is something different, because it signifies a yearning for former, better times). To achieve the objectives of literature instruction and the curriculum unit on ancient literature, it is worth explaining to secondary-school students that ancient Greeks regarded myths as true history, not only a poetically reworked story. With regard to their content, myths may be theogonies—that is, myths about the origins of the gods—cosmogonies, which tell about the origin of the world, or anthropogonies (about the origin of people). A deficiency of the Grammar-School Curriculum for Slovenian (2008) is that it does not require in-depth learning about these myths, even though they represent the cradle of European culture. This article seeks to provide arguments supporting the fact that reading literature and teaching it in school is very important in today's technologically developed world, even though assumptions are being presented that knowledge of literature has no special market value on the labour market. The opposite is shown by Boyd (2009a), who speaks about the evolutionary significance of telling stories. By stringing together the evolutionary origins of art and storytelling, Boyd explains why storytelling is so important for people, how the human mind has been formed so that it can create and understand stories, and how it is also possible to additionally explain literature by understanding the biological and cultural evolution of human nature. This article explains in greater detail how (through which methods and forms of work) to cover myths about the origin of the world (cosmogonies), the Iliad, and Oedipus Rex in grammar school, which the 2008 Secondary-School Curriculum for Slovenian envisages as optional texts—but in practice are not frequently covered because of the many foreign aspects that arise in them. Attention is drawn to certain special narrative and structural features of these texts (with regard to the receptive, cognitive and emotional characteristics of young readers) as well as suggestions for how to overcome their intra- and intercultural aspects of foreignness.

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Dr. Srečo Zakrajšek

Izobraževalni scenariji za pridobivanje digitalnih kompetenc dijakov

POVZETEK – Digitalne kompetence sodijo med najpomembnejše kompetence dijakov v sodobni družbi, izobraževalni sistem pa naj bi imel pri pridobivanju kompetenc ključno vlogo. Digitalne kompetence slovenskih dijakov splošnih gimnazij niso zadovoljive, v izobraževalnem sistemu pa še niso predvidene ustrezne rešitve, ki bi zagotavljale izboljšanje stanja. Prispevek predstavlja del obsežne raziskave Digitalne kompetence dijakov v slovenski splošni gimnaziji, s katero želimo podrobneje raziskati in ovrednotiti najbolje ocenjene izobraževalne modele, ki omogočajo pridobivanje digitalnih kompetenc dijakov. Izbor le-teh, izmed osmih predlaganih, ki smo jih identificirali v predhodnih raziskavah, je opisan v tem prispevku. Ugotovili smo, da naj bi imeli največji učinek izobraževalni modeli, ki vključujejo pridobivanje in preverjanje digitalnih kompetenc pri več predmetih in ves čas izobraževanja, vendar pa zahtevajo tudi največje posege v izobraževalne sisteme. V nadaljnjih raziskavah bomo izbrane modele podrobno obravnavali z večkriterijskim modelom in ugotavljali parametre, ki so ključni za izbor določenega modela.

ABSTRACT – Digital competences are among the most important competences of secondary school students in the modern society and the education system should play a key role in their acquisition. Digital competences of Slovenian secondary school students are insufficient and so far no adequate solutions have been prepared that would improve the situation. The article presents a part of an extensive research on the digital competences of Slovenian secondary school students which aims to explore and evaluate the best educational models that would facilitate the acquisition of digital competences by secondary school students. A selection of the eight proposed models identified through previous research is described in this article. We established that the educational models that include the acquisition and testing of digital competences in several subjects and throughout the entire period of education are most effective; however, these models also require the greatest changes of the education systems. Follow-up studies will explore the selected models in detail by applying a multi-criteria model and determining the key parameters for selecting a particular model.

1 Uvod

Digitalne kompetence predstavljajo temeljne kompetence državljana v sodobni družbi in EU se že od leta 2005 sistematično ukvarja z njimi. Zaradi hitrega razvoja tehnologij in vključevanja le-teh v vsakdanje življenje se tudi vedenje in merila za digitalne kompetence hitro spreminjajo. Poznavanje in uporaba IKT (informacijsko-komunikacijskih tehnologij) obsegata le del sodobnih digitalnih kompetenc. Ker ni natančnih definicij in meril za digitalne kompetence za določeno populacijo, to povzroča precejšnje ovire pri uvajanju tega področja v izobraževanje.

Leta 2015 je EU izdala publikacijo Promoting Effective Digital-Age Learning (Kampylis, 2015). V programu so si zadali, da do konca leta 2017 pripravijo okvir di-

gitalnih kompetenc za učitelje, za učence in dijake, pa to še ni bilo v programu, zato je to področje precej neraziskano. Večina avtorjev ugotavlja, da bosta posodabljanje šol s sodobno tehnologijo in pridobivanje digitalnih kompetenc nujna, konkretnih podatkov in rešitev pa je zelo malo.

Na ravni EU so sprejeta priporočila in splošne usmeritve za pridobivanje digitalnih kompetenc v izobraževalnih sistemih (DigComp 2.1, 2017), ki jih je sprejela tudi Slovenija. Ministrstvo za izobraževanje in znanost R Slovenije je usmeritev v digitalno družbo potrdilo leta 2016 s pristopom k digitalni koaliciji Slovenije (Digitalna koalicija, 2016).

EU je v januarju 2018 izdala dokument, v katerem so priporočila za modernizacijo izobraževanja v EU, pri čemer ugotavljajo, da je izobraževanje ključno za razvoj EU, vsaka država pa ima avtonomijo in obveznost, da uredi izobraževalni sistem. Uporaba sodobnih tehnologij se omenja samo v nekaj stavkih, ker se tudi v izobraževanju logično predpostavlja uporaba sodobnih tehnologij, kot je to na drugih področjih (Lybacka, 2018).

Pomen IKT in posredno digitalnih kompetenc dijakov v sistemu inovativnega izobraževanja v članku razlagajo Flogie, Barle Lakota in Aberšek (2018, str. 275) ter izpostavljajo nujnost le-teh za dosego zahtev in standardov industrije 4.0, ki že postaja realnost.

Po mnenju številnih priporočil institucij EU in avtorjev pa je izobraževalni sistem ključen za pridobivanje digitalnih kompetenc (Schleicher, 2016; Vermeulen, 2017). EU v svojih smernicah ne predpisuje rešitev, ampak jih prepušča članicam. Za zdaj so sprejeti samo okviri predvidenih digitalnih kompetenc za srednješolce, medtem ko naj bi bile podrobne kompetence pripravljene po letu 2020. V glavnem EU daje članicam usmeritve in spodbude ter opravlja raziskave, s katerimi izvaja primerjave med posameznimi članicami EU in razvitim svetom (Kampylis, 2015).

Stanje na področju digitalnih kompetenc državljanov Slovenije ni dobro, saj se (Poročilo o digitalnem napredku, 2017) Slovenija na indeksu digitalnega gospodarstva in družbe za leto 2017 (DESI) uvršča v Evropi šele na 17. mesto. Ocenjujemo, da so tudi digitalne kompetence večine slovenskih gimnazijskih maturantov neustrezne, saj jih dijaki ne pridobijo sistematično v rednem izobraževanju.

Slovenija bo morala sama, s pomočjo smernic in strokovnjakov EU, pripraviti izhodišča za sodobno slovensko gimnazijo, ki bo kompetenčno zasnovana ter bo vključevala pridobivanje in preverjanje digitalnih kompetenc.

Gimnazijski maturanti bodo morali imeti ustrezne digitalne kompetence, za kar bo treba temeljito posodobiti slovensko splošno gimnazijo. Gimnazije namreč predstavljajo zelo pomemben del srednješolskega izobraževalnega sistema, saj pripravljajo mlade za študij in potencialno najpomembnejše položaje v družbi (Zakrajšek, 2018).

Maja 2018 je bilo predstavljeno poročilo strokovne delovne skupine za analizo prisotnosti vsebin računalništva in informatike v programih osnovnih in srednjih šol ter za pripravo študije o možnih spremembah (RINOS) z naslovom Snovalci digitalne prihodnosti ali le uporabniki? (Brodnik, 2018). Naročilo ga je Ministrstvo za izobraževanje, znanost in šport, v njem pa so avtorji (pretežno predstavniki področja računalništva in informacijsko-komunikacijskih tehnologij) predstavili svoje poglede na stanje v Sloveniji in rešitve zanj. Predlagajo sodobno poučevanje temeljnih vsebin iz računalništva in informatike v obveznem delu kurikulov in praviloma skozi celoten vzgojno-izobraževalni sistem od vrtca do konca srednje šole (str. 70). Glede na sodoben koncept pri-

dobivanja digitalnih kompetenc (DigComp 2.1, 2017) predstavlja omenjeni predlog le pridobivanje dela digitalnih kompetenc.

Problematika poučevanja oz. usposabljanja za digitalne kompetence in merjenja izidov je zelo kompleksna in zahtevna, vsaka predlagana rešitev pomeni določeno tveganje in celo negotovost, zagotovo pa precejšnje spremembe pri načrtovanju in izvedbi programov, organizaciji dela, kadrovskih in prostorskih zahtevah, IKT-opremi, povezavah v domače in mednarodne baze ter pripravi in izvedbi realnih projektov. Zato morajo biti spremembe postopne in skrbno načrtovane, a obenem odločne, saj šolski sistem praviloma zelo nerad in počasi sprejme spremembe. Glede na to, da so spremembe na tem področju nujne, verjamemo, da jih bo mogoče postopoma vpeljati (Zakrajšek, 2018).

2   Digitalne kompetence slovenskih dijakov

Digitalne kompetence slovenskih dijakov splošne gimnazije niso ustrezne. To lahko sklepamo posredno iz nekaterih raziskav med študenti prvih letnikov fakultet in iz spremljanja medijske pismenosti slovenskih dijakov ter iz poročila Zavoda za šolstvo (Posodobitev, 2014). Do podobnih zaključkov so prišli tudi pripravljavci poročila strokovne skupine (Brodnik in drugi, 2018).

Ključni problemi in izzivi na področju pridobivanja digitalnih kompetenc slovenskih dijakov splošne gimnazije:

☐ Slovenski dijaki splošnih gimnazij ne pridobijo ustreznih digitalnih kompetenc po standardih EU.
☐ Sedanji izobraževalni model slovenske splošne gimnazije ni ustrezen za pridobivanje digitalnih kompetenc dijakov. Vsebuje samo en predmet (informatika v 2. letniku), pri katerem vsi dijaki pridobijo manjši segment znanja in veščin, ki tvorijo digitalne kompetence.
☐ V ciljih in učnih načrtih slovenske gimnazije ni pridobivanja digitalnih kompetenc.
☐ V slovenski gimnaziji se ne preverjajo digitalne kompetence dijakov.
☐ EU postavlja samo okvire in priporočila za digitalne kompetence, konkretne rešitve pa bo morala pripraviti vsaka država sama.

3   Raziskava mogočih izobraževalnih modelov za pridobivanje digitalnih kompetenc dijakov

Raziskava (Digitalne kompetence dijakov v slovenski splošni gimnaziji) poteka po metodi Design Science Research (Peffers, 2007).

V prvi fazi raziskav, ko smo pripravljali spisek mogočih izobraževalnih modelov, ki omogočajo pridobivanje digitalnih kompetenc dijakov, smo upoštevali mnenja, ki smo jih pridobili z anketo med 41 slovenskimi gimnazijami v letih 2013 (Zakrajšek, 2013) in 2014 (Zakrajšek, 2014).

V anketi smo odgovorne osebe za IKT spraševali, kateri so po njihovem mnenju potrebni ukrepi za povečanje znanja, veščin in kompetenc s področja uporabe sodobnih tehnologij. Usmerili smo se predvsem na predmete in dejavnosti, ki vsebujejo multimedijske dejavnosti, kot tiste, ki mlade najbolj zanimajo in omogočajo pridobivanje širšega spektra digitalnih kompetenc. Najpogostejši odgovori so bili, da šole potrebujejo strokovno pomoč, projekte ter finančna sredstva za opremo in kader (Zakrajšek, 2013).

Spisek predlogov smo nato nadgrajevali s podatki iz raznih virov in intervjujev z raziskovalci in strokovnjaki iz prakse v državah EU in tudi s podatki JRC – The Joint Research Centre (Key orientations, 2016), ki je vodilna institucija v EU za to problematiko.

Tabela 1: Možnosti (alternative) izhodišč izobraževalnih modelov za pridobivanje in preverjanje digitalnih kompetenc maturantov v slovenski splošni gimnaziji

Št.	*Opis predlagane možnosti*
1	Program in matura ostaneta takšna, kot sta zdaj.* Ker imajo gimnazije zelo različen odnos do pridobivanja digitalnih kompetenc dijakov, glede na motivacijo vodstva in nekaterih učiteljev, se pridobivanje digitalnih kompetenc dijakov prepusti naravnemu razvoju splošne gimnazije in vsaki šoli posebej.
2	Gimnazije dobijo *smernice ter strokovno in tehnično pomoč* pri uvajanju sodobnih tehnologij ter pridobivanju, preverjanju in ocenjevanju digitalnih kompetenc dijakov. Organizacija pridobivanja in preverjanja digitalnih kompetenc je v domeni gimnazije. Sistematičnega zunanjega preverjanja kompetenc dijakov ni. Matura ostane takšna, kot je zdaj.
3	Program gimnazije in matura ostaneta kot zdaj.* V gimnaziji se opravi tečaj iz priprave na *pridobivanje enega od EU-certifikatov* (ECDL, Europass ...) in nato zunanje preverjanje in ocenjevanje digitalnih kompetenc dijakov s strani ene od pooblaščenih organizacij.
4	Program gimnazije in matura ostaneta kot zdaj.* V gimnaziji se uvedejo *različni avtentični projekti* na ravni regije ali države, ki vključujejo pridobivanje, preverjanje in ocenjevanje digitalnih kompetenc. Del digitalnih kompetenc se preverja in ocenjuje tudi zunanje.
5	V obstoječi gimnazijski program se uvede *poseben predmet* – digitalne kompetence, ki se izvaja v 2. letniku kot predmet (namesto sedanjega predmeta informatika), v 1., 3. in 4. letniku pa v okviru dejavnosti (ali kot predmet). Matura ostane enaka kot zdaj.
6	Program gimnazije ostane takšen, kot je zdaj,* s tem da se uvede pridobivanje digitalnih kompetenc *samo pri dveh izbirnih predmetih* na maturi. Obstoječa matura se spremeni tako, da se pri dveh izbirnih predmetih zunanje preverjajo in ocenjujejo digitalne kompetence z uporabo sodobnih tehnologij.
7	Program gimnazije ostane v večji meri takšen, kot je zdaj,* s tem da se uvede pridobivanje digitalnih kompetenc samo v *določenem delu vseh maturitetnih predmetov*. Obstoječa matura se spremeni tako, da se pri vseh maturitetnih predmetih zunanje preverjajo in ocenjujejo digitalne kompetence z uporabo sodobnih tehnologij, tako da se samo del maturitetnega izpita izvede z uporabo sodobnih tehnologij ali da se digitalne kompetence preverijo v okviru predmeta in upoštevajo pri končni oceni predmeta. Digitalne kompetence pomenijo samo del skupne ocene predmeta.
8	Program gimnazije se spremeni, s tem da se uvede pridobivanje digitalnih kompetenc pri vseh *predmetih*. Matura se v celoti spremeni in omogoča zunanje preverjanje in ocenjevanje digitalnih kompetenc v celoti in pri vseh maturitetnih predmetih.

Opomba: * – V gimnazijskem programu je v 2. letniku predmet informatika v obsegu 70 ur, pri katerem vsi dijaki dobijo del digitalnih kompetenc (predvsem IKT-del), odvisno od programa, ki ga izvaja posamezna gimnazija.

Na podlagi pridobljenih podatkov, smernic, priporočil in rešitev v različnih državah smo ugotovili različne praktične izvedbe (ECDL, Digitalne kompetence, 2017), nikjer pa še ne celovite in zadovoljive (Calvani, 2012; Hatlevik, 2014; Sancho, 2016). Analizirali smo tudi stanje v slovenskem izobraževalnem sistemu (Aberšek, 2015, Zakrajšek, 2016a) ter identificirali in predvideli osem osnovnih izobraževalnih modelov. Za vse modele smo postavili tezo, da je digitalne kompetence dijakov v slovenski splošni gimnaziji mogoče povečati le z ustrezno umestitvijo digitalnih kompetenc med obvezne učne cilje (izide) gimnazijskega programa.

Osnovna izhodišča izobraževalnih modelov za pridobivanje in preverjanje digitalnih kompetenc maturantov v slovenski splošni gimnaziji z opisi so prikazana v tabeli 1.

Za ocenjevanje možnosti smo pridobivanje, preverjanje in ocenjevanje digitalnih kompetenc dijakov v tabeli 2 razdelili v devet skupin oziroma področij, kjer bodo največji vplivi na učenje in delo ter kompetence dijakov.

Tabela 2: Skupine oziroma področja, ki bodo vplivale na učenje in delo dijakov pri pridobivanju digitalnih kompetenc dijakov v slovenski splošni gimnaziji

	Področja
A	Povečanje digitalnih kompetenc.
B	Povečanje predmetnega znanja, veščin in kompetenc.
C	Sodobno sporazumevanje.
Č	Redno seznanjanje z novostmi.
D	Uporaba različnih portalov in podatkovnih baz.
E	Sodelovanje z različnimi strokovnjaki.
F	Vključevanje v projekte, mreženje.
G	Povečanje možnosti za učenje in delo.
H	Povečanje možnosti šolanja za dijake s posebnimi potrebami in tiste, ki so začasno odsotni ipd.

Osem izbranih izobraževalnih modelov smo v letih 2017 in 2018 ovrednotili po metodi vodenega intervjuja s 15 slovenskimi strokovnjaki, ravnatelji in učitelji IKT ter predlagali pet najprimernejših možnosti, ki lahko v slovenskih splošnih gimnazijah zagotovijo izboljšanje digitalnih kompetenc dijakov.

Za oceno in razvrščanje predlaganih možnosti za pridobivanje digitalnih kompetenc dijakov v slovenski splošni gimnaziji smo pripravili izhodišča za oceno predlaganih možnosti iz tabela 1. Ocenjevalna merila (shema 1) so bila pripravljena tako, da so anketiranci razvrstili na prvo mesto možnost, pri kateri pridobijo dijaki z največjo verjetnostjo ustrezne digitalne kompetence, in na zadnje mesto možnost, pri kateri je verjetnost, da bodo dijaki pridobili ustrezne digitalne kompetence, najmanjša.

Za ocenjevanje različnih možnosti iz tabele 1 po področjih iz tabele 2 smo pripravili štiristopenjsko lestvico, ki je prikazana na shemi 1.

Shema 1: Štiristopenjska lestvica za ocenjevanje pridobivanja digitalnih kompetenc dijakov splošne gimnazije na posameznih področjih

Št.	*Področje A: Povečanje digitalnih kompetenc dijakov*	*Točke*
1	Ni nobenega učinka.	0
2	Le nekateri dijaki pridobijo digitalne kompetence.	1
3	Večina dijakov doseže minimalne digitalne kompetence.	2
4	Vsi dijaki pridobijo ustrezne digitalne kompetence.	3
Št.	*Področje B: Povečanje predmetnega znanja, veščin in kompetenc*	*Točke*
1	Ni nobenega učinka.	0
2	Znanje, veščine in kompetence se povečajo le pri izbirnih maturitetnih predmetih.	1
3	Znanje, veščine in kompetence se delno povečajo pri vseh maturitetnih predmetih.	2
4	Znanje, veščine in kompetence se povečajo pri vseh maturitetnih predmetih.	3
Št.	*Področje C: Sodobno sporazumevanje*	*Točke*
1	Ni nobenega učinka.	0
2	Le nekateri dijaki uporabljajo sodobno sporazumevanje.	1
3	Večina dijakov vsaj delno uporablja sodobno sporazumevanje.	2
4	Vsi dijaki uporabljajo sodobno sporazumevanje.	3
Št.	*Področje Č: Redno seznanjanje z novostmi (digitalnimi tehnologijami)*	*Točke*
1	Ni nobenega učinka.	0
2	Le tisti dijaki, ki jih zanima, se redno seznanjajo z novostmi.	1
3	Večina dijakov se vsaj občasno sistematično seznanja z novostmi.	2
4	Vsi dijaki uporabljajo sodobno sporazumevanje.	3
Št.	*Področje D: Uporaba različnih portalov in podatkovnih baz*	*Točke*
1	Dijaki ne uporabljajo nobenih portalov in podatkovnih baz.	0
2	Le naprednejši dijaki uporabljajo različne portale in podatkovne baze.	1
3	Večina dijakov uporablja vsaj nekatere portale in podatkovne baze.	2
4	Vsi dijaki uporabljajo različne portale in podatkovne baze pri vseh maturitetnih predmetih.	3
Št.	*Področje E: Sodelovanje z različnimi strokovnjaki*	*Točke*
1	Sodelovanje z zunanjimi strokovnjaki ni potrebno in ni predvideno.	0
2	Le nekateri dijaki sodelujejo z zunanjimi strokovnjaki.	1
3	Vsi dijaki morajo vsaj enkrat sodelovati z zunanjim strokovnjakom.	2
4	Vsi dijaki so vključeni v sodelovanje z zunanjimi strokovnjaki.	3
Št.	*Področje F: Vključevanje v projekte, mreženje*	*Točke*
1	Vključevanje v projekte in mreženje nista potrebna.	0
2	Le nekateri dijaki se vključujejo v projekte in mreženje.	1
3	Vsi dijaki so občasno vključeni v projekte in mreženje.	2
4	Vsi dijaki so redno vključeni v projekte in mreženje.	3
Št.	*Področje G: Povečanje možnosti za učenje in delo*	*Točke*
1	Možnosti za učenje in delo se ne spremenijo.	0
2	Le nekaterim dijakom se izboljšajo možnosti za učenje in delo.	1
3	Vsem dijakom se izboljšajo možnosti za učenje in delo.	2
4	Vsem dijakom se zelo povečajo možnosti za učenje in delo.	3

Št.	Področje H: Povečanje možnosti šolanja za dijake s posebnimi potrebami in tiste, ki so začasno odsotni ipd.	Točke
1	Možnosti šolanja se ne spremenijo.	0
2	Le nekaterim dijakom se izboljšajo možnosti šolanja.	1
3	Vsem dijakom se izboljšajo možnosti šolanja.	2
4	Vsem dijakom se zelo izboljšajo možnosti šolanja.	3

Na prvi stopnji te lestvice lahko ocenimo, da izbrana možnost ne vpliva oziroma ni napredka glede na sedanje stanje (ocena 0), na zadnji pa, da je dosežen optimalni učinek (ocena 3). Druga in tretja ocena (1 in 2) predstavljata vmesno stanje. Ocene so izbrane tako, da omogočajo ocenjevanje vseh možnosti, od osnovne, ki ponazarja obstoječe stanje (ocena 0), do najkompleksnejše (ocena 3).

Rezultati raziskave so prikazani v tabeli 3.

Tabela 3: Ocena predlaganih možnosti (iz tabele 1) za povečanje digitalnih kompetenc dijakov v gimnaziji

Št.	Področje	1 Enaka kot zdaj	2 Samo smernice	3 Samo certifikat	4 Avtentični projekti	5 Poseben predmet	6 Pri dveh izbirnih predmet.	7 V delu vseh predmet.	8 Pri vseh maturitet. predmet. v celoti
1	A	1	1	3	2	2	3	3	3
2	B	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	3
3	C	1	1	2	2	2	3	3	3
4	Č	1	1	1	0	1	2	3	3
5	D	1	1	1	1	2	3	3	3
6	E	0	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
7	F	0	1	0	2	1	2	2	3
8	G	0	1	2	2	2	2	2	3
9	H	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	3
	Skupaj	4	7	10	11	11	20	23	26

4 Povzetek rezultatov in refleksija raziskovanja

Rezultati raziskave so pokazali, da je mogoče doseči povečanje kompetenc dijakov v splošni gimnaziji na različne načine, pri čemer se le-ti razlikujejo po načinu in obsegu posega v sedanji izobraževalni program gimnazije, dajejo pa tudi različne rezultate.

Iz tabele 3 sledi, da so s stališča pridobivanja digitalnih kompetenc dijakov najbolje ocenjene in uvrščene možnosti 8, 7 in 6, kjer se uvede pridobivanje digitalnih kompe-

tenc pri določenih predmetih in se preverjajo na maturi. Enotna je ocena, da je s stališča pridobivanja digitalnih kompetenc dijakov najboljša možnost 8, pri kateri se uvede celovito pridobivanje, preverjanje in ocenjevanje kompetenc pri vseh predmetih ter se nato zunanje preverjajo tudi na maturi.

Možnosti 4 in 5, pri katerih se zagotovi pridobivanje digitalnih kompetenc dijakov z avtentičnimi projekti ali posebnim predmetom, sta ocenjeni enako, vendar pa je ocena bistveno slabša kot pri prvih treh možnostih.

Možnosti 1 in 2, da stanje ostane enako ali da se dajo šolam samo smernice, so vprašani ocenili zelo slabo, možnost 3 z uvedbo pridobivanja certifikata pa malo bolje, vendar manj primerno kot možnosti 4 in 5, ker sedanji certifikatni sistemi ne zagotavljajo ustreznih digitalnih kompetenc.

Rezultati so pričakovani, saj ocenjevalci menijo, da s sedanjimi cilji, programom in izvedbo programa v slovenski splošni gimnaziji ni pričakovati bistvenega povečanja digitalnih kompetenc.

Obenem pa so ocenjevalci opozorili, da tudi takojšnje uvajanje teoretično najboljše in celovite rešitve pod številko 8 verjetno ne bi bilo uspešno in da je treba preučiti različne modele ter najti načine postopnega uvajanja pridobivanja digitalnih kompetenc v slovensko splošno gimnazijo.

Pri oceni posameznih izobraževalnih modelov bomo morali upoštevati naslednje dosedanje ugotovitve glede predlaganih izhodišč izobraževalnih modelov.

S stališča pridobivanja, preverjanja in ocenjevanja digitalnih kompetenc dijakov je najboljša *možnost 8* (pridobivanje, merjenje in ocenjevanje digitalnih kompetenc pri vseh predmetih), saj predstavlja celovit pristop in omogoča največji želeni učinek in posodobitev slovenske splošne gimnazije, vendar pa zahteva popolno spremembo izobraževalnih procesov v gimnaziji in s tem povezane velike posege.

Možnost 7 daje druge najboljše rezultate, vendar zagotavlja manjše kompetence pri posameznih predmetih in zmanjšuje možnost vključevanja dijakov v projekte ter ima nekatere težave na maturi, ker bodo nekateri dijaki poučevani v celoti sodobno, drugi le v enem segmentu, s tem bodo tudi razlike v metodah dela, snovi in preverjanju učinkov izobraževanja. Prednost te možnosti je, da ni treba vseh predmetov v celoti pretvoriti v sodobno obliko in nekaj učiteljev lahko še naprej poučuje ob pomoči strokovnjakov za sodobno poučevanje.

Pri *možnosti 6* so učinki še vedno dobri, saj dijaki pri dveh izbirnih predmetih (ki jih imajo najraje ali pa jih bodo nadgradili v študij) pridobijo ustrezne digitalne kompetence, težave pa se pojavijo v izobraževalnem procesu, saj se predmeti in učitelji delijo na klasične in sodobne, z vsemi posledicami, ki iz tega izhajajo. Slabo pri tem sistemu morda ni to, da obstaja v gimnazijah delno tudi klasično poučevanje, ki je verjetno za nekatere učitelje in dijake sprejemljivejše.

Pri *možnostih 4 in 5* se pridobivanje digitalnih kompetenc zagotovi samo v določenem segmentu in z nekaj učitelji, kar ne zagotavlja posodabljanja gimnazije, a obenem tudi ne zahteva bistvenih sprememb v izobraževalnih procesih.

5 Zaključek

Digitalne kompetence so med najpomembnejšimi kompetencami državljanov v sodobni družbi, izredno pomembne pa so tudi za gimnazijce, ki večinoma nadaljujejo študij in pozneje zasedajo pomembne družbene položaje. Merila za digitalne kompetence srednješolcev v EU so šele v razvoju in nobena država EU še nima sistema, ki bi zagotavljal celovito pridobivanje digitalnih kompetenc dijakov.

Rezultati raziskave so pokazali, da obstaja več izobraževalnih modelov, s katerimi lahko povečamo digitalne kompetence dijakov v gimnaziji. Pri vseh modelih je nujno, da državne ustanove umestijo pridobivanje digitalnih kompetenc v obvezne cilje in sestavine gimnazijskega programa. Na podlagi naših raziskav smo ocenili, da ima največji potencial pet izobraževalnih modelov, ki so navedeni v točkah 4, 5, 6, 7 in 8 v tabeli 1.

Iz opisa nekaterih vplivov posameznega izobraževalnega modela na organizacijo in delo gimnazije je razvidno, da vsak nov element v izobraževanju povzroča različne vplive, zahteve in spremembe v ciljih, programih, konceptih, kadrih in organizaciji, saj zahteva tudi drugačne izobraževalne procese. Med ključnimi dejavniki izbranih sprememb so ukrepi, ki vplivajo na delo ravnateljev in učiteljev ter na zakonodajo in financiranje programa.

Pet omenjenih izobraževalnih modelov bomo podrobno obravnavali z večkriterijskim modelom (program DEXi) v nadaljnjih raziskavah in ugotavljali parametre, ki so ključni za izbor določenega modela. Poleg prispevka k znanosti bodo rezultati naših raziskav lahko zelo koristni tudi pri načrtovanju posodabljanja slovenske gimnazije.

Srečo Zakrajšek, PhD

Possible education models for acquiring digital competence of students

Digital competences represent the fundamental competences of a citizen in modern society and the EU has been systematically addressing this field since 2005. With the rapid development of technologies and their inclusion in everyday life, behaviour and the criteria for digital competence are changing fast. Knowledge and use of ICT (information and communication technologies) cover only a part of modern digital competences. No precise definitions and criteria for digital competences of a given population exist, which creates significant obstacles to the introduction of this field into education.

The situation relative to digital competences of Slovenian citizens is not good, as Slovenia is only ranked 17th in the 2017 digital economy and society index. We estimate that digital competences of the majority of Slovenian gymnasium graduates are inadequate, since students do not acquire them systematically during regular education.

At the EU level, recommendations and general guidelines for obtaining digital competences in educational systems (DigComp 2.1, 2017) have been adopted, and these were also accepted by Slovenia. In 2016, the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Slovenia confirmed their orientation towards digital society by joining

the Digital Coalition of Slovenia. As each country will have to find certain specific solutions and educational models in the general framework that will enable systematic acquisition of digital competence of students in the Slovenian General Gymnasium and modernise teaching processes, our research is focused on this area.

With many years of pedagogical and research work in the Slovenian general gymnasium (Zakrajšek, 2016) and preliminary research (study of sources, interviews and surveys with Slovenian digital education experts, principals and teachers), we identified the basic possibilities that can influence the improvement of digital competences of Slovenian general gymnasium students. The basic starting points (options) of educational models for obtaining and confirming digital competences of Slovenian general gymnasium graduates, including descriptions, are:

- □ *The gymnasium curriculum and the Matura exam remain unchanged. As gymnasiums have a very different attitude towards obtaining students' digital competences, depending on the motivation of the management and some teachers, the acquisition of students' digital competences is left to the natural development of the general gymnasium and each individual school. (1)*

- □ *Gymnasiums receive guidelines and professional and technical assistance in the introduction of modern technologies and the acquisition, verification and assessment of students' digital competences. The organisation of acquisition and verification of digital competences is in the domain of gymnasiums. There is no systematic external examination of students' competences. The Matura exam remains unchanged. (2)*

- □ *The gymnasium curriculum and the Matura exam remain unchanged. In gymnasiums, a course of preparation for the acquisition of one of the EU-certificates (ECDL, Europass ...) is prepared, which is followed by the external verification and evaluation of digital competences of students by one of the authorised organizations. (3)*

- □ *The gymnasium curriculum and the Matura exam remain unchanged. Gymnasiums introduce various authentic projects at the regional or country level, which include the obtaining, verification and evaluation of digital competences. Part of digital competences is externally examined and evaluated. (4)*

- □ *The existing gymnasium curriculum introduces a special subject – digital competences, which is carried out in the 2nd year as a subject (instead of the current subject Informatics) and in the 1st, 3rd and 4th year within the framework of activities (or as a subject). The Matura exam remains unchanged. (5)*

- □ *The gymnasium curriculum remains unchanged, but the acquisition of digital competences is introduced in only two elective subjects of the Matura exam. The existing Matura exam is changed by examining and evaluating digital competences with the use of modern technologies in two elective subjects. (6)*

- □ *The gymnasium curriculum remains mostly unchanged, but acquisition of digital competences is introduced to a certain extent in all Matura subjects. The existing Matura exam is changed by examining and evaluating digital competences in all Matura subjects by using modern technologies, so that only part of the Matura examination is carried out using modern technologies or that digital competencies are checked within the subject and taken into account in the final assessment of the subject. Digital competences only form one part of the total assessment of the subject. (7)*

☐ *The gymnasium curriculum is changed by introducing the acquisition of digital competences to all subjects. The Matura exam is completely changed and enables external evaluation and assessment of digital competences in full and in all subjects forming the Matura exam. (8)*

The gymnasium curriculum determines 70 hours of informatics in the second year of study, where all students receive some digital competences (mainly ICT), depending on the programme implemented in individual gymnasiums.

As a prerequisite for changes, the general gymnasium curriculum should include the goal of students obtaining adequate digital competences before graduation.

In order to evaluate and classify the proposed possibilities for acquiring digital competences of Slovenian general gymnasium students, we have prepared starting points for the evaluation of the options proposed in list from (1) to (8).

The evaluation criteria are prepared in order to classify the top option as the one with the highest probability of students acquiring the appropriate digital competences and the bottom option as the option where the probability that students would acquire appropriate digital competences is the lowest.

Nine groups or areas with the greatest impacts on learning, work and competences of students, which will help to evaluate the possibilities, acquisition, verification and evaluation of students' digital competences are:

☐ *Increasing digital competences.*
☐ *Increasing subject knowledge, skills and competences.*
☐ *Modern communication.*
☐ *Regular acquaintance with new developments.*
☐ *Using different portals and databases.*
☐ *Working with different experts.*
☐ *Project integration, networking.*
☐ *Increasing opportunities for learning and work.*
☐ *Increasing schooling opportunities for students with special needs and those who are temporarily absent, etc.*

In order to evaluate various options shown for the areas, we prepared a four-level scale. At the first level of this scale, we can estimate that the selected option does not affect or there is no progress with regard to the current state (grade 0), while the last level denotes the optimal effect (grade 3). The second and third grades (1 and 2) represent an intermediate state. Grades are selected so that they can evaluate all options, from the baseline, which exemplifies the existing status (grade 0) to the most complex one (grade 3). We have evaluated the proposed options with preliminary research that we have conducted with a guided interview among 15 Slovenian experts, principals and ICT teachers in Slovenian general gymnasiums.

The best rated options for obtaining students' digital competences are options (8), (7) and (6), where acquisition of digital competences for certain subjects is introduced and evaluated at the Matura exam. It is uniform that from the point of view of students' acquisition of digital competences, the best option is (8), where full acquisition, verification and evaluation of competences in all subjects is introduced.

Options (4) and (5), which ensure students' acquisition of digital competences with authentic projects or a specific subject, are assessed the same, but the grade is significantly lower than in the first three options.

Options (1) and (2), keeping the situation unchanged or to only provide guidelines to schools, were assessed as deficient by the respondents, and option (3) with the introduction of certification was somewhat better, but assessed with a lower grade than options (4) and (5), as current certification systems do not provide adequate digital competences.

The results are expected, as the respondents believe that with the current goals, curriculum and implementation of the curriculum in Slovenian general gymnasium, no significant increase in digital competences is anticipated.

Five educational models will be discussed in detail in further research, using the multi-criteria model and parameters that are crucial for the selection of a particular model will be determined. We estimate that the results of our research can be very useful in planning an upgrade of the Slovenian gymnasium.

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Personality, language learning motivation and achievement

POVZETEK – Avtorice v prispevku preučujejo učinke osebnostnih lastnosti na motivacijo za učenje tujega jezika in dosežen učni uspeh. Raziskava je vključevala 303 študente Univerze v Novem Sadu in Visoke šole v Vršcu, ki so izpolnjevali dva vprašalnika: IPIP–50 (Goldberg, 2001) in orientacijsko lestvico učenja tujega jezika – podlestvica ekstrinzične motivacije, intrinzične motivacije in amotivacije (Noel, Pelletier, Clement &Vallerand, 2000). Korelacijska analiza je pokazala, da je emocionalna stabilnost negativno povezana z ekstrinzično motivacijo. Ekstraverzija je pomembno povezana z identificirano regulacijo in negativno z amotivacijo. Odprtost izkušenj je pomembno povezana z vsemi vidiki intrinzične in ekstrinzične motivacije. Rezultati kažejo, da imajo osebnostne lastnosti pomembnejši vpliv na uspeh kot motivacija. Dobljene rezultate avtorice pojasnjujejo v kontekstu vzpodbujanja in negovanja motivacije ter uspehov pri študentih.

ABSTRACT – The aim of this paper is to determine the effects of personality traits on motivation for foreign language learning and achievement. The research included 303 university students of the University of Novi Sad and the Preschool Teacher Training College in the town of Vršac. They filled out two questionnaires: IPIP-50 (Goldberg, 2001) and Language Learning Orientations Scale – Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS-IEA). (Noel, Pelletier, Clement & Vallerand, 2000). Correlation analyses show that Emotional Stability is negatively related to extrinsic motivation. Extraversion is significantly related to identified regulation and negatively to amotivation. Openness to experience is significantly correlated with all aspects of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Conscientiousness, Openness to Experience, Emotional Stability, and Agreeableness are significant predictors of success, suggesting that the impact of personality traits on success is more important than that of motivation. The results are interpreted in the context of what pedagogues can do to encourage and foster students' motivation and achievement.

1 Introduction

Students' individual abilities and motivation to learn a foreign language significantly influence their success in its mastering. Previous research was mainly focused on the presented knowledge and success in foreign language learning, and it lacks a clear picture of how personality traits affect both motivation and achievement. Therefore, the main objective of this research is to study the relationship between Big Five personality traits, as described in the Big Five model (Costa & McCrae, 1992), motivation for foreign language learning in the framework of the self-determination theory, and success achieved in foreign language learning at the tertiary level of education.

Big Five personality traits

Some personality traits are important to determine language learning motivation, thus this research is based on the Big Five model. It consists of five basic dimensions of personality: *Openness to experience, Conscientiousness*, *Extraversion*, *Agreeableness* and *Emotional stability* (Goldberg, 1992). Each of the proposed factors consists of several related primary traits:

☐ *Openness to experience* (inventive, curious versus consistent, cautious): Positive attitude towards innovation, diversity, intellectual curiosity, unusual ideas, creativity and many other experiences. People with low levels of *openness* try to find pleasure through familiar things.

☐ *Conscientiousness* (efficient, organized versus sloppy, negligent): Conscientious people are reliable and well-organized, committed to work, self-disciplined, achievements are important to them, and they need planning. Low level of *conscientiousness* is related to flexibility and spontaneous behaviour.

☐ *Extraversion* (social, energetic versus lonely, reserved): Vigorous, affirmative, impulsive, energetic, sociable, inclined to seeking stimulation in the company of other people, talkative. Low levels of *extraversion* indicate a restraint, thoughtful person.

☐ *Agreeableness* (friendly, sympathetic versus egocentric, insensitive): People with a high level of agreeableness are ready to help but it is often perceived as naivety or humility, while the low degree of *agreeableness* is related to competing, demanding individuals.

☐ *Emotional stability* (sensitive, nervous versus stable, reliable): Individuals with a high level of emotional stability are steady, they control impulses and easily endure unpleasant emotions, while a low level of *emotional stability* indicates a person who is nervous, depressed and easily irritated.

The undeniable value of this model makes it widely accepted for examining the complex relationship between personality, motivation and academic achievement (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

The self-determination theory

Proponents of the self-determination theory believe that human behaviour is motivated by three primary psychological needs: competence, autonomy and relationships with others (Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992). Self-determination is a modern theoretical framework dealing with work motivation and work commitment. It proposes that an activity-based behavioural regulation can be both intrinsically (IM) and extrinsically motivated (EM). External values and goals are internalized in various degrees depending on the autonomy of self-determination. Amotivation is a lack of both EM and IM characterized by the absence of any activity or the idea that the activity will fail to produce the expected results. Based on the various degrees of motivation in an individual, it is possible to predict cognitive, behavioural and affective outcomes of behaviour (Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2006). Personality traits are very important for success in learning and self-determination, i.e. the level of aspiration, is also significant (Robbins et al. 2006).

The motivation scale within the self-determination theory is the continuum with IM at one end and amotivation on the other, the EM being in the middle (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Intrinsically motivated individuals have the internal locus of control, they are achievement oriented, seek intellectual stimulation, and are thrilled with learning new things. Extrinsically motivated individuals seek education in order to achieve their goals and not to enjoy learning to gain knowledge. There are three types of EM: *external regulation* (education with the aim of external rewards and punishments), *introjected regulation* (internalizing the importance of education due to the environmental impact) and *identified regulation* (being chosen for the purpose of identification with educational values). Finally, amotivated individuals lack any aspiration.

Personality traits and academic motivation

Only few studies examine the relationship between personality traits and motivation for foreign language learning at tertiary level. One of these studies (Ross et al., 2003) has found that the Big Five personality traits explain a significant variation in motivational orientations of cooperative, hypercompetitive behaviour and personal development. Individuals with high levels of conscientiousness, extraversion and openness to experience are strongly motivated for learning (Payne et al., 2007), while students with high levels of neuroticism and low levels of extraversion have fear of failure and do not set learning goals to themselves. It has also been found (Komarraju & Karau, 2005) that learning motivation and desire for self-improvement can be explained best by the traits of openness to experience and extraversion, while motivation for achievement, perseverance and competitiveness can be explained by conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness to experience. Avoiding engagement, debilitating anxiety, withdrawal and a negative attitude towards learning are positively related to neuroticism and extraversion and negatively to conscientiousness and openness to experience. Similarly, motivation for achievement is positively related to conscientiousness and extroversion, and negatively to neuroticism, impulsiveness and the fear of failure (DeGuzman et al., 2003).

Individual differences in terms of learning objectives have also been identified. Students who avoid setting goals are prone to fear of evaluation, they perceive difficulties as threats and are likely to give up further learning (Cury et al., 2006).

Contrary, students who are seeking to reach their learning goals enjoy learning, experience difficulties as a challenge and are persistent in solving them (Harackiewicz et al., 2002).

Ideally, reaching learning goals is positively related to interest and motivation. Thus, research has shown that there is certain influence of personality traits on academic motivation and success in learning, although the obtained knowledge is rather limited. Research findings are contradictory; some studies suggest that personality traits have no impact on the success in language learning (Rogulj, 2016), but with the conclusions of another study (Komarraju et al., 2009), the opposite is the case.

Personality traits and success in learning

Literature on the relationship between personality traits and success in learning at the tertiary level shows that Conscientiousness is positively related to the average grade (Noftle & Robins, 2007) or the coefficient of intelligence (Duckworth & Seligman, 2005). Conscientiousness is also a predictor of academic success (Furnham et al., 2003), including success in exams (Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham, 2003a) and an average grade (Busato et al., 2000; Wagerman & Funder, 2007).

Conscientiousness, Openness to experience and Agreeableness are also positively related to academic success (Lounsbury et al., 2003), while Neuroticism is related to academic failure (Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham, 2003b, Heaven et al., 2002).

Noftle and Robins (2007) also report that Conscientiousness is the strongest predictor of academic success, while the other four personality traits are weakly related to the average grade. Research also suggests that persistence and self-discipline affect academic success stronger than the coefficient of intelligence (Duckworth et al., 2007; Duckworth & Seligman, 2005).

In addition to personality traits and intelligence, the individual's working energy and commitment also influence the success and the average grade (Lounsbury et al. 2003). Traits that point to prudence, self-control, dominance and perfectionism, as well as discipline and commitment to the responsibilities at the faculty, are important predictors of the average grade (Martin et al., 2006; Robbins et al., 2006).

Academic success is higher among *sociable* (Furnham & Medhurst, 1995), *emotionally stable*, and *introvert* individuals (Komarraju et al., 2011). One study has found that academic self-efficacy and motivation for success are the best predictors of the average grade and persistence (Robbins et al., 2006).

Thus, it can be said that various aspects of personality and motivational orientation have been studied, but not their relationship to the achievements in language learning, except in two studies (Komarraju et al. 2009; Sorić et al. 2017), while in Serbia, there is lack of such studies.

2 Method

The aim of the research

The research question of this paper is related to the role of the Big Five personality traits in motivation for foreign language learning and achievement. So far, there have not been a lot of studies related to the causal relationships between the Big Five Personality traits, the motivation for foreign language learning and achievements, while in our country these relationships have not been studied at all. *Therefore, the aim of this research is to establish the relations between the Big Five personality traits, motivation for foreign language learning and students' achievements.*

Based on the research goal, the following research questions are stated:

◻ Is there a significant relation between the Big Five personality traits and motivation for foreign language learning?

◻ Is there a significant relation between the Big Five personality traits and a student's achievement?

On the basis of the above questions the following hypotheses are stated:

◻ *Conscientiousness* is positively correlated with IM and achievement, and negatively with amotivation.

◻ *Openness to experience* is positively correlated with IM and achievement.

◻ *Extraversion* is positively correlated with EM and IM and achievement.

◻ *Agreeableness* is in poor correlation with amotivation, EM and achievement.

◻ *Neuroticism* is positively correlated with amotivation, EM and poor achievement.

Given that conscientious individuals are more disciplined and oriented towards achievement, it is presumed that *conscientiousness* will be positively correlated with IM and success, and negatively with amotivation. As individuals with high *openness to experience* show high intellectual curiosity, it is assumed that openness to experience will be in positive correlation with IM. Given that the *extravert* individuals like socializing, it is assumed that they have high IM and EM. Given that strongly *agreeable* individuals believe, cooperate and are inclined to meet the requirements that are set in their classes, it is assumed that they will be less amotivated and score lower on EM. Individuals with high *neuroticism* are expected to score high on amotivation, low on IM and have lower grades.

Since the questionnaire contains several EM and IM dimensions, the larger differences across the sub-dimensions of motivation for foreign language learning will be explored.

Sample

The sample consisted of 303 respondents with the average age of 20 (SD = 2.02), while female respondents accounted for 56.4 % (N = 171) of the overall sample. The respondents attended the Preschool Teacher Training College "Mihailo Palov" in the town of Vršac (30) and the Faculty of Technical Sciences in Novi Sad (273). The minimum duration of foreign language learning was 2 years, while 9 years was the maximum. All students were informed about the research and have freely agreed to participate without any compensation. They completed two questionnaires in the Serbian language during the foreign language class. The entire process lasted 20 minutes.

This is a representative sample since it includes students of various interests attending various courses at the Faculty of Technical Sciences and the Preschool Teacher Training College. The sample consists of randomly selected respondents from the departments of electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, mechatronics, biomedical engineering, traffic engineering, graphic engineering and design, architecture, civil engineering and geodesy, industrial management and preschool teacher training in order to reduce the possibility of biased sampling and enable reliable conclusion about the respondents.

Table 1. Sample structure

Department	N	%
Electrical engineering	31	10.23
Mechanical engineering	32	10.56
Mechatronics	28	9.25
Biomedical engineering	32	10.56
Traffic engineering	29	9.57
Graphic engineering and design	31	10.23
Architecture	32	10.56
Civil engineering and geodesy	29	9.57
Industrial management	29	9.57
Preschool teacher training	30	9.90

Instruments

IPIP-50 (IPIP Big Five broad domains: Goldberg, 2001). This questionnaire represents the operationalization of the Big Five model, which is publicly available within the IPIP repository framework. Each personality trait from the Big Five domain was estimated through 10 items followed by a five-point Lickert scale (1 – strongly disagree, 5 – strongly agree). The reliability of scales expressed by the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is presented in Table 2.

Language Learning Orientations Scale – Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS-IEA). A foreign language learning orientation scale – subscales of extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation, and amotivation (Noel et al., 2000). This questionnaire includes 21 items followed by a five point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree, 5 – strongly agree). The EM subscale involves *external regulation* (3 items), *introjected regulation* (3 items) and *identified regulation* (3 items). The IM subscale includes *knowledge* (3 items), *achievement* (3 items) and *stimulation* (3 items). The subscale of amotivation consists of 3 questions. The reliability of scales expressed by the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is presented in Table 2.

3 Results

The descriptive statistical parameters and coefficients of reliability (Cronbach's α) are presented in Table 1. The skewness and kurtosis values of all variables, except amotivation scale, are in the recommended range of ±1.5 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Given the significant deviation from the normal distribution and the large number of extreme scores in the amotivation scale, this scale is not used in parametric analyses. The reliability of all measured scales ranges from satisfactory to excellent.

Table 2. Descriptive indicators for the personality questionnaire, motivation questionnaire and success

Questionnaire	Variable	Min	Max	AM	SD	Sk	Ku	α
Big Five	Emotional stability	12	50	31.32	8.05	–0.00	-0.47	0.85
	Extraversion	10	50	33.14	7.27	–0.16	–0.12	0.80
	Openness to experience	18	50	36.65	5.96	–0.04	–0.19	0.75
	Agreeableness	14	50	38.57	6.54	–0.28	–0.26	0.79
	Conscientiousness	17	50	38.82	6.67	0.00	–0.49	0.76
Extrinsic motivation	E Total	9	45	28.08	7.62	–0.07	–0.29	0.82
	External regulation	3	15	9.19	3.32	–0.24	–0.71	0.76
	Introjected regulation	3	15	7.25	3.46	0.40	–0.83	0.78
	Identified regulation	3	15	11.64	3.29	–0.85	–0.12	0.84
Intrinsic motivation	I Total	9	45	27.74	9.24	–0.16	–0.52	0.92
	Knowledge	3	15	9.47	3.61	–0.21	–0.76	0.89
	Achievement	3	15	9.34	3.59	–0.22	–0.84	0.91
	Stimulation	3	15	8.92	3.55	–0.13	–0.86	0.89
Amotivation	Amotivation	3	15	3.92	2.17	2.91	9.17	0.88
	Success	51	100	83.47	12.94	–0.823	–0.238	

Note: Min – minimum; Max – maximum; AM – arithmetic mean; SD – standard deviation; Sk – skewness, Ku – kurtosis; α – Cronbach's alpha, measure of internal consistency.

Coefficients of correlation between personality traits and the aspects of motivation and success are shown in Table 3. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was used as the measure of correlation in the case of amotivation variable; all other cases were analyzed using the Pearson correlation coefficient. Correlation coefficients indicate that Emotional stability is negatively related to extrinsic motivation. Extraversion is significantly related to the subdimensions of extrinsic motivation and *identified regulation*, and negatively to amotivation. Openness to experience accounts for the highest number of significant correlations and is significantly related to all aspects of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, except the *introjected regulation*. It is also positively related to success and negatively to amotivation. Agreeableness and Conscientiousness are significantly related to extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and amotivation, but not with *success*. All these relations have low intensity.

The group of regression analyses was conducted to examine and present the relations between the investigated phenomena.

The first group of analyses examined the influence of personality traits on intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and success (Table 4).

The first model, F (5, 296) = 9.79, p < 0.001, significantly explains 14 % of variance in the criteria and the significant relation extrinsic motivation has with Emotional stability in the negative and Agreeableness and Conscientiousness in the positive direction.

Table 3. Correlations between the Big Five dimensions of personality, motivation and success

	Extrinsic motivation				Intrinsic motivation				Ам.	Success
	total	ext.	intr.	id.	total	know.	post.	stim.		
Emotional stability	–0.17**	–15**	–0.17**	–0.05	–0.02	–0.05	0.01	–0.03	–0.07	0.022
Extraversion	0.10	0.08	0.04	0.11*	0.01	0.00	0.03	0.01	–0.13*	–0.00
Openness to experience	0.17**	0.12*	0.03	0.24*	0.24**	0.27**	0.19**	0.16**	–0.19**	0.13*
Agreea-bleness	0.29**	0.16*	0.21**	0.28**	0.17**	0.14*	0.13*	0.16**	–0.22**	0.08
Conscien-tiousness	0.20**	0.10	0.15**	0.20**	0.15**	0.12*	0.16**	0.10	–0.13*	0.02
Success	0.07	–0.07	–0.02	0.26**	0.15**	0.14*	0.12*	0.12*	–0.22	

Note: ext. – external regulation; intr. – introjected regulation; id. – identified regulation; know. – intrinsic motivation, knowledge; post. – intrinsic motivation, achievement; stim. – intrinsic motivation, stimulation; am. – amotivation; success – score on the test; * – p < 0.05; ** – p < 0.01.

The other model, F (5, 296) = 5.11, p < 0.001, significantly explains about 8 % of variance of criteria, while a significant relation to intrinsic motivation is achieved only by the dimension Openness to experience in a positive direction. Since the last model, in which success was the criterion, was not significant (p > 0.05), the results were not shown.

Table 4. Multiple regressions with the Big Five dimensions as predictors of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation

Criterion	Predictor	Beta	P2 (Corrected P2)
Extrinsic motivation	Emotional stability	–0.20**	0.142 (0.127)
	Extraversion	0.03	
	Openness to experience	0.09	
	Agreeableness	0.20**	
	Conscientiousness	0.13*	
Intrinsic motivation	Emotional stability	–0.04	0.085 (0.069)
	Extraversion	–0.07	
	Openness to experience	0.22**	
	Agreeableness	0.10	
	Conscientiousness	0.07	

Note: * – p < 0.05; ** – p < 0.01.

Table 5. Multiple regressions with EM and IM as predictors of success

Criterion	Predictor	Beta	P2 (Corrected P2)
Success	Intrinsic motivation	0.16*	0.024 (0.018)
	Extrinsic motivation	−0.01	
Success	Intrinsic – Knowledge	0.00	0.097 (0.079)
	Intrinsic – Achievement	0.01	
	Intrinsic – Stimulation	0.06	
	External regulation	−0.12	
	Introjected regulation	−0.10	
	Identified regulation	0.29**	

Note: * – p < 0.05; ** – p < 0.01.

The next group of analyses examined the percentage in which variance in Success is explained by IM and EM as well as by their sub-dimensions (Table 5). The first Regression model is significant, F (2, 300) = 3.70, p < 0.05, and indicates that IM and EM explain approximately 2.4% of variance Success. Intrinsic motivation with a positive sign is found significant predictor. The second model examined the relations between the subdimension of IM and EM, and this model, F (2, 296) = 5.32, p < 0.001, explains about 10% of variance Success, where only *identified regulation*, which is a sub-dimension of EM, is found significant criterion.

Table 6. Hierarchical multiple regression

Criterion	Predictor	Beta – first model	Beta – second model	P2 (p)
Success	Emotional stability	0.03	0.01	0.025 (p > 0.05)
	Extraversion	−0.06	−0.05	
	Openness to experience	0.14	0.09	
	Agreeableness	0.07	0.03	
	Conscientiousness	−0.04	−0.05	
	Intrinsic – Knowledge		−0.02	0.105 (p < 0.01)
	Intrinsic – Achievement		0.02	
	Intrinsic – Stimulation		0.05	
	External regulation		−0.11	
	Introjected regulation		−0.09	
	Identified regulation		0.28**	

Both models are significant and it is possible to assume that, in general, success requires intrinsic motivation, but it is the *identified regulation* that has the largest single influence. The previous findings are confirmed in the results presented in Table 6, which

shows the hierarchical regression that examines the influence of personality traits: in the first step, it is not statistically significant for Success. In the second step, it is significant; in addition to personality traits, it includes the subdimensions of motivation. *Identified regulation* is found a significant predictor.

On the basis of the obtained results, the following can be concluded:

☐ H1: *Conscientiousness is positively correlated with IM and achievement, and negatively with amotivation*, is confirmed.

☐ H2: *Openness to experience is positively correlated with IM and achievement* is confirmed.

☐ H3: *Extraversion is positively correlated with EM and IM and achievement*, is partially confirmed.

☐ H4: *Agreeableness is weakly correlated with amotivation, EM and achievement*, is partially confirmed.

☐ H5: *Neuroticism is positively correlated with amotivation, EM and poor achievement*, is confirmed.

4   Discussion

The obtained results indicate that *Agreeableness* and *Conscientiousness* are in a significant correlation with EM and IM, as well as amotivation, which confirms the results of previous research (Komarraju et al. 2009; Payne et al., 2007) that *Conscientiousness* correlates with all three types of motivation and that it is negatively correlated with amotivation. This indicates that self-disciplined students are more motivated to learn. *Agreeableness* is also negatively correlated with amotivation. Low levels of *Agreeableness* reflect a low level of trust and collaboration, while amotivation indicates low interest and acceptance of academic norms. These results also coincide with an earlier research (Komarraju et al. 2009; Komarraju et al. 2011) which suggest that students with low *Agreeableness* are characterized by egocentric and antisocial behaviour. However, it is possible that the negative correlation between *Agreeableness* and amotivation is typical of the academic environment.

The obtained results indicate that *Openness to experience* achieves the highest number of significant correlations with all aspects of EM and IM, except the introjected regulation, as well as with success in positive direction and amotivation in negative direction. These results are also consistent with previous findings (Komarraju et al. 2009; Payne et al., 2007). Given that the sample of our research consists of successful young people, future engineers and educators, we believe that language learning is their secondary interest. *Openness to experience* or inventiveness, curious spirit, positive attitude towards adventure, art, unusual ideas, emotions and a number of other experiences points to a tendency towards innovation and diversity, creativity and a certain degree of intellectual curiosity, which means that these individuals are more likely to enjoy learning. On the basis of the obtained results, it can be concluded that *Openness to experience* and IM are factors of success in secondary interests in successful population.

Emotional stability in our study is negatively related to EM, which is in line with earlier studies (DeGuzman et al. 2003), while *Extraversion* is significantly correlated with the subdimension of EM, identified regulation, and negatively with amotivation. Earlier studies (Payne et al., 2007; Komarraju et al. 2009) found that *Extraversion* was positively correlated with EM, and along with our results, it could be concluded that students with pronounced social needs find motivation in academic environment.

In terms of academic achievement, the results indicate that EM and IM explain approximately 2.4 % of variance in success. Here, IM emerges as a significant predictor with a positive sign. Relations between the subdimensions EM and IM were examined, which explains about 10 % of variance in *Success*, where only *identified regulation* is a significant criterion. The results of hierarchical regression that examines the influence of personality traits in the first step are not statistically significant for Success, but in the second step they are, which is in line with the results of a previous research (Komarraju et al. 2009) which found that four personality traits *Conscientiousness*, *Openness to experience*, *Neuroticism* and *Agreeableness* explain 14 % of variance in *Success*, while IM explains 5 % of variance in *Success*. The assumption about the correlation between personality traits and success, i.e. the English language competence, was only partially confirmed in the research conducted by Rogulj (2016). *Extraversion*, *Emotional stability*, *Openness to experience* and *Agreeableness* did not show statistically significant correlation with success, while *Conscientiousness* was close to the level of statistical significance. However, it was negative in direction, which is probably the result of homogeneity of the sample that consisted only of students of medicine (Rogulj, 2016). However, the sample of our research consisted of students from ten different scientific disciplines and it shows a wider range of individual characteristics which resulted in stronger correlations between personality traits and success.

5 Conclusion

Regarding academic achievement, *Conscientiousness*, *Openness to experience*, *Emotional stability*, and *Agreeableness* are significant predictors of success. Thus, our findings are consistent with previous findings (Duckworth et al. 2007; Furnham & Medhurst, 1995) which suggest that the impact of personality traits on success is more significant than that of motivation. We can conclude that the findings of this research confirm the results of the previous research (Duckworth et al. 2007; Duckworth & Seligman, 2005) in which abilities are viewed as only one of the significant factors in learning. Consequently, self-disciplined, curious, sociable and achievement oriented students are prone to success.

The obtained results imply that even students with EM can be motivated to learn. First, teachers may encourage such students by rewarding them for hard work, as they are looking for external sources of support. Second, as competent students are more likely to have IM for language learning, training programs aimed at developing successful learning strategies can increase their confidence in their own abilities. Finally, if students are provided with multiple learning opportunities, they can be even more

motivated to achieve better results, since they internalize activities in a context that fosters the feeling of autonomy and freedom.

In further research, it remains to examine other variables that have an impact on success, such as learning or thinking styles and strategies, self-efficacy and locus of control within learning motivation. Teachers who are aware of the differences in personality traits can organize teaching activities in favour of individual strengths of their students. For example, studies on *Conscientiousness* indicate that creating a structured environment with clear guidelines can motivate students to be organized, disciplined and proactive in learning. Similarly, students with high *Openness to experience* can be encouraged by developing curiosity and interest in learning and directing them towards long-term goals.

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Osebnost, motivacija za učenje tujega jezika in učni uspeh

Dosedanje raziskave so se v glavnem nanašale na izkazano znanje in uspeh pri učenju tujega jezika in ne dajejo jasne slike o tem, kako osebnostne lastnosti vplivajo na motivacijo in uspešnost obvladovanja tujega jezika. Sposobnosti študentov in njihova motivacija za učenje tujega jezika pomembno vpliva na doseženi uspeh. Nekatere osebnostne lastnosti so pomembne determinante motivacije za učenje jezikov, zato je bil osnova za to raziskovanje model "Velikih pet faktorjev osebnosti" (Goldberg, 2001).

Motivacijo za učenje tujega jezika je raziskana po teoriji samoodločanja, po kateri je človeško vedenje motivirano s tremi primarnimi psihološkimi potrebami: kompetenco, avtonomijo in odnosi z drugimi (Vallerand in Bissonnette, 1992). Lestvica motivacije znotraj teorije samoodločanja je povezana z notranjo motivacijo na eni strani in nemotivacijo na drugi, medtem ko je zunanja motivacija na sredini. Notranje motivirani posamezniki imajo notranje mesto nadzora, naravnani so k dosežkom, iščejo intelektualno spodbudo in so navdušeni nad učenjem novih stvari. Zunanje motivirani posamezniki si prizadevajo za izobraževanje, da bi z njim dosegli svoje cilje, namesto da bi uživali pri učenju.

Le nekaj študij preučuje odnos med osebnostnimi lastnostmi in motivacijo za učenje tujega jezika na univerzi. Rezultati so pokazali, da obstajajo določeni vplivi osebnostnih lastnosti na motivacijo in uspeh pri učenju, čeprav o tem ne vemo veliko. Obstajajo nasprotujoče si ugotovitve, da po eni strani osebnostne lastnosti ne vplivajo na doseženi uspeh pri učenju tujega jezika (Rogulj, 2016), medtem ko ima druga študija (Komarraju, Karau in Schmeck, 2009) nasprotne rezultate. Pri nas ti odnosi sploh niso bili preučevani. Prejšnje študije navajajo, da sta vestnost, odprtost do izkušenj in sprejemljivost pozitivno povezani z akademskim uspehom (Lounsbury, Sundstrom, Loveland in Gibson, 2003; Farsides in Woodfield, 2003), medtem ko je nevroticizem povezan z akademskim neuspehom (Chamorro-Premuzic in Furnham, 2003b, Furnham in Mitchell, 1991, Heaven, Mak, Barry in Ciarrochi, 2002). Noftle in Robins (2007) prav tako poročata, da je vestnost najmočnejši prediktor akademskega uspeha, medtem ko so ostale štiri osebnostne lastnosti nekje v sredini.

Raziskovalno vprašanje tega prispevka se nanaša na vlogo petih osebnostnih lastnosti pri motivaciji za učenje tujega jezika in njegovo uspešnost. Namen raziskave je ugotoviti medsebojne odnose med petimi osebnostnimi lastnostmi, motivacijo za učenje tujega jezika in doseženim uspehom študentov. Ker so vestni posamezniki bolj disciplinirani in osredotočeni na dosežke, predpostavljamo, da je vestnost v pozitivni korelaciji z intrinzično motivacijo in doseženim uspehom, v negativni pa je z nemotivacijo. Ker posamezniki z visoko odprtostjo do izkušenj kažejo veliko intelektualno radovednost, lahko domnevamo, da bo odprtost do izkušenj v pozitivni korelaciji z notranjo motivacijo. Glede na to, da imajo ekstravertne osebe toplino in nagnjenost k druženju, smo domnevali, da bodo pokazali visoko zunanjo in notranjo motivacijo. Ker posamezniki z močno sprejemljivostjo verjamejo, sodelujejo in so nagnjeni k izpolnjevanju zahtev, ki so določene v njihovih razredih, smo domnevali, da bodo manj motivirani in da bodo manjši rezultati v zunanji motivaciji. Glede na to, da posamezniki z visokim nevrotizmom kažejo čustveno nestabilnost in šibek nadzor impulzov, pričakujemo visoko nemotivacijo, slabo notranjo motivacijo in nižje ocene.

Vzorec raziskave je sestavljen iz 303 oseb, starih povprečno 20 let (SD = 2.02), žensk je bilo 56.4% (N = 171) celotnega vzorca. Anketiranci študirajo na Visoki šoli za vzgojitelje "Mihailo Palov" v Vršcu (30) in na Fakulteti za tehnične znanosti v Novem Sadu (273). Glede na to, da gre za reprezentativni vzorec, zajema študente desetih različnih študijskih programov na obeh ustanovah.

Raziskovalni instrumenti so:

☐ IPIP-50 (IPIP Big Five broad domains: Goldberg, 2001). Vsaka osebnostna lastnost iz domene Big Five je bila ocenjena s pomočjo 10 postavk, ki jih ima petstopenjska lestvica Likertovega tipa.

☐ Lestvica za učenje jezikov – intrinzična motivacija, zunanja motivacija in nemotivacija (LLOS-IEA). Orientacijska lestvica učenja tujega jezika – podskala ekstrinzične motivacije, intrinzične motivacije in amotivacije (Noel, Pelletier, Clement & Vallerand, 2000).

Dobljeni rezultati kažejo, da sta sprejemljivost in vestnost pomembno povezani z zunanjo in notranjo motivacijo ter nemotivacijo, kar potrjujejo rezultati prejšnjih raziskav (Komarraju et al., 2009; Payne, Youngcourt in Beaubien, 2007), da je vestnost povezana z vsemi tremi vrstami akademske motivacije in to je negativno povezano z nemotivacijo. To kaže, da so samodisciplinirani učenci bolj motivirani za učenje. Pozornost je negativno povezana tudi z nemotivacijo. Nizka stopnja sprejemljivosti izraža nizko stopnjo zaupanja in sodelovanja, medtem ko umikanje kaže na šibko zanimanje in sprejemanje akademskih norm. Ti rezultati se ujemajo s prejšnjimi raziskavami (Komarraju et al., 2009; Komarraju et al., 2011), ki kažejo, da se učenci z nizko stopnjo odprtosti odlikujejo z egocentričnim in antisocialnim vedenjem. Vendar je možno, da je negativna povezava med odprtostjo in amotivacijo značilna za akademsko okolje.

Dobljeni rezultati tudi kažejo, da se odprtost do izkušenj najbolj povezuje z vsemi vidiki zunanje in notranje motivacije, razen notranjega odnosa do stvari, ter z uspehom v pozitivni smeri in z nemotivacijo v negativni smeri. Ti rezultati so tudi skladni s prejšnjimi rezultati (Komarraju et al., 2009; Payne, Youngcourt in Beaubien, 2007).

Emocionalna stabilnost je negativno povezana z zunanjo motivacijo, kar se ujema s prejšnjimi rezultati (Busato et al., 1999; DeGuzman et al., 2003), in ekstravertnost

je pomembno povezana z ugotovljeno regulacijo, negativno pa je povezana z nemotivacijo. V prejšnji študiji (Komarraju et al., 2009) se je izkazalo, da je ekstravertnost pozitivno povezana z EM, tudi na podlagi prejšnjih rezultatov (Payne, Youngcourt in Beaubien, 2007) pa je ugotovljeno, da študenti z izraženimi socialnimi potrebami najdejo motivacijo v akademskem okolju.

Rezultati kažejo, da zunanja in notranja motivacija pojasnjujeta približno 2,4 % varianco uspešnosti. Notranja motivacija je pomemben napovedovalec. Preučeni so bili odnosi med zunanjo in notranjo motivacijo, kar pojasnjuje približno 10 % varianco uspešnosti, pri čemer je bila ugotovljena notranja regulacija pomembno merilo.

Rezultati hierarhične regresije, ki raziskujejo vpliv osebnostnih lastnosti na uspeh, so v skladu z rezultati prejšnjih raziskav (Komarraju et al., 2009). Vestnost, odprtost do izkušenj, nevroticizem in sprejemljivost pojasnjujejo 14 % varianco uspeha, medtem ko notranja motivacija pojasnjuje 5 % uspešnost. V raziskavi smo potrdili predpostavko o razmerju med osebnostnimi lastnostmi in doseženim uspehom oziroma poznavanjem angleškega jezika. Vzorec naše raziskave je sestavljen iz študentov desetih različnih disciplin in kaže širši spekter individualnih značilnosti, kar vodi do močnejših korelacij med osebnostnimi lastnostmi in uspehom.

Glede akademskih dosežkov so vestnost, odprtost do izkušenj, čustvena stabilnost in sprejemljivost pomembni napovedniki uspeha. Naše ugotovitve so tako v skladu s prejšnjimi (Duckvorth et al., 2007; Furnham in Medhurst, 1995), ki kažejo, da osebnostne lastnosti pomembno vplivajo na uspeh in motivacijo. Zaključimo lahko, da so ugotovitve potrditev prejšnjih raziskav (Duckworth et al., 2007; Duckworth in Seligman, 2005), v katerih se sposobnosti obravnavajo kot le eden od pomembnih dejavnikov za učenje tujih jezikov. Zato bi študent, ki je samodiscipliniran, radoveden, družaben in osredotočen na dosežke, najverjetneje lahko pokazal zavidljiv uspeh pri svojem delu.

Če opazujemo naše rezultate v okviru teorije samoopredeljevanja, so tudi študenti z zunanjo motivacijo motivirani za učenje. Prvič, ker ti študenti iščejo zunanje vire podpore, zato jih lahko profesorji podprejo z nagrajevanjem za trdo delo. Drugič, ker je večja verjetnost, da bodo kompetentni študenti imeli notranjo motivacijo za učenje jezikov in usposabljanje za razvoj uspešnih učnih strategij lahko poveča njihovo zaupanje v svoje sposobnosti. Končno, če imajo študenti več možnosti za učenje, so lahko še bolj motivirani, da dosežejo boljše rezultate, saj ponotranjajo dejavnosti v kontekstu, ki spodbuja občutek avtonomije in svobode.

Profesorji, ki se zavedajo razlike v osebnostnih lastnostih, lahko organizirajo učne dejavnosti, ki dajejo prednost posameznim študentom. Na primer, raziskave o vestnosti kažejo, da lahko oblikovanje strukturiranega okolja z jasnimi smernicami motivira študente, da so organizirani, disciplinirani in proaktivni pri učenju. Podobno lahko študente s poudarjeno odprtostjo do izkustva spodbudimo z razvijanjem radovednosti in zanimanja za učenje in osredotočanjem na dolgoročne cilje.

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Slavica Čepon, PhD

Using Snapchat: A new way to learn English vocabulary?

POVZETEK – Aplikacija Snapchat oziroma na slikah osnovano takojšnje sporočanje, ki postaja v zadnjih letih vse bolj priljubljeno tudi med študenti visokošolskega izobraževanja, ponuja možnosti izboljšanja motivacije študentov in posledičnega doseganja boljših učnih rezultatov. Obstoječe študije še niso preučile uporabe Snapchata za učenje in poučevanje tujega jezika, zato naša raziskava poskuša zapolniti to raziskovalno vrzel in oceniti možnosti uporabe Snapchata za učenje tujega jezika v visokošolskem učnem okolju ter ovrednotiti učne izide. Pričujoča raziskava predstavlja mnenja 144 študentov o uporabi Snapchata za učenje angleške leksike z metodo pisanja spletnega testa besedišča pred in po pošiljanju video posnetka s Snapchat aplikacijo drugim udeležencem raziskave in predavatelju tujega jezika. Rezultati raziskave kažejo, da so študenti pozitivno ocenili uporabo Snapchata kot učnega orodja za učenje novih angleških besed, obenem pa tudi nakazujejo, da bi to družbeno omrežje morali uporabljati pri poučevanju tujih jezikov, še posebej zaradi priljubljenosti Snapchata med visokošolskimi študenti.

ABSTRACT – Snapchat as the fastest growing image-based instant messaging service that also attracts higher education students provides an opportunity to improve students' motivation with a view of achieving better learning results. Current studies have not examined the use of Snapchat in foreign language teaching, therefore this study tries to close this research gap, determine students' learning outcomes and assess Snapchat's language-teaching capabilities. After completing online pre- and post-tests and sending a video of the newly learned material via Snapchat to the English teacher and to each other, 144 undergraduate students had the opportunity to express their opinions about the use of Snapchat to learn new English vocabulary in the subsequent survey. The results show that the students enjoyed the use of Snapchat as a learning/teaching tool and learned new English vocabulary. The research also indicates that the potential of Snapchat as an educational environment should be channelled into foreign language teaching/learning practices and research, especially because Snapchat is very popular among the younger generation, including higher education students.

1 Introduction

Over the last few years, the increase in the number of mobile devices, low cost of mobile services, rapid development of mobile wireless technologies, capability enhancements of mobile devices and multiple features (SMS, MMS, audio/video recording, pictures capturing, data storing and internet access) have forced higher education institutions worldwide to make major alterations to the traditional classroom experience (Sabah, 2016). Mobile learning, or m-learning, has emerged as the new form of e-learning in higher education. It allows learners to obtain learning materials anywhere and anytime using mobile technologies and the internet (Lan and Sie, 2010). Generally,

"m-learning helps students raise their technological awareness, find answers to their queries, facilitates team collaboration, allows knowledge sharing and hence leverages their learning outcomes" (Al-Emran et al., 2016, p. 94). In particular, m-learning assists students with disabilities and motivates them to attend classes remotely with the help of their mobile devices. M-learning has also enabled the gradual penetration of different social media apps into the traditional teaching and learning environments, which should improve the motivation of students and enhance teaching/learning outcomes both directly and indirectly (Al-Emran et al., 2016, p. 94). In the last few years, higher education institutions have begun to explore the use of a new set of social media as students' enthusiasm for Facebook and Twitter has slowly started to dwindle (Modo Labs Team, 2016; Sloan, 2016; Tomšič, 2016). They have been experimenting with Snapchat, which is increasingly becoming most students' favourite social media app worldwide due to its combination of easier management, visual add-ins and impermanence in a mobile platform that is overwhelmingly capturing the interest of the younger generation (Dobies and Candance, 2006; Modo Labs Team, 2016; Sloan 2016; Tomšič 2016). Snapchat has become one of the top six most frequently used messaging apps (Statistica, 2017). Although there are no precise data on the use of Snapchat in Slovenia, experts estimate that it is used by more than a half of young people between 16 and 21 years of age (Tomšič, 2016). According to the results from the research MEDIA+ (Uporaba družbenih omrežij v Sloveniji v številkah (*Social Media Use in Slovenia in Numbers*), 2016), Facebook remains far ahead in daily use in Slovenia, but Snapchat has replaced Twitter with more daily active users. The widespread use of Snapchat among students raises the question whether this social network could be utilized to improve students' motivation with a view of achieving better results in learning a foreign language.

The study is focused on Snapchat's language-teaching capabilities and considers how smartphones using it are adapted to meet the changing educational needs. The aim of this experimental study is to determine the potential for using Snapchat on smartphones in teaching new English vocabulary to undergraduate students.

2   Literature review

The study is based on the theoretical background of constructive learning theory, which claims that people learn by constructing new ideas based on their current and past knowledge. In other words, learning involves building one's own knowledge from one's own experience. This theory emphasizes that learning is not a product, but a process of constructing meaningful representations and making sense of one's experiential world. Here, the learners motivate themselves during the learning process. Sustaining motivation to learn is strongly dependent on the learner's confidence in his or her potential for learning (Von Glasersfeld, 1989). Thus, English language learners' motivation for m-learning of new vocabulary must depend on their confidence in their potential for learning with mobile devices. This theory also stems from the idea that learners should constantly be challenged with tasks that refer to skills and knowledge just beyond their current level of mastery. This will capture their motivation and build on previous success to enhance the confidence of the learner (Brownstein, 2001). Constructivist learning the-

ory allows the individual to place a premium on mobile technology, rather than mobile technology imposing value on the individual (Graig and Van Lom, 2018). Provided that constructivist learning theory is valid, planning foreign language instruction using mobiles could allow learners to become more engaged with their learning objects. Mobile devices can be used to replace previous channels of communication and hence provide unobtrusive support for students (Abedoja and Abimbade, 2016).

Several studies have conducted learning activities using m-learning in various application domains, among others in foreign language courses. Cavus and Ibrahim (2009) investigated the use of SMS in education, with particular reference to the potential of learning new technical English vocabulary and found that all students not only expressed their satisfaction and enjoyment, but learned new vocabulary with the help of their mobile phones. Hsu et al. (2013) found that there was no difference in learning outcomes between the group of students who gain their reading material by mobile device and could take notes of English vocabulary translations for the reading content in individual or shared annotation mode and control groups. However, a recent meta--analysis by Schmid et al. (2014) investigating the effect of m-learning among higher education students finds support for the effectiveness of technology in education. Thus, if m-learning is implemented effectively, it adds value to the existing learning approaches, invokes students' flexibility and promotes their interaction, thereby creating a collaborative learning environment (Sabah, 2016). The study also shows that students perceive m-learning as an effective learning supplement that motivates, fosters interaction and enhances their learning process (Abas et al., 2009; Ismail et al., 2010; Hussin et al., 2012; Sabah, 2016). Perceived usefulness and expectation-confirmation predicts satisfaction with m-learning (Joo et al., 2016).

The research into the differences between the students' and teachers preferences regarding m-learning found that the major difference was that the teachers tended to focus more on the technical issues, while the students cared more about the richness and usefulness of the learning content. In addition, both the students and teachers considered that the "anytime" and "anywhere" support provided via the mobile technology played an important role during the learning activities, engaging them in searching for information, collecting and interpreting data and summarizing findings (Lai et al., 2016).

According to Sloan (2016) and Tomšič (2016), the majority of students in Slovenia use social media for learning on smartphones. Numerous researchers have examined how social networking sites, especially Facebook, affect students' foreign language learning. Shih (2011) stated that the convenience and popularity of Facebook promoted its use, which in turn encouraged collaborative learning and increased students' participation in their English language acquisition. By using Facebook, students had more opportunities to assess others' writing and improve their grammar, structure, content and vocabulary. They enjoyed using English on Facebook and by using Facebook, they improved their ability to organize ideas, thoughts and facts from various sources of information (Al-Shehri, 2011). In addition, the use of Facebook can also promote teacher-student interaction via discussion, negotiation, comments and questions (Mazer et al., 2007). The usage of English as a foreign language on Facebook is the strongest predictor of the students' foreign language achievement, highlighting the advantage of using Facebook to facilitate learning English (Kao and Craigie, 2014).

Snapchat is still a new social network in terms of its use in the educational environment. This free mobile messaging app emerged in September 2011 and is one of the main social media apps used by students to share pictures, videos, texts and more (Modo Labs Team, 2016; Sloan, 2016; Tomšič, 2016). Snapchat is used by young people to privately communicate and share content – primarily selfies with doodles (Piwek and Joinson, 2016). Unpacking the characteristics of Snapchat, Grieve (2017) found that Snapchat users placed significantly more importance on social connectedness than non-users, reported significantly greater reliance on graphics in communication, were more likely engaged with technology regularly, had greater comfort with technological multitasking and showed a stronger preference for online social interaction than non-users.

Snapchat is a network where the content disappears forever within seconds after the recipient sees it, except *stories* that live for 24 hours and can be viewed again and again during that period. Snapchat posts images that are impermanent, directly addressing students' concerns about privacy and security. That combination of visual effects and impermanence in a mobile platform is the key to students' technological interest (Modo Labs Team, 2016; Sloan, 2016; Tomšič, 2016).

As the current studies have not examined the use of Snapchat in foreign language teaching, this study tries to close this research gap and find answers to the following questions:

☐ RQ1: Are there significant differences between the pre-test and post-test results?
☐ RQ2: What are the students' opinions about Snapchat-based foreign language learning?

3 Methods

Participants

This experimental study was carried out at the University of Ljubljana, Faculty of Economics, between October 2017 and January 2018. It was carried out with 144 undergraduate students between 18 and 21 years of age (87 female; 57 male). They were randomly selected among the previous students (2016/2017) and the 2017/2018 students enrolled in Professional Degree and University Degree Programmes, and they were willing to participate in the experiment. Before the experiment, it was confirmed that all the participants had smartphones with the Snapchat app and carried them at all times.

Measures and materials

In order to determine the knowledge level of English, an online vocabulary pre-test was carried out before the Snapchat experiment and an online post-test afterwards. In both online tests, the meanings of the same English expressions used in the Snapchat experiment were checked, as it was expected that after participating in the Snapchat

experiment, the students would learn some of the expressions and thus score better. The test conditions were identical in both cases.

Prior to a full-scale study, a small scale preliminary pilot study was conducted with six members of the relevant population in order to improve upon the study design. With a view of assisting English students in bettering their English, the Snapchat research was linked with learning about foreign direct investment/FDI. Accordingly, the text about FDI was adapted from the European Commission Staff Working Document, Country Report Slovenia (2016), and a concordance search was performed to identify the principal words containing the key word FDI. The computerized text analysis produced a list of all occurrences of the expression FDI in the corpus from which the 13 most common expressions were selected for a multiple choice online pre- and post-tests. After having completed the online pre-test, the students were presented with an adapted text on FDI and asked to produce their own sentence about FDI containing at least three expressions from the list of 13 principal expressions from the concordance search. This sentence was to be sent as a video snap to their English teacher and to each other. However, since Snapchat is a constrained media forcing time constraints on content creation, their sentence had to be up to 10 seconds long – a requirement which made them think about the sentence carefully. They were given the opportunity to add various filters, stickers and other visual effects. In the final phase of this study, the students used their smartphones to take the online post-test with the same English expressions as the pre-test.

At the end of the experiment, the students expressed their thoughts on the usefulness of Snapchat in learning English vocabulary. "The Scale of Student Opinion on the use of Snapchat for learning" was based on the Cavus and Ibrahim's "The Scale of Student Opinion on MOLT System" (2009, p. 84) and adapted for Snapchat. The content and validity of the questions were investigated by 6 experts in this field (experts in educational technology, assessment and measurement experts) and were found to be satisfactory. The internal consistency of the questionnaire was found to be 0.86 using Cronbach alpha. The questionnaire consisted of two main questions. The first question was phrased to determine whether or not there was a positive response to the use of Snapchat for learning new English vocabulary. It was formed as a 5-point Likert-scale, consisting of 16 items, with 5 being a response of *strongly agree* and 1 representing *strongly disagree*. Each item was phrased so that *strongly agree* represented a positive reaction to the project. At the end of the second question, the students had the opportunity to assess the usefulness of Snapchat for learning the English language.

In order to find out whether or not there was any statistically significant difference between the students' success rate in the pre- and post-test, a paired sampled t-test was carried out.

4 Results

The results represent the findings about the students' learning outcomes from using Snapchat to learn new English vocabulary and their opinion on the use of Snapchat as a teaching/learning tool.

4.1 Students' success rate in learning new English vocabulary by using Snapchat

Table 1 presents the results of a paired sampled t-test based on the students' pre- and post-test results, indicating a significant difference between those two tests (t = 22.71, p = 0.001). The results show that the students had a lower success rate before using Snapchat (M = 10.57) than after (M = 14.57).

Table 1. Students' success rate in learning new English vocabulary by using Snapchat (N = 144)

	Mean	*SD*	*t*	*p*
Pre-test	10.57	16.62	22.71	0.001
Post-test	14.78	12.31		

4.2 Students' opinion about Snapchat as a teaching/learning tool

Table 2 presents the mean opinion scores and standard deviations of English students' survey responses. In general, a relatively high mean score for the following items indicate that the students have a positive opinion of Snapchat use to learn new English vocabulary: "I'd like to use Snapchat in English courses in the future" (14th items, M = 3.72), "I think most of my classmates who used Snapchat to learn new English words are happy about it" (16th item, M = 3.80) and "I'd like to use Snapchat to learn other foreign languages" (15th item, M = 3.79). They expressed the opinion that using a mobile device and Snapchat as a teaching/learning tool, both otherwise banned in the courses, improves their performance in English (10th item, 3.84). The students prefer the English messages to be delivered as multimedia messages (13th item, M = 3.76).

The students are of the opinion that the use of Snapchat to learn new English vocabulary is enjoyable (1st item, M = 3.80), easy (3rd item, M = 3.70), effective (2nd item, M = 3.68) and enables them to learn more than when using the course book (5th item, M = 3.69). Snapchat is effective, since most of them managed to increase their English vocabulary while preparing video snaps (4th item, M = 3.77); Snapchat makes it easier to remember the words (6th item, M = 3.75) and to correct their meaning (7th item, M = 3.91). The use of Snapchat motivates students to learn new English vocabulary (8th item, M = 3.74) and raises their level of engagement (9th item, M = 3.79).

The students also had the opportunity to express their individual opinions at the end of the survey and more than half of them took it. Almost all opinions were positive, with the comments that the use of Snapchat was "useful", "easier", "funny", "interesting, "good", "a good idea", "different and modern", "nice experience", "cool", "great to try something new". Some students complained that they spent too much time creating snaps because they had no experience with the use of Snapchat; for example, "Considering that I often use Snapchat, this way of learning was fun for me. It was not the easiest thing for my colleagues who have never used the application before, because they also had to learn how to use it. As a result, learning to use Snapchat took quite a bit of time."

There were also five negative responses in which the students emphasized that they did not want to use Snapchat in class because they did not like it; for example, "I wouldn't like to use this app in my English class, because I don't like Snapchat in general", or they did not like using new technology in class in general: "I do not like the use of new technology in class, I prefer the traditional lecture."

The students took this opportunity to offer their opinion on the possible improvement of Snapchat as a teaching/learning tool. They had a positive opinion about the suggestion that it would be nice if Snapchat supported "searching" where they could look for new English words (11th item, M = 4.00) and learning English would have been more effective if they could send and receive more video snaps for two-way communication (12th item, M = 3.81).

Table 2. Scale of students' opinions on the use of Snapchat for learning (N = 144)

Item	Survey items	Mean	SD
1.	The use of Snapchat to learn new English words is enjoyable for me.	3.88	0.81
2.	I found the use of Snapchat to learn new English words effective.	3.68	0.95
3.	With the help of Snapchat, I learned new English words easily.	3.70	0.77
4.	Preparing video snaps expands my English vocabulary.	3.77	0.69
5.	Preparing video snaps helps me learn more words than the course book.	3.69	0.74
6.	Remembering the words I prepared for video snaps is easier than when I use the course book.	3.75	0.81
7.	Preparing video snaps helps me learn the true meanings of English words I was using incorrectly.	3.91	0.84
8.	Using Snapchat motivates me to learn new English words.	3.74	0.78
9.	Using Snapchat as a new modern teaching tool in English class increases my student engagement.	3.79	0.89
10.	Using a mobile and Snapchat as a teaching/learning tool, otherwise banned in the course, improves my performance in English.	3.84	0.96
11.	It would be nice if Snapchat supported "searching" where I could look for new English words.	4.00	0.78
12.	Learning English would have been more effective if I could send and receive more video snaps for two-way communication.	3.81	0.95
13.	I prefer the English messages to come as multimedia messages.	3.76	0.98
14.	I'd like to use Snapchat in English courses in the future.	3.72	0.76
15.	I'd like to use Snapchat to learn other foreign languages.	3.79	0.92
16.	I think most of my classmates who used Snapchat to learn new English words are happy about it.	3.80	0.74

Scoring: 1 – strongly disagree, 5 – strongly agree.

5 Discussion and conclusion

In recent years, m-learning has been regarded as an imperative learning appro-ach. As students in developed countries increasingly use other social networks, such as Snapchat, instead of Facebook, it is important to consider using Snapchat as a teaching/learning tool.

The results of this experimental study were positive and in favour of using Snap-chat. They indicate that Snapchat can be used as an educational "environment" because it improves students' achievement and helps them learn new words by engaging in the experiment. The average score before and after the use of Snapchat for learning new English vocabulary was 10.57 and 14.78. That clearly points towards the success of the experiment. As research results indicate, Snapchat can be a valuable educational tool, particularly when learning foreign language lexis.

Our study confirms the findings of the research by Cavus and Ibrahim (2009), who report that most participants show a great interest in using multimedia messages for foreign language learning. Almost all opinions about Snapchat in our research were po-sitive. The positive connotation of Snapchat as a learning environment can be explained in several ways. Firstly, Snapchat is at the height of its popularity among young users, therefore it comes as no surprise that Millennials claim to prefer learning a foreign lan-guage via multimedia messaging to using a textbook. Further, they are convinced they were able to learn more using Snapchat than they would learn from a textbook – the statement that sounds logical in today's digital world (Dobies and Candance, 2006; Modo Labs Team, 2016; Sloan 2016; Tomšič 2016). The influence of modern informa-tion-communication technologies on the lives of the students is undeniable (Erjavec, 2013). In line with that, the participants from our study reported being more absorbed and engaged with the learning material as well as memorizing it faster and better, which consequently led to learning more English. The results from our study clearly indicate that Snapchat may improve traditional teaching and learning practices and additionally increase the learners' motivation, as noted by Ayadian (2012) and Schmid et al. (2014) who looked into the usefulness of m-learning and social media for bettering educational environments. Moreover, the participants' claims that they were able to focus more on learning material and even rectify previous misconceptions and mistakes could be explained by the relative ease of use of Snapchat, as was also asserted by Grieve (2017). The participants suggested that they would like to continue using Snapchat to learn other foreign languages as well, and also in the future. In our opinion, the students made a justified point about teachers not being able to oppose and ban for much longer the use of smartphones, new applications, social media and the internet in the digital society school settings of the modern-day information age.

On the other hand, some reactions were the opposite. The students who do not like to use Snapchat in general, and therefore do not use it outside classroom environment, would not like to use it in class as a learning tool. As expected, they reported taking too much time to prepare a video snap. Similarly, the participants who are disputing the use of all new information-communication technologies in classroom settings are also opposed to using Snapchat. As stated by Zdravkova et al. (2012), it should be conside-red that not all students are eager to implement everything new. In order to achieve a

good balance between the students who are enthusiastic about immediately switching to new tools and those who prefer traditional ones, new choices should initially be offered as options.

There are several limitations to this study that should be considered. First, the study included only Slovenian participants. Though Slovenian students have relatively rich experiences with ICT technology comparable to those in other developed countries (Gerlič, 2013), it may be difficult to generalize the results to university students in other less developed countries. Therefore, further studies should investigate the use of Snapchat with diverse student populations. Finally, educators should be aware of the restrictions of Snapchat, such as very limited face to face communication, not enabling in depth conversation and its focus on short, instant messages, which means it is necessary to save the snaps with the function of "print screen". They should also be highly sensitive to the negative aspects of Snapchat, such as showing "inappropriate" behaviour. Therefore, the ethics of Snapchat use should be regulated by definitive guidelines.

Dr. Slavica Čepon

Uporaba aplikacije Snapchat: nov način učenja angleške leksike?

Visokošolske ustanove po svetu so bile v zadnjih letih prisiljene zelo spremeniti tradicionalne učne postopke, predvsem zaradi porasta uporabe mobilnih naprav, nenehnega povečevanja njihovih funkcionalnih zmogljivosti in posebnosti ter zaradi nizkih cen mobilnih storitev in hitrega razvoja mobilnih brezžičnih tehnologij (Sabah, 2016). Mobilno učenje (m-učenje), ki zaradi svojih značilnosti učnemu procesu dodaja novo časovno in prostorsko dimenzijo, se je posledično pojavilo kot še en koncept e-izobraževanja v visokem šolstvu, in sicer na stičišču med prilagodljivim in e-izobraževanjem (Lan in Sie, 2010). M-učenje omogoča interakcijo med študenti in predavateljem z mobilnimi napravami kjer koli in kadar koli, vzpostavlja dostop do učnih vsebin z mobiteli, dlančniki in drugimi prenosnimi napravami, lajša sodelovalno učenje ter omogoča deljenje znanja. Obenem m-učenje povečuje zavedanje o možnostih uporabe novih mobilnih tehnologij za izobraževalne namene ter spodbuja postopen prodor aplikacij za družbena omrežja v tradicionalne učne procese, s tem pa povečuje motivacijo študentov ter direktno in indirektno izboljšuje učne izide (Al-Emran idr., 2016). Kot podzvrst e-izobraževanja je m-izobraževanje obenem tudi podzvrst izobraževanja na daljavo, kot takšno pa nepogrešljivo za invalidne osebe.

Zaradi postopnega upada zanimanja za Facebook in Twitter so visokošolske izobraževalne ustanove v zadnjih letih začele raziskovati možnosti uporabe novih družbenih omrežij (Modo Labs Team, 2016; Sloan, 2016), predvsem Snapchata. Slednji postaja danes najbolj priljubljeno družbeno omrežje, predvsem zaradi kombinacije enostavnosti uporabe, nenehnih vizualnih izboljšav ter funkcije samodejnega izbrisa sporočil oz. "minljivosti" v svetu hrambe podatkov, kar ugaja mlajši populaciji, toda vse bolj tudi organizacijam v poslovnem svetu (Dobies in Candance, 2006; Tomšič, 2016; Slovenska podjetja in Snapchat, 2016). Statistica (2017) navaja Snapchat kot enega od šestih najpogosteje uporabljanih aplikacij. V Sloveniji ni natančnih podatkov o uporabi Snap-

chata, toda strokovnjaki ocenjujejo, da ga uporablja več kot polovica mladih med 16 in 21 letom (Tomšič, 2016). Po podatkih raziskave MEDIA+ (Uporaba družbenih omrežij v Sloveniji v številkah, 2016) največ Slovencev dnevno uporablja Facebook, aplikacijo Snapchat pa še enkrat več uporabnikov kot Twitter.

Razširjenost uporabe Snapchata med mlajšo generacijo v Sloveniji sproža vprašanje, ali to družbeno omrežje ponuja še neizkoriščene možnosti uporabe za povečanje motivacije študentov za učenje tujega jezika. Pričujoča raziskava se osredotoča na zmožnost uporabe pametnih telefonov in družbenega omrežja Snapchat za učenje tujih jezikov. Cilj te eksperimentalne študije je ugotoviti potencial Snapchata za učenje angleške leksike v visokošolskem izobraževalnem okolju. Ker še nobena obstoječa raziskava ni zasnovana na uporabi Snapchata za poučevanje in učenje tujega jezika, poskuša pričujoča raziskava zapolniti to raziskovalno vrzel z odgovori na naslednja raziskovalna vprašanja:

□ *Ali v testu obstajajo statistično značilne razlike v znanju angleških besed pred in po uporabi Snapchata?*

□ *Kakšna so mnenja študentov o uporabi Snapchata za učenje angleške leksike?*

Od novembra 2017 do konca januarja 2018 smo na Ekonomski fakulteti Univerze v Ljubljani izvedli eksperimentalno raziskavo, in sicer s 144 dodiplomskimi študenti (87 žensk in 57 moških, starih med 18 in 21 let), ki so bili izbrani po slučajnostnem vzorcu med nekdanjimi študenti angleščine (akademsko leto 2016/2017) in takratnimi študenti (2017/2018), ki so bili pripravljeni sodelovati v raziskavi in so vedno imeli pri sebi pametni telefon. Udeleženci so bili razdeljeni v skupine po približno 25 študentov.

Pred in po uporabi Snapchata so udeleženci raziskave na pametnem telefonu izpolnili enak spletni test poznavanja angleških terminov in besedišča, ki so bili predmet učenja v naši raziskavi, kajti naša hipoteza je bila, da bo uporaba Snapchata prispevala k učenju novih angleških besed in izboljšala rezultat na testu. Pogoji reševanja spletnih testov so bili v obeh primerih identični. Pred pričetkom raziskave je bila s šestimi študenti izvedena pilotska študija, s katero smo v veliki meri izboljšali zasnovo raziskave. Besedišče in termini iz tematike o neposrednih tujih naložbah (angl. foreign direct investment/FDI) so bili primerni za študente angleščine. Besedilo smo priredili iz European Commission Staff Working Document, Country Report Slovenia (2016) in z računalniško analizo na osnovi konkordanc izbrali glavne termine, ki vsebujejo izraz FDI, med katerimi smo zaradi časovnih omejitev raziskave izbrali trinajst najbolj pogostih izrazov. Slednje smo uporabili za sestavo spletnega testa z več možnimi odgovori, dodatno pa smo na osnovi prej omenjenega Country Report Slovenia (2016) pripravili tudi prilagojeno besedilo.

Celotna raziskava je potekala tako, da so udeleženci raziskave najprej na pametnem telefonu z izborom enega odgovora med več možnimi v spletnem testu preverili poznavanje trinajstih izbranih angleških izrazov. Sledilo je branje prilagojenega besedila iz Country Report Slovenia (2016), na osnovi katerega je vsak udeleženec napisal lastno razlago neposrednih tujih naložb, ki pa je morala vsebovati vsaj tri izraze med trinajstimi izbranimi v testu (priloženi k besedilu). To razlago so potem v video posnetku z aplikacijo Snapchat poslali drug drugemu v svoji skupini ter tudi predavatelju tujega jezika, toda prej so morali svojo prvotno razlago skrajšati na največ 10 sekund glede na zahteve Snapchata, kar je od njih zahtevalo tehten premislek o vsebini stavka. V

svojem videu so lahko uporabili različne filtre, nalepke in vizualne učinke, ki jih ponuja Snapchat, edino svojega glasu niso smeli spremeniti, da ne bi zakrili angleške izgovarjave. Zadnja faza raziskave je bilo ponovno izpolnjevanje spletnega testa na pametnem telefonu z enakimi angleškimi termini kot na začetku raziskave.

Na koncu raziskave so udeleženci imeli možnost izraziti svoje mnenje o koristih uporabe Snapchata za učenje angleške leksike. Vprašalnik "The Scale of Student Opinion on the use of Snapchat for learning" temelji na "The Scale of Student Opinion on MOLT System" (Cavus in Ibrahimo, 2009, str. 84), ki smo ga prilagodili za potrebe raziskave. Vprašalnik je vseboval dve vprašanji. Prvo vprašanje je vključevalo 16 trditev o uporabi Snapchata. Odgovore na vprašanja je bilo treba izbrati na 5-stopenjski Likertovi lestvici. V odgovoru na drugo vprašanje so študenti izrazili svojo oceno uporabnosti Snapchata za učenje tujega jezika. Statistično pomembno razliko v uspešnosti med izpolnjevanjem spletnega testa pred in po uporabi Snapchata smo merili s t-testom.

Rezultati raziskave nedvomno kažejo, da ima uporaba družbenega omrežja Snapchat kot izobraževalnega pripomočka pri mobilnem učenju pozitivne učinke, še posebej za učenje novih angleških besed. Povprečen rezultat v spletnem testu pred in po uporabi Snapchata je bil 10,57 in 14,78, kar kaže, da je uporaba Snapchata izboljšala učne dosežke udeležencev.

Pričujoča raziskava torej potrjuje izsledke raziskave, ki sta jo izvedla Cavus in Ibrahim (2009), kjer tudi poročata, da večina udeležencev izkazuje zanimanje za uporabo multimedijskih sporočil za učenje tujega jezika. Skoraj vsi udeleženci raziskave označujejo uporabo Snapchata s pozitivnimi izrazi, kot so "drugačno in moderno", "prijetna izkušnja", "uporabno", "enostavna uporaba" in "lepo je uporabiti nekaj novega". Pozitivno konotacijo Snapchata kot učnega orodja lahko razložimo na več načinov. Prvič, udeleženci so Snapchat sprejeli pozitivno zaradi njegove priljubljenosti, saj velika večina meni, da se raje učijo tujega jezika s pošiljanjem multimedijskih sporočil kot s knjigo. Celo več, prepričani so, da so se s Snapchatom naučili več angleških besed, kot bi se jih iz knjige, kar je pričakovana trditev za milenijsko generacijo, ki živi v digitalnem svetu (Dobies and Candance, 2006; Modo Labs Team, 2016; Sloan 2016; Tomšič 2016). Ker uporaba družbenih omrežij slovenskim študentom predstavlja pomemben del vsakdanjega življenja (Erjavec, 2013), so bili udeleženci naše raziskave ob uporabi Snapchata za učenje tujega jezika bolj prizadevni in zavzeti, zaradi česar so si novo učno gradivo hitreje in bolj zapomnili ter se več naučili. Rezultati naše študije torej potrjujejo, da Snapchat izboljšuje tradicionalne načine učenja in povečuje motiviranost zanj, kot kažejo tudi ugotovitve Ayadiana (2012) ter Schmida in drugih (2014) o uporabnosti mobilnega učenja in družbenih omrežij za izboljšanje izobraževalnega okolja. Dodaten razlog, zakaj študenti menijo, da so se lahko bolj osredotočili na učno gradivo in celo popravili prejšnje napake v znanju ter posledično izboljšali znanje angleščine, je, da je uporaba aplikacije Snapchat dokaj enostavna in nezahtevna, kot poudarja tudi Grieve (2017). Snapchat si udeleženci raziskave želijo uporabljati tudi za učenje drugih tujih jezikov in tudi v bodoče, kar ni presenetljivo, saj v sodobnem svetu aplikacijam, družbenim omrežjem in spletu učitelji ne bomo mogli več dolgo prepovedovati vstopa v izobraževalno okolje.

Po drugi strani nekateri študenti na splošno ne marajo uporabljati Snapchata niti izven izobraževalnega okolja, zato ga tudi ne bi želeli uporabljati kot učni pripomoček. Taki udeleženci poročajo, da jim je priprava videa z novim učnim gradivom vzela

preveč časa, kajti niso znali uporabljati Snapchata. Podobnega mnenja so tudi tisti, ki si ne želijo uporabljati nikakršne nove informacijsko-komunikacijske tehnologije v izobraževalnem okolju, torej tudi ne Snapchata. Kot poudarjajo Zdravkova, Ivanović in Putnik (2012), je tudi pri uporabi Snapchata treba najti ravnovesje med navdušenci, ki so takoj pripravljeni uporabiti nove učne pripomočke, in tistimi, ki raje dalj časa vztrajajo pri tradicionalnih.

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Neuromyths about brain development and learning among university students of primary education

POVZETEK – V prispevku je prikazana razširjenost nevromitov o razvoju možganov in učenju v skupini 79 študentov prvega letnika (M = 19.55, SD = 0.84) in skupini 52 študentov zaključnega letnika (M = 19.55, SD = 0.84) študija razrednega pouka. Študentje so izpolnili vprašalnik, ki je temeljil na predhodnih raziskavah. Večina (več kot 50%) študentov obeh skupin je verjela v nevromite o hemisferni dominantnosti, učnih stilih in Brain Gym programu, večina študentov v obeh skupinah pa ni verjela nevromitom o ključni pomembnosti obdobja prvih treh let, dvojezičnosti kot pomanjkljivosti in uporabi 10% naših možganov. V nevromit o kritičnih obdobjih je verjela manjšina študentov prvega letnika, a večina študentov zadnjega letnika študija. Večina študentov obeh skupin je bila prepričana, da so znanstvena spoznanja o možganih (zelo) pomembna za razumevanje učenja in poučevanja, približno polovica študentov obeh skupin pa je odgovorila, da se seznanjajo z novimi informacijami o možganih.

ABSTRACT – The article analyses and compares the degrees to which neuromyths about brain development and learning are spread among two groups of university students of primary education, namely 79 first-year students (M = 19.55, SD = 0.84) and 52 students in their final year of studies (M = 24.30, SD = 3.80). Both groups completed a questionnaire based on previous surveys. The majority (more than 50%) of students from both groups believed in neuromyths concerning hemispheric dominance, learning styles and the Brain Gym approach, but they did not believe in neuromyths about the crucial importance of the first three years, bilingualism as a disadvantage or the 10% use of the brain myth. The neuromyth about critical periods was only believed by a minority of first-year students but by the majority of students in their final year. Most students in both groups considered scientific knowledge about the brain as (very) important for understanding learning and teaching, and in both groups, about a half responded that they were acquainted with new information about the brain.

1 Introduction

Due to the complexity of neuroscience as a field, it is sometimes difficult to transfer its findings into educational work correctly. Consequently, teachers and students may develop some misconceptions about the brain and learning (Dekker, Lee, Howard-Jones & Jolles, 2012; Rato, Abreu & Castro-Caldas, 2013; Tardif, Doudin & Meylan, 2015) – called neuromyths (Dekker et al., 2012; Tardif et al., 2015). Neuromyths can be generated through the over- or misinterpretations of otherwise true scientific findings or through the persistence of scientific hypotheses that have been considered true for some time, but have now been rejected (Howard-Jones, 2014; Pasquinelli, 2012). They

are spread by popular media (Pasquinelli, 2012). Additionally, commercial brain-based educational programmes offered in schools may be the source of neuromyths among teachers (Goswami, 2004).

In the present article, the prevalence of neuromyths among future primary school teachers will be analysed, focusing specifically on seven of the most widespread as well as important in teaching (Howard-Jones, 2009, 2010, 2014; OECD, 2007). Below is a detailed description of each neuromyth included.

(1) "*We only use 10% of our brain*" – this neuromyth may stem from speculation on the untapped potential of the human brain (Pasquinelli, 2012). While it represents one of the most prevalent myths in neuroscience (OECD, 2007; Rato et al., 2013), "science has shown that although people can live with several brain traumas, this does not confirm [the] existence of useless areas" (Rato et al., 2013, p. 443). A large body of research about brain functioning has proven that healthy individuals use all parts of the brain (e.g. Ward, 2010). For the sake of clarity and conciseness, this neuromyth will be referred to as the *10% use of the brain* neuromyth throughout the article.

(2) The neuromyth that "*everything that is important for brain development occurs within the first three years*" is not scientifically proven; in fact, many studies have indicated that changes in the brain occur from birth to adulthood (Howard-Jones, 2010; Goswami, 2004). Immediately after birth, there is a massive increase in the number of neurons and in their interconnections (Bruerm, 1999a, 1999b, according to Alferink & Farmer-Dougan, 2010). With experience, a process of eliminating the neuronal connections also takes place; this is called pruning (Santos & Noggle, 2011). Although the changes are less intense compared to those in early life, the abovementioned processes also occur during subsequent developmental periods (Howard-Jones, 2010; Goswami, 2004). This neuromyth will be referred to as the *first three years are crucial for learning* in the article.

(3) "*There are critical periods in childhood after which certain things can no longer be learned*" – this neuromyth has been disproved by many studies which have indicated that changes in the brain occur from birth to adulthood (Goswami, 2004; Howard-Jones, 2010). Neuroscience supports the existence of sensitive periods in early development, especially for basic perceptual functions such as seeing and hearing (Howard-Jones, 2010). Nevertheless, certain deficits in perceptual functioning can partially be compensated for later in life (Sinha, 2009). That is why sensitive periods cannot be labelled as "*critical*" (Goswami, 2004; Howard-Jones, 2010). This neuromyth will be referred to as *critical* periods.

(4) The neuromyth that "*differences in hemispheric dominance (left brain, right brain) can help explain individual differences amongst learners*" emerged due to the misinterpretation of laterality studies that explored "left- and right-brain thinking"; according to this line of thought, "learners' dispositions arise from the extent to which they are left or right brain dominant" (Howard-Jones, 2010, p. 24). Neuroscience research indicates that in a healthy individual, the two hemispheres work together (Geake, 2008, p. 125). This neuromyth will be referred to as *hemispheric dominance*.

(5) The neuromyth that "*individuals learn better when they receive information in their preferred learning style (e.g., auditory, visual or kinaesthetic)*" is based on the idea of so-called learning styles according to which learners can be classified (Dekker

et al, 2012; Rato et al., 2013). Accordingly, visual learners learn better through pictorial information, auditory learners through storing sounds and kinaesthetic learners through movement (Rato et al., 2013). While self-report studies indicate that individuals exhibit a preferred sense modality (Pasquinelli, 2012), scientific research has shown that individuals do not process information more effectively when they are educated in their preferred learning style (Howard-Jones, 2010). This neuromyth will be referred to as the *VAK approach*.

(6) The neuromyth that "*short bouts of co-ordination exercises can improve integration of left and right hemispheric brain function*" is based on the commercial programme called Brain Gym (Howard-Jones, 2009). The idea is that if the left and right parts of the brain do not work in co-ordination (due to the inefficient integration of visual, auditory and motor skills), we can use certain exercises to improve this. However, there is "a lack of published research in high quality journals to make claims about the practical effectiveness of programmes such as Brain Gym to raise achievement" (Hyatt, 2007, according to Howard-Jones, 2009, p. 28). This neuromyth will be referred to as *Brain Gym*.

(7) "*Children must acquire their native language before a second language is learned. If they do not do so, neither language will be fully acquired.*" This neuromyth concerns bilingualism, the ability to understand and speak two languages. First and second language acquisitions do not interfere with each other (Papalia, Wendkos Olds & Duskin Feldman, 2009). The neuromyth sprung from older studies on bilingualism (Lük Nećak, 1995, according to Marjanovič Umek, 2004), which indicated that children from a bilingual environment achieved lower scores on intelligence tests than children who spoke only one language. However, this research did not take into account that the testing was performed in the children's second language (Marjanovič Umek, 2004). This neuromyth will be referred to as *bilingualism as a disadvantage*.

In Slovenia, the transfer of neuroscientific insights into education has only recently begun to develop (Tancig, 2014). However, research results on teachers and students from other countries indicate that belief in neuromyths about brain development and learning is quite often found among this population. Dekker et al. (2012) included 242 primary and secondary school teachers from the United Kingdom and the Netherlands in their study. Among the 15 neuromyths explored, teachers believed in almost a half. The most prevalent ones were neuromyths about the VAK approach (more than 90 % of the teachers), hemispheric dominance (more than 85 % of the teachers) and the Brain Gym approach (more than 80 % of the teachers). Between 33 % (in the United Kingdom) and 52 % of the teachers (in the Netherlands) believed the neuromyth about critical periods in early childhood. Furthermore, Dekker et al. (2012) showed that some (7 % from the United Kingdom and 36 % from the Netherlands) believed the bilingualism myth.

In their study of neuromyths prevalent among Swiss (student) teachers, Tardif et al. (2015) explored the VAK approach, hemispheric dominance and Brain Gym. Their results showed that the majority of participants (around 80 %) strongly agreed with the VAK approach and with the idea of hemispheric dominance (around 85 %). Results concerning the Brain Gym approach were rather surprising: less than 20 % of the participants had at least some information about this method and half of those wrongly believed in its effectiveness (Tardif et al., 2015). A similar analysis encompassing 583

Portuguese teachers from different fields of expertise (Rato et al., 2013) found that the most prevalent neuromyths among them were about the VAK and the Brain Gym approach (approximately 50 % in each case).

It is our aim here to analyse the prevalence of neuromyths in two groups of university students enrolled in a primary teacher programme, one group in the first and the other in the last year of study. Related questions about whether the students consider having information about the brain important, their level of interest in such new information and its sources were also included in the study. As potential future educators, it is important that the participants have certain information about brain development and learning which they can utilise in their work with children.

2 Method

Sample

There were 131 students enrolled in the Primary Teacher Education programme in Ljubljana who participated in the study: 79 first-year students (60 %; M = 19.5 years, SD = 1.2 years) and 52 fifth-year students (40 %; M = 24.3 years, SD = 3.8 years).

Instruments

Neuromyths about brain development and learning in students were assessed using a questionnaire, which was formulated on the basis of previous surveys (Herculano-Houzel, 2002; Dekker et al., 2012). The seven neuromyths included in the questionnaire were:
□ *We only use 10 % of our brain.*
□ *Everything that is important for brain development occurs within the first three years.*
□ *There are critical periods in childhood after which certain things can no longer be learned.*
□ *Differences in hemispheric dominance (left brain, right brain) can help explain individual differences amongst learners.*
□ *Individuals learn better when they receive information in their preferred learning style (e.g., auditory, visual or kinaesthetic).*
□ *Short bouts of co-ordination exercises can improve integration of left and right hemispheric brain function.*
□ *Children must acquire their native language before a second language is learned.*

If they do not do so, neither language will be fully acquired. Each statement or neuromyth was graded on a 5-point Likert scale (from "1 – Don't agree at all" to "5 – Totally agree", with 3 denoting "I don't know"). The students also answered two additional questions: firstly, whether they think that scientific knowledge about the brain is important for understanding teaching and learning, where the students responded using a Likert scale (from "1 – Not important" to "5 – Very important"); secondly, they were asked whether they were familiar with recent developments concerning knowledge about the

brain (either by way of scholarly and popular articles, the Internet and other sources) and given the option of answering either "Yes" or "No". In the case of the affirmative answer, they also marked the relevant sources of their knowledge among those listed: popular articles and books, scientific articles and books, TV and radio programmes, university, secondary school, specific training programmes and/or other sources.

Procedure and data Analysis

The students completed the questionnaire during one of their lectures at the beginning of the academic year. Their participation was anonymous and voluntary. For each neuromyth statement, the answers 1 and 2 on the Likert scale were combined into one category (Correct), answers 4 and 5 into another (Incorrect), while 3 remained a "Do not know" category. Then, the frequency and the percentage of correct, I do not know and incorrect answers was calculated for individual neuromyths in each group of students. The possible differences between the first-year and last-year groups of students according to the percentage of incorrect answers were analysed using a series of χ^2 square tests. Additionally, the percentages of each source of knowledge about the brain were calculated for each group. After that, a series of χ^2 square tests or Likelihood ratio χ^2 (when cell frequencies were less than five) were used for each pair of the six listed sources of knowledge for each group of students.

3   Results and discussion

We begin the results and discussion section by analysing and comparing the neuromyths about brain development and learning in first-year and last-year students of primary teacher education and establishing any differences between the groups. The frequencies and percentages of incorrect, I do not know and correct students' answers are presented in Table 1 for each neuromyth as well as any differences between the two groups calculated according to the percentage of incorrect answers (χ^2 square tests).

The results show that three neuromyths are accepted by the majority (more than 50%) of the students in both groups with no significant differences between them. These are the neuromyths about the VAK approach, Brain Gym and hemispheric dominance. The most prevalent among these three is the VAK approach neuromyth, with 98% of first-year and 100% of last-year students responding that they believed in it. This means the students believe that learning is more efficient when the information is presented in the individual's preferred sense modality (Dekker et al, 2012; Rato et al., 2013) although scientific research does not support such a conclusion (e.g., Howard-Jones, 2010). These results are comparable to studies conducted in other countries. In their study including teachers from the United Kingdom and the Netherlands, Dekker et al. (2012) reported that more than 90% of them believe this neuromyth. Similarly, Swiss teachers and student teachers (Tardif et al., 2015) agreed with it in approximately 80% of cases, and Portuguese teachers in about a half (Rato et al., 2013). It is probable that teachers or professors in schools or universities believe in the VAK approach

because they have not had access to more recent information about its ineffectiveness. Correcting this misinterpretation should be addressed in university study programmes so that it may directly influence the teaching methods of future educators.

Table 1: Neuromyths in first-year and last-year students of primary teacher education and differences between the groups regarding the percentages of incorrect answers

Neuromyth	*Study year*	*Incorrect*	*%*	*Do not know*	*%*	*Correct*	*%*	*p*
VAK approach	first	77	98	1	1	1	1	0.31
	last	52	100	0	0	0	0	
Brain Gym	first	58	73	21	27	0	0	0.23
	last	43	83	13	13	4	4	
Hemispheric dominance	first	54	69	19	24	6	8	0.83
	last	35	67	9	17	7	13	
Critical periods	first	29	37	13	16	37	47	0.00
	last	36	69	3	6	13	25	
10% use of the brain	first	33	42	14	18	32	40	0.84
	last	21	40	15	29	21	40	
First three years are crucial for learning	first	6	8	20	25	53	67	0.73
	last	5	10	12	23	35	67	
Bilingualism as disadvantage	first	23	29	8	10	48	61	1.00
	last	15	29	1	2	36	69	

As for the Brain Gym neuromyth, 73 % of the first-year and 83 % of last-year students believe in it. This means the majority of students believe in the idea that using specific exercises leads to better coordination between the left and right hemispheres. Similarly, teachers from the United Kingdom and the Netherlands (Dekker et al., 2012) believed the Brain Gym neuromyth in more than 80 % of cases, while Portuguese teachers (Rato et al., 2013) in about 50 % of cases. However, Swiss teachers and student teachers (Tardif et al., 2015) believed in the effectiveness of Brain Gym in only 10 % of the cases (what is more, they had information about it in only 20 % of cases). As research (Hyatt, 2007, according to Howard-Jones, 2009) does not support this idea, it should not only be challenged during the education process of future teachers, but – as the percentage of incorrect answers is even higher in last-year students – perhaps in some cases even prevented from being promoted.

When it comes to the hemispheric dominance neuromyth, 69 % and 67 % of first-year and last-year students respectively responded that they believe the assumption that each brain hemisphere may operate in isolation or is specialised only for certain types of learning (Howard-Jones, 2008). This is somewhat less than approximately 85 % of teachers from the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Switzerland (Dekker et al., 2012; Tardif et al., 2015) who believed in hemispheric dominance. As both hemispheres work together in the performance of most everyday tasks (Howard-Jones, 2008), the re-

sults show how necessary it is that the idea of neural functional interconnectivity should be presented to future primary school teachers.

Surprisingly, the majority of the students in their final year of study (69%) also believe in the neuromyth of critical periods, while only 37% of their younger colleagues do. There is thus a significant difference between the groups. Other studies have found that between 33% and 52% of teachers in the United Kingdom and the Netherlands believed in this neuromyth (Dekker et al., 2012). Because the neuromyth about critical periods in the present study was found to be substantially more prevalent among students in their final year, it should be specifically addressed. The reason why so many of these students believe in critical periods may stem from a lack of distinction between the terms "sensitive" and "critical" periods of development. "Sensitive" periods cannot be termed "critical" as certain deficits in early development can be partially compensated for later in life (e.g. Howard-Jones, 2010).

There are three neuromyths which the majority of students in both groups do not believe: 10% use of the brain, bilingualism as a disadvantage and the crucial importance of the first three years. There were also no significant differences between the results of both groups. 42% of first-year and 40% of last-year students believe the 10% use of the brain neuromyth. Even though these percentages do not reach 50%, they are still rather high. Because of this and also because the percentage of correct answers only amounted to 40% in each group, it may be concluded that many students are quite uncertain about the untapped potential of the human brain (Pasquinelli, 2012). The students should in future be informed that science has not confirmed the existence of "useless areas" in the brain (Rato et al., 2013).

Finally, the neuromyth about bilingualism as a disadvantage – that first and second language acquisition interfere with each other in childhood – is believed by 29% of the students from both groups. Similar studies have found that even fewer teachers from the United Kingdom (7%) and somewhat more teachers from the Netherlands (36%) (Dekker et al., 2012) believe that this occurs. This is another area of brain development that should be emphasised during primary teacher education, as a second language is included in Slovene primary school curricula from the very beginning.

Only 8% of first-year and 10% of last-year students accept the neuromyth about the crucial importance of the first three years. As it is scientifically confirmed that changes in the brain occur in all developmental periods, although they are less intense in adulthood compared to earlier periods (Howard-Jones, 2010; Goswami, 2004), it is encouraging that the vast majority of primary education students are aware of this fact. Knowledge that brain development may be influenced by one's social environment beyond the age of three may support them in their endeavours as future educators.

Students were also asked about their opinion regarding the importance of scientific knowledge about the brain for understanding teaching and learning. Their answers indicate that they regard scientific knowledge about the brain as (very) important for these processes, with 94% of first-year and 90% of last-year students giving an affirmative reply. In the majority of cases, students also stated that they were acquainted with recent or new knowledge about the brain: 61% of the first-year and 60% of the last-year students replied in this way. Again, these results are encouraging. The students were also asked to identify the sources of their knowledge (Table 2).

Table 2: Frequencies and percentages of sources of knowledge about the brain for first-
-year and last-year students

Sources of knowledge	First year of study		Last year of study	
	F	*%*	*f*	*%*
TV or radio	23	29	12	23
Secondary school	17	22	3	6
Popular literature	16	20	15	29
University	3	4	12	23
Scientific literature	12	15	6	12
Other educational programmes	4	5	3	6
Other	4	5	0	0

First-year students most often selected the following important sources of their knowledge about the brain: TV or radio (29 %), secondary school (22 %), popular (20 %) and scientific literature (15 %). The most influential sources of knowledge for last-year students were: popular literature (29 %), TV or radio (23 %), lectures at the university (23 %) and scientific literature (12 %).

For both groups of students, possible differences between each pair of these sources were calculated (χ^2 square tests or Likelihood ratio χ^2) and are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Comparisons of the knowledge sources' importance in first-year and last-year students

	First year of study	Last year of study
1	TV or radio = Secondary school	TV or radio > Secondary school**
2	TV or radio = Popular literature	TV or radio = Popular Literature
3	TV or radio > University**	TV or radio = University
4	TV or radio > Scientific literature*	TV or radio = Scientific literature
5	TV or radio > Educ. programme**	TV or radio > Educ. programme**
6	Secondary school = Popular literature	Secondary school < Popular literature**
7	Secondary school > University**	Secondary school < University**
8	Secondary school = Scientific literature	Secondary school = Scientific literature
9	Secondary school > Educ. programme**	Secondary school = Educ. programme
10	Popular literature > University**	Popular literature = University
11	Popular literature = Scientific literature	Popular literature > Scientific literature*
12	Popular literature > Educ. programme**	Popular literature > Educ. programme**
13	University < Scientific literature	University = Scientific literature
14	University = Educ. Programme	University > Educ. programme*
15	Scientific literature = Educ. programme	Scientific literature = Educ. programme

Note: Educ. programme – Other educational programmes; * – p < 0.01; ** – p < 0.05

These comparisons show that TV, radio and popular literature are the most important sources of the students' knowledge about the brain for both student groups. As expected, secondary school also represents an important source of knowledge for first-year students and the university study programme for last-year students. However, it is rather surprising that popular literature becomes a more important source of knowledge than scientific literature for last-year students. Since neuromyths may be generated by the oversimplification or over-interpretation of scientific facts that are often found in popular media and literature (Pasquinelli, 2012), the information that these types of media represent the most important sources of brain knowledge for the students is a cause for concern. Perhaps discussion regarding the information they hear/read in popular media/literature could be included in the study programme, thus enabling an on-going process of preventing neuromyth emergence.

4 Conclusions

These results suggest that during their studies, students do not get enough scientific information about the functioning of the brain which would enable them to overcome the neuromyths they had formed even before entering university. Consequently, the results have certain implications for all the professionals working with them. Knowledge about the brain could be included and/or refreshed within specific study courses. Special attention should be given to neuroeducational themes, such as the importance of including different types of sensory input while learning. Information and support in finding reliable scientific sources should be provided to the students.

Further research could include some open questions about the students' understanding of specific statements or expressions used in the questionnaire, such as "critical periods". Their explanations could lead to a deeper understanding of their needs regarding future lectures. The study could perhaps be designed as a longitudinal one by assessing the same – now first-year – students when they finish their studies. Alternatively, students attending other (pedagogy) study programmes may be included in a prevalence of neuromyths study.

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Nevromiti o razvoju možganov in učenju
pri študentih razrednega pouka

Nevroznanost je kompleksno področje, ki ga ni enostavno "pravilno" prenesti na področje vzgoje in izobraževanja. Zaradi tega (bodoči) učitelji pogosto oblikujejo napačna prepričanja o delovanju možganov in njegovi povezanosti z učenjem, ki jih imenujemo nevromiti (npr. Howard-Jones, 2009, 2010, 2014; OECD, 2007; Tardif, Doudin & Meylan, 2015). Nevromite razširjajo popularni mediji in tržno naravnani izobraževalni programi (Goswami, 2004; Pasquinelli, 2012), k razlikovanju med znanstvenimi

spoznanji in napačnimi prepričanji o delovanju možganov pa lahko pomembno prispeva branje ustrezne strokovne literature (Dekker idr., 2012).

V prispevku smo se usmerili predvsem na ugotavljanje zastopanosti sedmih nevromitov pri študentih razrednega pouka, saj so le-ti zelo pomembni za učiteljevo delo in med najbolj razširjenimi pri učiteljih drugih držav (Howard-Jones, 2009, 2010, 2014; OECD, 2007). V nadaljevanju bomo vsakega od njih tudi opisali. Nevromit "Uporabljamo le 10% naših možganov" je eden od najbolj razširjenih na področju nevroznanosti (OECD, 2007; Rato idr., 2013), čeprav številne raziskave dokazujejo, da zdravi ljudje pri reševanju različnih nalog uporabljajo večino svojih možganov (npr. Ward, 2010). Prav tako znanstvene raziskave zavračajo nevromit "Vse, kar je pomembno za razvoj možganov, se zgodi do tretjega leta starosti", saj dokazujejo, da se bistvene spremembe v razvoju možganov dogajajo v vseh razvojnih obdobjih in ne le v najzgodnejšem (npr. Howard-Jones, 2010; Goswami, 2004). Ne velja tudi nevromit, da "Obstajajo kritična obdobja v otroštvu, po katerih se določenih stvari ne moremo več naučiti", saj je večino primanjkljajev na različnih področjih učenja možno (vsaj do neke mere) kompenzirati tudi v kasnejših obdobjih življenja (Sinha, 2009). Nevromit "Z razlikami v dominantnosti hemisfer lahko razložimo individualne razlike med učenci" izhaja iz napačnih razlag raziskav o t.i. "levo- in desnohemisfernem učenju". Nevroznanstvene raziskave kažejo, da pri zdravih osebah pri opravljanju večine vsakodnevnih nalog in pri učenju obe možganski polobli delujeta skupaj (npr. Howard-Jones, 2008). Nevromit "Posamezniki se bolje učijo, če sprejemajo informacije v preferenčnem učnem stilu (npr. slušnem, vidnem ali gibalnem)" temelji na ideji o t.i. učnih stilih, s katerimi lahko opišemo učence kot pretežno slušne, vidne ali gibalne tipe (npr. Dekker idr., 2012). Raziskave, ki temeljijo na samoporočanju posameznikov, sicer kažejo njihovo naklonjenost sprejemanju informacij preko enega od čutnih kanalov (Pasqunielli, 2012), a ni dokazov, da se posamezniki tudi bolje (na)učijo, če poučevanje poteka le preko tega kanala (npr. Howard-Jones, 2010). Nevromit "S kratkimi vajami za koordinacijo lahko izboljšamo integracijo delovanja leve in desne polovice možganov" temelji na t.i. Brain Gym tržnem programu (Howard-Jones, 2009), katerega osnovna ideja je, da leva in desna polovica možganov ne delujeta koordinirano, kar lahko izboljšamo z različnimi vajami. Znanstvene raziskave ne podpirajo učinkovitosti teh specifičnih vaj za izboljšanje koordinacije leve in desne polovice možganov (Hyatt, 2007, v Howard-Jones, 2009). Nevromit "Otroci se morajo najprej naučiti maternega jezika, da se lahko učijo drugega. Če ne, se nobenega od jezikov ne bodo dobro naučili" izhaja iz napačnih zaključkov starejših raziskav o dvojezičnosti, pri katerih so dvojezični otroci dosegali nižje rezultate na preizkusih inteligentnosti v primerjavi z otroki, ki so se učili le enega jezika. Omenjeni zaključki izhajajo iz napak pri merjenju inteligentnosti, saj preizkusi pri dvojezičnih otrocih niso bili izvedeni v otrokovem maternem jeziku, kar je bilo ključno za nižje otrokove dosežke (Lük Nećak, 1995, v Marjanovič Umek, 2004).

Pri nas se je prenos nevroznanstvenih spoznanj v izobraževanje šele začel (npr. Tancig, 2013, 2014), rezultati nekaterih raziskav iz drugih držav pa kažejo, da učitelji pogosto verjamejo v nevromite o razvoju možganov in učenju (npr. Dekker idr., 2012; Pasqunielli, 2012; Rato idr., 2014; Tardif idr., 2015). Nevromiti, v katere je v tujini verjela večina učiteljev, so: sprejemanje informacij v preferenčnem učnem stilu izboljša učinkovitost učenja, z razlikami v hemisferni dominantnosti lahko razložimo razlike med učenci, z Brain Gym programom lahko izboljšamo integracijo leve in desne polo-

vice možganov (npr. Tardif idr., 2015). Manj pogosto so učitelji iz drugih držav verjeli v nevromit o obstoju kritičnih obdobij v zgodnjem otroštvu, le manjšina učiteljev iz drugih držav pa je bila prepričana v nevromit o tem, da je učenje dveh jezikov lahko škodljivo (npr. Dekker idr., 2012).

Kot smo že omenili, je bila raziskava namenjena prikazu razširjenosti sedmih nevromitov pri študentih prvega in zadnjega letnika študija razrednega pouka. Zanimala so nas tudi prepričanja študentov o pomenu informacij o možganih za delo učitelja in o tem, ali se študentje zanimajo za nove informacije o delovanju možganov in kje pridobivajo tovrstne informacije. Študentje so izpolnili vprašalnik, ki je temeljil na ugotovitvah predhodnih raziskav (Herculano-Houzel, 2002; Dekker idr., 2012). V raziskavo je bilo vključenih 131 študentov razrednega pouka iz Ljubljane: 79 študentov (60 %) je obiskovalo prvi letnik študija (M = 19,5 let, SD = 1,2 leti), 52 študentov (40 %) pa je obiskovalo zadnji letnik študija (M = 24,3 leta, SD = 3,8 let). Študentje so izpolnili vprašalnike na začetku študijskega leta, udeležba v raziskavi pa je bila anonimna in prostovoljna.

Večina (več kot 50 %) študentov obeh skupin je verjela v nevromite, da z razlikami v hemisferni dominantnosti lahko razložimo razlike med učenci, da sprejemanje informacij v preferenčnem učnem stilu izboljša učinkovitost učenja in da z Brain Gym programom lahko izboljšamo integracijo leve in desne polovice možganov – razlike med obema skupinama študentov niso bile statistično pomembne. Tudi rezultati raziskav z učitelji iz drugih držav kažejo, da večina učiteljev verjame v omenjene nevromite o delovanju možganov in učenju (npr. Tardif idr., 2015).

Prav tako večina študentov v obeh skupinah ni verjela v nevromit, da se vse, kar je pomembno za razvoj možganov, zgodi do tretjega leta starosti, v nevromit o tem, da ljudje uporabljamo le 10 % možganov, in o tem, da ima učenje dveh jezikov pri otrocih škodljive učinke – obe skupini študentov se med seboj nista statistično pomembno razlikovali. Primerljiva raziskava z učitelji iz drugih držav (Združenega kraljestva in Nizozemske), ki je vključevala nevromit o škodljivosti učenja dveh jezikov, je pokazala, da je bila le manjšina učiteljev prepričana, da je učenje dveh jezikov škodljivo (Dekker idr., 2012).

V naši raziskavi je nevromitu o kritičnih obdobjih za učenje verjela manjšina študentov prvega letnika, a večina študentov zadnjega letnika študija – razlike med skupinama študentov so bile statistično pomembne. Rezultati nakazujejo, da se omenjeni nevromit v času študija lahko še utrdi. V primerljivi raziskavi z učitelji iz Združenega kraljestva oz. Nizozemske je približno 33 % oz. 55 % učiteljev verjelo v omenjeni nevromit o obstoju kritičnih obdobij v otroštvu (Dekker idr., 2012).

S trditvijo, ki smo jo vključili v raziskavo, da so znanstvena spoznanja o možganih (zelo) pomembna za razumevanje učenja in poučevanja, se je strinjala večina študentov obeh skupin, približno polovica študentov obeh skupin pa je odgovorila, da se seznanjajo z novimi informacijami o možganih. Kot najpomembnejše izvore znanja o možganih so študentje izbrali poslušanje televizije in radia, branje poljudne literature in znanje, pridobljeno v srednji šoli (študenti prvega letnika) in na fakulteti (študenti zadnjega letnika).

Glede na to, da je raziskava pokazala, da študentje razrednega pouka tako na začetku kot ob koncu študija verjamejo v nekatere nevromite o delovanju možganov

in njegovi povezanosti z učenjem, bi bilo pomembno, da temeljno znanje o možganih vključimo v različne študijske predmete (npr. psihologijo, didaktiko). Posebno pozornost bil lahko namenili konkretnim znanstvenim spoznanjem o delovanju možganov, npr. celostnemu delovanju možganov pri reševanju različnih nalog, pomenu podajanja informacij preko različnih čutnih kanalov (npr. sluh, vid in gibanje) za učinkovitejše učenje, kritičnemu pogledu na učinke Brain Gym programa itn. Študente bi bilo smiselno usmeriti k prebiranju tistih virov znanja o možganih, ki temeljijo na znanstveno utemeljenih ugotovitvah.

V nadaljnje raziskovanje nevromitov bi lahko dodali nekatera odprta vprašanja (npr. o razumevanju izraza "kritična obdobja"). Odgovori nanje bi lahko nudili boljši vpogled v razumevanje nevromitov pri študentih ter omogočili lažje načrtovanje vsebin, ki bi jih ponudili študentom v času njihovega študija. Raziskavo bi lahko izvedli tudi vzdolžno in tako spremljali iste študente od začetka do zaključka njihovega študija, vanjo pa bi lahko vključili še študente drugih (pedagoških) študijskih programov.

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Motivation for choosing teaching as a profession and teachers' competencies

POVZETEK – Učitelji pomembno vplivajo na kakovost poučevanja in rezultate učenja, pa tudi na spremembe izobraževalnih sistemov po svetu. Od njih se pričakuje visoka usposobljenost na vseh področjih, ki so povezana z uspešnim prilagajanjem okolju, v katerem delujejo, da bi zadostili zahtevam družbe in sebe. Ker motivacija vpliva na kakovost in količino znanja, spretnosti in kompetence, smo v tem prispevku želeli preveriti, ali obstaja povezava med različnimi motivacijskimi dejavniki za izbiro poklica in samooceno usposobljenosti pri učiteljih razrednega pouka. Z raziskavo vzorca 320 osnovnošolskih učiteljev v sedmih hrvaških županijah je bilo ugotovljeno, da so najpomembnejši dejavniki za izbiro učiteljskega poklica povezani z notranjo motivacijo. Rezultati potrjujejo obstoj pomembne pozitivne povezave med notranjo motivacijo in obvladovanjem kompetenc učiteljev, medtem ko zunanja motivacija ni povezana z nobeno kompetenco.

ABSTRACT – Teachers are important factors in quality teaching and student learning outcomes, but also in the changes of educational systems around the world. In order to meet the society's demands as well as their own, they are expected to be highly competent in all professional areas when it comes to successful adaptation to their work environment. Since motivation influences the quality and the quantity of knowledge, skills and competences, the aim of this paper was to examine whether there is a link between various motivational factors influencing profession choice and self-assessed competences of primary school teachers. A research which included 320 primary school teachers from seven different counties of the Republic of Croatia showed that the most important factors in choosing the teaching profession are factors pertaining to intrinsic motivation. The results confirm a significant positive correlation between intrinsic motivation and the mastering of teachers' competences, while extrinsic motivation shows no correlation with any competence.

1 Introduction

Many OECD reports (2005, 2011, 2014) recognize teachers as the true cornerstones of all changes, in every educational system around the world, and find them to be truly important factors in the quality of teaching and student learning outcomes. They are expected to develop competences that ensure their successful adaptation to their work environment and meet the demands of society as well as of their own (Fullan, 2007; Waters & Lawrence, 1993). Teachers are not only expected to be highly competent, but should also play the central part in meaningful changes in the school (Hausman & Goldring, 2001) that can be reached by joint problem solving, data analysis and exchange, joint decision making and thorough management of the school collective considering the individual competences of the teachers (Marentič Požarnik, 2008; Tot, 2013).

The current trends in education pose more and more challenges for primary school teachers. As in some other countries (Kyriacou, 2001), studies in the Republic of Croatia show that teachers see their occupation as extremely demanding, difficult and stressful (Lučić, 2007; Šimić Šašić et al. 2013). At the same time, unlike the induction process in other occupations, intern teachers are expected to do the same jobs as experienced teachers (Cindrić, 1998). Furthermore, if we consider the research results on the low social status of primary school teachers (Lučić, 2007; Pavin, Rijavec & Miljević-Riđički, 2005; Radeka & Sorić, 2006), the question arises of how primary school teachers succeed in mastering professional competences and which motivational factors affect their profession choice.

Motivational factors influencing teaching as a profession choice

Teacher motivation has been a subject of interest for many scientists for a long time (e.g. Ames & Ames, 1984; Sylvia & Hutchison, 1985; Serow, 1994; Woolfolk Hoy, 2008). Recent research efforts, especially those carried out based on the conclusions of the study of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2005) that the "teacher quality" is the most important individual factor in the student's achievement, are focused mainly on the issues of recruitment and retention of quality teachers (e.g. Bruinsma & Jansen, 2010; Guarino, Santibanez & Daley, 2006; Watt et al. 2012).

Research results show that the teacher's motivation for work is primarily intrinsic (Bielby et al., 2007; Marušić et al., 2011), while extrinsic factors, such as long vacation, job security and/or income levels, are generally less important. Since job satisfaction is an extremely important component and an indispensable factor in the quality of work (Connell & Hannif, 2009; Zare, Haghgooyan & Asl, 2012), the research results (Watt et al., 2012) showing that intrinsic and altruistic motives have a positive impact on job satisfaction, while choosing a teaching profession as an alternative option negatively correlates with dedication to work and job satisfaction, are very valuable. However, according to Han & Yin (2016), some studies point to the influence of social and economic factors on the extrinsic motivation of primary school teachers: teachers in developing countries are more extrinsically motivated than those in developed countries.

Although the teaching profession implies a strong orientation towards others and altruistic motives are very pronounced in the choice of this profession (Richardson & Watt, 2006, Chong & Low, 2009; Wat et al., 2012), it is also important to recognize other motivational factors affecting greater professional engagement of teachers and their success in the teaching profession.

The OECD report (2005) reveals that the motivation for choosing the teaching profession is related primarily to working with children and adolescents, social contributions, job security and benefits, pleasure in teaching and compatibility with the family life. Marušić et al. (2011) have obtained similar results with a study conducted in Croatia, confirming that the students were motivated for teacher education mostly because of the possibility to work with children, the possibility of social contributions and the positive self-assessments of their own teaching skills, and to a lesser extent because of personal factors, such as job security and family time.

Teacher competences

Depending on various disciplines and context, as well as cultural, linguistic, and national circumstances, there are different interpretations of what competences are (Delamare-Le Deist & Winterton, 2005; Schneckenberg & Wildt, 2006; Weinert, 2001). In order to explain the general competences, Selvi (2010) mentions nine different dimensions of competences. These are: professional and pedagogical competences, research competences, curricular competences, lifelong learning competences, socio-cultural competences, emotional competences, communication competences, information and communication competences, and the competences concerning surroundings and environment.

Regardless of the variety of definitions, the word *competence* indicates a description of what one should know to be able to function in a particular field of work, social and private life (Baranović, 2006). The teachers' work depends on their level of professional functioning and the professional experience they have gained over time makes them more competent in dealing with more complex tasks. By examining the competences of primary school teachers with less than five years of working experience, Rijavec, Miljević-Riđički & Vizek Vidović (2006) have found that the teachers' self-assessments in examined competence areas are rather low or even below the level of average theoretical value. Such results correspond to the Berliner model (2001) of the gradual development of teacher competences which implies the acquisition of required, basic-level competences in the period between five to ten years of work.

As mentioned earlier, although the type of the required competences depends on the environment and situation (Kaslow, 2004), there are certain competences every teacher should have: specific competences (factual and theoretical knowledge), skills (cognitive, psychomotor and social) as well as autonomy and responsibility at work (Lončarić & Pejić Papak, 2009). Since motivation affects the quality and quantity of gained knowledge, skills and competences (Koludrović & Reić Ercegovac, 2015), and because the professional development of teachers depends mainly on their intrinsic motivation (Fessler, 1995; Marušić, 2014), the aims of this research are directed towards determining the link between motivational factors which influence the choice of the teaching profession and the teachers' self-assessments of acquired competences.

2 Research aim and problems

The aim of this research was to identify motivational factors for choosing the teaching profession and to examine primary school teachers' competences and possible connections among these variables.

Problems and hypotheses

To examine the importance of different motivational variables as well as determine the importance of intrinsic, extrinsic and altruistic factors in choosing the teaching profession.

☐ H1: In choosing the teaching profession, the greatest importance is given to the variables of intrinsic and altruistic motivation, and the choice of the teaching profession is most influenced by the factor of intrinsic motivation.

    To examine the correlation between motivational factors and teachers' self-assessment in mastering the following competences: organization, administration and (self) evaluation; interpersonal skills, knowing and respecting students; individualized teaching for children with special educational needs; curriculum, education, learning, teaching and evaluation; information and communication literacy; health, science and sustainable development; research and creation of new knowledge; professional values and dedication to work; educational values, creativity.

☐ H2: Positive correlation is expected between intrinsic but not other motivational factors with the teachers' self-assessments in mastering the competences.

    To examine whether there is a statistically significant difference in the self-assessments of the mastery of teacher competences regarding years of work.

☐ H3: It is expected that teachers with more than 10 years of work experience will demonstrate a higher level of competence than those with fewer years of work experience.

Participants

A total of 320 primary school teachers (N = 320) from 7 different counties of the Republic of Croatia participated in the research. The number of female participants was 311 (N = 311) and the number of male participants was 9 (N = 9); 43 of them were trainees (N = 43), 255 teachers without promotion (N = 255), 13 mentors (N = 13) and 9 advisors (N = 9). Their length of service ranges from 1 to 41 years: 122 teachers in the category of 1 to 10 years of work experience, 69 in the category of 11 to 20 and 129 in the category of 21 to 41 years.

Instrument

The "Scale of Teacher Competence – version 2" (Lončarić & Majić, 2015), consisting of 55 items and five-point Likert type responses from 1 – very little to 5 – extremely, was used to determine the level of competence mastery. This scale was created for the purpose of examining teachers' competences with the aim of continuous improvement of the study program at the Faculty of Teacher Education in Rijeka. In the initial stage of the scale construction, it was used as the form of assessment of certain competences provided by various participants of primary education: teachers, principals, professional associates and the professors at the Faculty of Teacher Education. The metric characteristics of the scale were satisfactory. The scale consists of nine sub-scales: *Organization, administration and (self)evaluation (4 items); Interpersonal skills, knowing and respecting students (8 items); Individualized teaching for children with special educational needs (3 items); Curriculum, education, learning, teaching and evaluation (8 items); Information and communication literacy (3 items); Health, science and sustainable development (4 items); Research and creation of new knowl-*

edge (7 items); Professional values and dedication to work (10 items); Educational values, creativity (8 items). The basic form of this scale has been modified and adapted to this research. The subscale Organization, administration and (self)evaluation in this research shows satisfactory reliability, with the Cronbach alpha coefficient 0.65, while all other subscales show good reliability and the values of their Cronbach alpha coefficients ranges from 0.70 to 0.92.

In order to examine the motivational factors for choosing the teaching profession, a scale consisting of 10 items pertaining to intrinsic, extrinsic and altruistic motivation was constructed. This is a Likert type five-point scale: from 1 = completely irrelevant to 5 = extremely important. Using a factor analysis of the motivational factors scale according to the method of principal components with the Varimax rotation, 3 main components or factors were extracted: intrinsic motivation factor, extrinsic motivation factor and altruistic motivation factor, which account for 67.8 % of the total variance. The first extracted factor is the factor of extrinsic motivation consisting of 5 items (*Leisure and vacation, Compatibility of work and private lives, Job security, Income level, Social recognition*), which explains 30.6 % of the variance. The second extracted factor is the altruistic motivation factor consisting of two items (*Awareness of playing a useful role in the society, Awareness of doing good for the future of the society*), which explains 18.6 % of the variance. The third extracted factor is the intrinsic motivation factor which consists of 3 items (*Autonomy at work, (Intellectual) interests for the profession, Daily work with students*) and also explains 18.6 % of the teacher motivation variance. The reliability of all sub-scales of obtained motivational factors is satisfactory or good: Cronbach alpha of 0.837 for the extrinsic motivation factor, Cronbach alpha of 0.892 for the altruistic motivation factor and Cronbach alpha of 0.672 for the intrinsic motivation factor.

Some of the basic socio-demographic data was also collected with the questionnaire: gender, years of work, job status (trainee, teacher without promotion, mentor, advisor) and the county in which participants work. Although the initial intention of the researcher was also to investigate the correlation between the job status and various motivational factors and self-assessments of teacher competences, due to a small variance within the variable of the job status, this variable could not be used in further analyses.

Procedure

The questionnaires were completed by primary school teachers during professional conferences of the professional county councils. The survey was partially conducted by the first researcher and partially by the leaders of the county councils in 2017.

3 Results and discussion

The results of the study clearly show that in choosing teaching as a profession, the most important motivational variables are daily work with students (M = 4.75, sd = 0.534), autonomy at work (M = 4.65, sd = 0.606) and the interest in the profession

(M = 4.55, sd = 0.734) (Table 1) – variables representing the intrinsic motivational factor which also proved to be the most important factor in the earlier studies on the motivation for the teaching profession (Bielby et al., 2007; Chong & Low, 2009; Jungert, Alm & Thonberg, 2014; Marušić et al., 2011; Richardson & Watt, 2006). The variables of social recognition (M = 3.63, sd = 0.534), income level (M = 3.82, sd = 1.100) as well as leisure and vacation (M = 3.85, sd = 1.016), i.e. variables referring to extrinsic motivation, have proved to be the least important variables. Likewise, the intrinsic factor has proved to be the greatest motivator in choosing the teaching profession (M = 4.65, sd = 0.420) and the variance of the participants' responses with regard to this factor is smaller than the variance for the altruistic and extrinsic motivation factors. The factor of altruistic motivation is also evaluated as very important by the teachers (M = 4.46, sd = 0.698), more important than the extrinsic factor but significantly lower than the intrinsic factor, and it is confirmed by the pairwise comparison in multivariate analysis of variance for repeated measures. The analysis revealed significant differences among factors (F = 21083.65, df = 1, p < 0.001) and the pair comparisons confirmed significant difference among all three of them. The assessments for the extrinsic motivation factor are lower, however, greater dispersion of results for this factor (M = 3.95, sd = 0.778, Min = 1, Max = 5) indicate that some respondents did not consider this factor to be significant in the process of choosing their profession at all, while some considered it to be extremely important, which is also the case with the altruistic motivation factor (Table 1).

The results confirmed the initial hypothesis that in the choice of their profession, the teachers attribute the greatest importance to variables of intrinsic and altruistic motivation and their choice is influenced mainly by the factor of intrinsic motivation.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of motivation variables and motivational factors for choosing the teaching profession (N = 320)

Motivational factors	M	sd	Min	Max	Variables	M	sd
Intrinsic motivation	4.65	0.420	3	5	Daily work with students	4.75	0.534
					Autonomy at work	4.65	0.606
					(Intellectual) interest for the profession	4.55	0.734
Altruistic motivation	4.46	0.698	1	5	Awareness of doing good for the future of the society	4.48	0.736
					Awareness of playing a useful role in the society	4.44	0.913
Extrinsic motivation	3.95	0.778	1	5	Job security	4.34	0.915
					Compatibility of work and private life	4.09	1.044
					Leisure and vacation	3.85	1.016
					Income level	3.82	1.100
					Social recognition	3.63	0.534

The correlation of motivational factors with self-assessments of mastering different competences necessary for teaching (Table 2) shows that the intrinsic motivation factor is positively correlated with all the above-mentioned competences, which confirms the initial hypothesis. The values of correlation coefficients are low to moderate but significant at $p < 0.01$ level. The following variables show the greatest correlation with intrinsic motivation: *Professional values and dedication to work* (r = 0.335) and *Educational values, creativity* (r = 0.323). In other words, the greater the intrinsic motivation, the higher are the self-assessments of the mastering competences. Such interpretation could lead to the conclusion that intrinsic motivation has a significant effect on the mastering of the competences. However, the correlation design of this study also allows an interpretation in the opposite direction: the higher the respondents' assessment of their competences, the greater is the importance they attribute to intrinsic motivation. It is possible that the respondents who are more intrinsically motivated for work master the necessary competences better, but it is also possible that in the absence of adequate external awards, they justify their efforts by the factors of intrinsic motivation.

Table 2. Correlations between motivational factors for choosing the teaching profession and teachers' self-assessment of competences

Competences N = 320	Intrinsic motivation	Extrinsic motivation	Altruistic motivation
Organization, administration and (self)evaluation	0.283**	0.020	0.078
Interpersonal skills, knowing and respecting students	0.303**	0.015	0.144**
Individualized teaching for children with special educational needs	0.212**	–0.009	0.063
Curriculum, education, learning, teaching and evaluation	0.276**	–0.002	0.130*
Information and communication literacy	0.154**	0.000	0.019
Health, science and sustainable development	0.195**	–0.064	0.094
Research and creation of new knowledge	0.297**	–0.022	0.066
Professional values and dedication to work	0.335**	0.011	0.165**
Educational values, creativity	0.323**	0.003	0.172**

Legend: ** – the correlation is significant at the level 0.01; * – the correlation is significant at the level 0.05.

The results in Table 2 show that extrinsic motivation for choosing the teaching profession shows no correlation with any of the competences. Accordingly, among the respondents who estimate extrinsic motivation as important, there are those who assess their competences as low, others who assess them as high as well as for those who perceive extrinsic motivation as less relevant. The altruistic motivation for choosing the teaching profession shows a positive correlation with the mastering of:
- interpersonal skills, knowing and respecting students,
- curriculum, education, learning, teaching, and evaluation,
- professional values and dedication to work and
- educational values and creativity.

Table 3. Comparison of self-assessment means used for the mastering of competences
with Bonferroni correction

Competence (I)	Competence (J)	Mean difference (I–J)	Std. error	Sig.
Organization, administration and (self)evaluation	2	−0.073*	0.018	0.004
	3	0.168*	0.033	0.000
	4	0.128*	0.018	0.000
	5	0.159*	0.032	0.000
	6	−0.008	0.021	1.000
	7	0.390*	0.020	0.000
	8	−0.061	0.020	0.101
	9	−0.004	0.020	1.000
Interpersonal skills, knowing and respecting students	3	0.241*	0.030	0.000
	4	0.201*	0.017	0.000
	5	0.232*	0.033	0.000
	6	0.065*	0.019	0.020
	7	0.463*	0.021	0.000
	8	0.012	0.015	1.000
	9	0.068*	0.018	0.005
Individualized teaching for children with special educational needs	4	−0.040	0.030	1.000
	5	−0.009	0.041	1.000
	6	−0.176*	0.033	0.000
	7	0.222*	0.032	0.000
	8	−0.229*	0.031	0.000
	9	−0.173*	0.032	0.000
Curriculum, education, learning, teaching and evaluation	5	0.031	0.032	1.000
	6	−0.136*	0.020	0.000
	7	0.262*	0.018	0.000
	8	−0.189*	0.018	0.000
	9	−0.133*	0.019	0.000
Information and communication literacy	6	−0.167*	0.032	0.000
	7	0.231*	0.032	0.000
	8	−0.220*	0.031	0.000
	9	−0.164*	0.032	0.000
Health, science and sustainable development	7	0.398*	0.023	0.000
	8	−0.053	0.017	0.088
	9	0.003	0.020	1.000
Research and creation of new knowledge	8	−0.451*	0.021	0.000
	9	−0.394*	0.021	0.000
Professional values and dedication to work	9	0.056*	0.017	0.046

Legend: 9 – Educational values, creativity; * – the significance level is 0.05.

We can compare these results with those of Čudina-Obradović (2008) on the students' motivation for enrolment in a teaching study program. She concluded that persons who demonstrate intrinsic and altruistic motivation for teaching are very likely to become teachers who are interested in the quality of their work. In addition, she assumes that these persons, with hard work and investment in their personal development, will be ready for taking on the role of the teacher who considers autonomy, creativity, dedication, reflection on their work and work results as important.

As shown in Table 3, participants in this study estimated the mastery of all competences to be above the average theoretical value, which means they highly value the knowledge, skills and abilities they possess. Their assessment of interpersonal skills, knowing and respecting students as well as professional values and dedication to work are high, but they also consider themselves as competent in the area concerning health, science and sustainable growth, and educational values and creativity. The areas of the competences regarding research and creation of new knowledge, individualized teaching for children with special educational needs as well as the information and communication literacy show the lowest results.

For determining the difference in the self-assessment of different competence factors, the analysis of variance for repeated measures with the Greenhouse-Geisser correction was used and the results showed a statistically significant difference in teachers' assessments ($F = 67.366$, $df = 4.789$, $p < 0.01$). While Table 3 shows differences in the self-assessments of competence mastering, Table 4 shows teachers' assessments of 9 different competences with regard to the years of work.

The results of multiple variance analysis performed on 9 dependent variables (competences) and years of work as an independent variable indicate there is a statistically significant difference in the self-assessments of competences with regard to the teacher's length of service ($F = 16.733$, $df = 9.758$, $p < 0.01$). Levine's test of homogeneity of variances showed that the assumption of variance homogeneity was confirmed for all dependent variables ($p > 0.05$). Scheffe's post hoc test pointed to the differences in the levels of the mastery of certain competences which depend on the length of service. As expected, teachers with less than 10 years of work experience mostly show a lower level of competence mastering than those who have more years of work experience, although the difference can generally be noticed between categories 1 to 10 years and 21 and more years of work experience (Table 5).

This can be explained by the greater work experience and longer period of professional training that contribute to the development of teacher competences. This assumption could be empirically verified by further analysis of the activities and teacher's professional training program, which also raise a new topic for future research.

Teachers in the category of up to 10 years of work experience mostly do not differ from those with 11–20 years, except for the information and communication literacy competence, where they show a better mastery than the other two categories of teachers with more years of work experience ($p < 0.05$) (Tables 4 and 5).

Table 4. The descriptive statistics for 9 different competences with regard to the years of
work

Competences	Years of work in categories	M	sd
Organization, administration and (self)evaluation	1–10 years	4.09	0.471
	11–20 years	4.09	0.541
	21–41 years	4.28	0.504
	Total	4.17	0.506
Interpersonal skills, knowing and respecting students	1–10 years	4.14	0.441
	11–20 years	4.19	0.467
	21–41 years	4.35	0.495
	Total	4.24	0.478
Individualized teaching for children with special educational needs	1–10 years	3.84	0.738
	11–20 years	3.99	0.630
	21–41 years	4.13	0.587
	Total	3.99	0.667
Curriculum, education, learning, teaching and evaluation	1–10 years	3.94	0.437
	11–20 years	3.99	0.486
	21–41 years	4.15	0.482
	Total	4.04	0.475
Information and communication literacy	1–10 years	4.31	0.543
	11–20 years	3.81	0.598
	21–41 years	3.87	0.641
	Total	4.02	0.635
Health, science and sustainable development	1–10 years	4.12	0.462
	11–20 years	4.03	0.511
	21–41 years	4.33	0.494
	Total	4.19	0.500
Research and creation of new knowledge	1–10 years	3.74	0.488
	11–20 years	3.67	0.541
	21–41 years	3.89	0.517
	Total	3.78	0.518
Professional values and dedication to work	1–10 years	4.18	0.405
	11–20 years	4.15	0.458
	21–41 years	4.32	0.462
	Total	4.23	0.445
Educational values, creativity	1–10 years	4.12	0.450
	11–20 years	4.09	0.450
	21–41 years	4.27	0.498
	Total	4.17	0.475

Legend: M – arithmetic mean, sd – standard deviation

Table 5. Mean differences in the self-assessments of competences with regard to the years of work

Competence	Years of work (I)	Years of work (J)	Mean difference (I–J)	Std. error	Sig.
Organization, administration and (self)evaluation	1	2	0.004	0.075	0.999
		3	−0.185*	0.063	0.015
	2	3	−0.189*	0.075	0.042
Interpersonal skills, knowing and respecting students	1	2	−0.059	0.071	0.709
		3	−0.218*	0.059	0.001
	2	3	−0.159	0.070	0.077
Individualized teaching for children with special educational needs	1	2	−0.141	0.099	0.362
		3	−0.285*	0.083	0.003
	2	3	−0.144	0.098	0.343
Curriculum, education, learning, teaching and evaluation	1	2	−0.051	0.070	0.771
		3	−0.213*	0.059	0.002
	2	3	−0.162	0.070	0.068
Information and communication literacy	1	2	0.494*	0.090	0.000
		3	0.438*	0.075	0.000
	2	3	−0.057	0.089	0.816
Health, science and sustainable development	1	2	0.090	0.073	0.467
		3	−0.208*	0.061	0.003
	2	3	−0.299*	0.072	0.000
Research and creation of new knowledge	1	2	0.069	0.077	0.670
		3	−0.149	0.065	0.071
	2	3	−0.218*	0.076	0.018
Professional values and dedication to work	1	2	0.033	0.066	0.887
		3	−0.138*	0.056	0.048
	2	3	−0.170*	0.066	0.036
Educational values, creativity	1	2	0.038	0.071	0.867
		3	−0.146	0.059	0.051
	2	3	−0.183*	0.070	0.034

Legend: 1 – 1–10 years of work; 2 – 11–20 years of work; 3 – 21–41 years of work

This result was expected, because the younger teachers had courses targeting information and communication technologies in their initial education, while teachers with more years of service did not. Teachers with more years of work experience have obviously not acquired these skills nor have they developed them sufficiently in the course of their work and professional training. However, it is suprising that teachers with 21

or more years of work experience asses their mastering of competences in the field of research and creation of new knowledge as well as those concerning educational values and creativity significantly lower compared to other groups. On the other hand, they show a higher self-assessment than those with 11–20 years of work experience in the following competences: organization and administration, health, science and sustainable development, research and creation of new knowledge, and the educational values and creativity.

4 Conclusion

The results of this research confirm the findings of earlier studies which suggest that the most important factors in choosing the teaching profession are those reflecting intrinsic motivation, such as working with students, autonomy at work and interest in the profession, and these are followed by the factors of altruistic motivation, such as awareness of doing good for the future of the society and awareness of playing a useful role in the society. Teachers attribute less importance to the factors of extrinsic motivation, such as compatibility of work and private life, leisure and vacation, income level and social recognition. The hypothesis of a positive correlation between intrinsic motivation and the teachers' mastery of competences has also been confirmed – teachers who show a higher level of intrinsic motivation also assess their competences as high, while extrinsic motivation in choosing the teaching profession shows no correlation with any of the competences. In other words, intrinsically motivated teachers consider themselves as more competent. Finally, as we have assumed, the results of this research show that teachers with less than 10 years of work experience mostly show lower competences than those with more years of work experience, indicating that the length of service and professional training are important independent variables in the research of the competence mastery, but their contribution is still to be empirically verified by analysing the activities and professional training program. However, the obtained results help us better understand the factors contributing to greater competences of primary school teachers and they also present potential guidelines for future research. Our suggestion is that future research, apart from the variables and factors examined in this research, include factors such as individual characteristics of teachers, their socio-economic status, and cultural and other factors that affect teachers' motivation and competence.

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Motivacija za izbiro poklica in kompetence učiteljev

Aktualni trendi v izobraževanju postavljajo pred učitelje vse večje izzive. Od njih se pričakuje razvoj kompetenc, ki zagotavljajo uspešno prilagajanje okolju, v katerem delujejo, in zadovoljujejo zahteve družbe ali njih samih (Fullan, 2007; Waters in Lawrence, 1993). Obenem učitelji svoj poklic ocenjujejo kot izjemno zahteven, težak in stresen

(Kyracou, 201; Lučić, 2007; Šimić Šašić in sod., 2013). Če temu dodamo ugotovitve raziskav o nizkem družbenem statusu učitelja, se postavlja vprašanje, kako uspešno obvladujejo svoje profesionalne kompetence in kateri motivacijski dejavniki vplivajo na izbiro tega poklica.

Raziskave kažejo, da so učitelji za svoje delo predvsem intrinzično motivirani (Bielby in sod., 2007; Marušić in sod., 2011), medtem ko so ekstrinzični dejavniki, kot so dolge počitnice, stabilnost službe in/ali višina prihodkov, večinoma drugotnega pomena. Nekatere raziskave (Han in Yin, 2016) poročajo o vplivu socialnih in ekonomskih dejavnikov na ekstrinzično motivacijo učiteljev. Poročilo OECD-ja (2005) navaja, da se motivacija za izbiro učiteljskega poklica nanaša predvsem na delo z otroki in adolescenti, družbeni prispevek, stabilnost in prednosti dela, užitek pri poučevanju in na kompatibilnost z družinskim življenjem. Do podobnih ugotovitev so na Hrvaškem prišle Marušić in sod. (2011), ki so ugotovile, da študente učiteljskega študija za izbiro tega poklica najbolj motivira delo z otroki, možnost družbenega prispevka in ocena lastnih sposobnosti za poučevanje, manj pa osebne vrednote, kot so stabilnost zaposlitve in čas za družino.

V raziskavi kompetenc učiteljev razrednega pouka z manj kot pet let delovne dobe so Rijavec, Miljević-Riđički in Vizek Vidović (2006) ugotovile, da so samoocene učiteljev na raziskovanih področjih kompetenc nizke oziroma pod ravnijo povprečne teoretične vrednosti. Ker motivacija vpliva na kvaliteto in količino znanja, veščin in kompetenc (Koludrović i Reić Ercegovac, 2015) ter je profesionalni razvoj učitelja odvisen predvsem od njihove intrinzične motivacije (Fessler, 1995; Marušić, 2014), je cilj naše raziskave ugotavljanje motivacijskih dejavnikov za izbiro učiteljskega poklica in njihova povezanost s samoocenjevalnimi kompetencami učiteljev. V skladu s tem so postavljene naslednje hipoteze:

☐ *H1: Pričakujemo, da bodo učitelji pri izboru učiteljskega poklica dali največjo prednost spremenljivkam intrinzične in altruistične motivacije ter da bodo pri izbiri poklica najbolj pomembni intrinzični dejavniki;*

☐ *H2: Pričakujemo pozitivno povezanost intrinzičnih, vendar pa ne tudi drugih motivacijskih dejavnikov s samoocenami učiteljev o obvladovanju kompetenc;*

☐ *H3: Pričakujemo, da bodo učitelji z več kot 10 leti delovne dobe imeli višjo raven obvladovanja kompetenc od tistih z manj leti delovne dobe.*

Udeleženci v raziskavi so bili učitelji razrednega pouka iz sedmih hrvaških županij (N = 320) z razponom 1–41 let delovne dobe. Za ugotavljanje stopnje obvladovanja kompetenc je uporabljena "Lestvica učiteljevih kompetenc – verzija 2" (Lončarić in Majić, 2015), ki je sestavljena iz 55 postavk in Likertove lestvice s petimi stopnjami: od 1 – zelo malo do 5 – izjemno, ki pa je modificirana in prilagojena tej raziskavi ter ima zadovoljive merske karakteristike. Lestvica je sestavljena iz devetih podlestvic: Organizacija, vodenje in (samo) ocenjevanje (4 postavke), Interpersonalne veščine, poznavanje in spoštovanje učencev (8 postavk), Individualizirano delo z otroki s posebnimi potrebami (3 postavke), Kurikul, izobraževanje, učenje, poučevanje in vrednotenje (8 postavk), Informacijsko-komunikacijska pismenost (3 postavke), Zdravje, naravoslovje in trajnostni razvoj (4 postavke), Raziskovanje in ustvarjanje novega znanja (7 postavk), Profesionalne vrednote in predanost delu (10 postavk), Vzgojne vrednote, kreativnost/ustvarjalnost (8 postavk).

Za preiskavo motivacijskih dejavnikov za izbor poklica je sestavljena lestvica z 10 postavkami, ki se nanašajo na intrinzično, ekstrinzično in altruistično motivacijo pri izbiri učiteljskega poklica. Formirana lestvica motivacijskih dejavnikov Likertovega tipa ima 5 stopenj: od 1 – povsem nepomembno do 5 – izjemno pomembno. S faktorsko analizo lestvice motivacijskih dejavnikov so ekstrahirane 3 glavne komponente: faktor intrinzične motivacije, faktor ekstrinzične motivacije in faktor altruistične motivacije, ki pa skupaj pojasnjujejo 67,8 % skupne variance. Prvi ekstrahirani faktor je faktor ekstrinzične motivacije. Sestavljen je iz 5 postavk (Prosti čas in letni dopust, Kompatibilnost dela in privatnega življenja, Zagotavljanje zaposlitve, višina plače, Družbeno uveljavljanje in spoštovanje), z njim pa je pojasnjeno 30,6 % variance. Drugi ekstrahirani faktor je faktor altruistične motivacije. Sestavljen je iz dveh postavk (Zavest o opravljanju koristne vloge v družbi, Zavest o tem, da delam dobro za prihodnost družbe), ki pojasnjujeta 18,6 % variance. Tretji ekstrahirani faktor je faktor intrinzične motivacije, ki ga sestavljajo 3 postavke (Interes (intelektualni) za stroko, Samostojnost pri delu, Vsakodnevno delo z učenci), ki tudi pojasnjujejo 18,6 % variance motivacije za delo učitelja. Zanesljivost vseh podlestvic teh faktorjev je zadovoljiva ali dobra.

Raziskava je bila izvedena v letu 2017. Rezultati raziskave kažejo, da so pri izboru učiteljskega poklica najbolj pomembni vsakodnevno delo z učenci (M = 4,75, sd = 0,534), samostojnost pri delu (M = 4,65, sd = 0,606) ter interes za stroko (M = 4,55, sd = 0,734), torej intrinzični dejavniki. Kot najmanj pomembni motivatorji so družbeno priznanje in spoštovanje (M = 3,63, sd = 0,534), višina plače (M = 3,82, sd = 1,100) ter prosti čas in letni dopust (M = 1,016), spremenljivke, ki se nanašajo na ekstrinzično motivacijo. Dobljene ugotovitve potrjujejo hipotezo, da so pri izbiri učiteljskega poklica bolj pomembni dejavniki, ki se nanašajo na intrinzično motivacijo.

Raziskovanje povezanosti faktorjev motivacije s samoocenami obvladovanja različnih kompetenc, ki so potrebne za opravljanje učiteljskega poklica, kaže, da je faktor intrinzične motivacije pozitivno povezan z vsemi omenjenimi kompetencami. Tako je potrjena hipoteza. Dobljene korelacije so nizke do zmerne, vendar statistično pomembne na nivoju p < 0,01. Največjo povezanost z intrinzično motivacijo kažejo Profesionalne vrednote in predanost delu (r = 0,335) ter Vzgojne vrednote, kreativnost/ustvarjalnost (r = 0,323). Čim višja je pri udeležencih intrinzična motivacija, tem višje so njihove samoocene obvladovanja kompetenc, tako da lahko zaključimo, da intrinzična motivacija pomembno vpliva na obvladovanje kompetenc. Ker govorimo o korelacijskem raziskovanju, je lahko interpretacija rezultatov tudi v nasprotni smeri in je možno, da zaradi pomanjkljivosti adekvatnih zunanjih nagrad udeleženci svoj trud in predanost delu utemeljujejo z intrinzično motivacijo. Ekstrinzična motivacija za izbiro učiteljskega poklica ne kaže povezanosti niti z eno kompetenco. Takšne rezultate lahko povežemo z rezultati raziskave Čudine-Obradović (2008). Na podlagi rezultatov raziskovanja motivacije študentov za vpis na učiteljski študij je ugotovila, da bodo osebe, ki kažejo intrinzično in altruistično motivacijo za poučevanje, zelo verjetno postale učitelji, ki bodo zainteresirani za kakovost svojega dela ter bodo ob veliko dela in investiranja v lastni razvoj pripravljeni na prevzemanje vloge učitelja, pri kateri je pomembna samostojnost, kreativnost, predanost in premišljevanje o delu in rezultatih lastnega dela.

Na splošno so učitelji obvladovanju vseh kompetenc pripisali nadpovprečno teoretično vrednost, kar pomeni, da visoko vrednotijo stopnjo znanja, veščin in sposobnosti, ki jih imajo. Samoocena kompetenc, ki se nanašajo na interpersonalne veščine, pozna-

vanje in spoštovanje učencev ter profesionalne vrednote in predanost delu so najvišje ocenjene, prav tako pa menijo, da so kompetentni na področju, ki se nanaša na zdravje, naravoslovje in trajnostni razvoj ter vzgojne vrednote in ustvarjalnost. Najslabše ocenjena področja kompetenc so tista, ki se nanašajo na raziskovanje in ustvarjanje novega znanja, individualizirano delo z otroki s posebnimi potrebami ter informacijsko-komunikacijsko pismenost. Rezultati multiple analize variance, ki so izvedeni z devetimi odvisnimi spremenljivkami (kompetence) in delovno dobo kot neodvisno spremenljivko, kažejo statistično pomembno razliko v samooceni kompetenc glede na leta delovne dobe učitelja (F = 16,733, df = 9,758, p < 0,01). Glede na pričakovanja učitelji z manj kot 10 leti delovne dobe v glavnem kažejo slabše obvladovanje kompetenc od tistih z več leti delovne dobe, kar lahko pojasnimo z več delovnimi izkušnjami in daljšim obdobjem strokovnega usposabljanja, ki prispeva k razvoju učiteljskih kompetenc. Učitelji v kategoriji do 10 let delovne dobe se v glavnem ne razlikujejo od tistih z 11–20 let delovne dobe, razen pri kompetenci informacijsko-komunikacijske pismenosti, pri kateri poročajo o boljšem obvladovanju v primerjavi z ostalima dvema kategorijama učiteljev z več leti delovne dobe (p < 0,05). Ta rezultat je pričakovan glede na to, da so mlajši učitelji v svojem inicialnem izobraževanju dobili več znanja o informacijsko-komunikacijski tehnologiji, ki ga učitelji z več leti delovne dobe niso dobili. Učitelji z več leti delovne dobe očitno niso usvojili te veščine in je niso razvili v zadostni meri med delom in preko strokovnega usposabljanja, da bi jih visoko ocenili.

Ugotovitve te raziskave gredo v smeri boljšega razumevanja dejavnikov, ki prispevajo k večji kompetentnosti učiteljev in predstavljajo potencialne smernice za prihodnje raziskave, ki bi lahko razen navedenih dejavnikov vključile tudi druge, npr. individualne karakteristike udeležencev, njihov socio-ekonomski status ter kulturne in druge dejavnike, ki vplivajo na učiteljsko motivacijo in kompetentnost.

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Mag. Alja Perger

Šolanje na domu v Sloveniji

POVZETEK – Prispevek posega globlje v na področje nastajajočih novih/drugačnih oblik izobraževanja, predvsem na osnovnošolski ravni. Zajete so različne vsebine. Od participacije in vpletenosti staršev v otrokovo šolanje, vpliva šolskega sistema kot kulturne univerzalije določene družbe, pa vse do otrokovega kognitivnega dojemanja in individualnega dozorevanja. Želeli smo se v vlogi bralca, opazovalca, morebitnega šolskega uslužbenca ali staršev postaviti v vlogo relevantnega sogovornika na temo šolanja na domu. Zapisano pomaga osveščati ljudi, da je šolanje na domu dodatna možnost za naše otroke znotraj zahtevnega izobraževalnega procesa. To možnost želimo izpostaviti kot dodano vrednost in bogato izbiro spretnosti za tiste, ki spoštujejo fleksibilnost izobraževanja kot nikoli končanega življenjskega procesa.

ABSTRACT – With this article, we would like to open a discussion which is still not as widely spread in Slovenia. The topic might still be at an early stage of developing as a new, alternative educational model, mostly for primary school students. This article tries to cover the following levels: from parents' involvement and their participation in the educational process and the impact of the school system as the important cultural universality in a specific society to the individual's participation throughout the process. Homeschooling as a reliable educational process needs to be properly understood mainly by parents, educators and readers. The article does not include any government regulations concerning this subject; our clear intention is to present it as a way of creating a reliable and opportunistic new educational curve. Homeschooling as a modern-day alternative educational model can bring added value in schools. It can offer a few new techniques and more options as well as provide additional skills which are more than welcome in today's education.

1 Uvod

Šolanje na domu se kot alternativna možnost pridobivanja znanja v drugem okolju, izven izobraževalne institucije, v svetu izvaja že kar nekaj časa. O tem obstajajo različna mnenja, od odobravanja do nasprotovanja, ko se označuje tovrstno šolanje kot nekoristno za razvoj posameznikovih kompetenc.

Šolanje na domu marsikomu predstavlja zanimiv koncept izobraževalnega procesa. Tak način dela je vabljiv, kreativen, inovativen in predvsem proaktiven. Oblika šolanja na domu, predvsem na ravni osnovnošolskega izobraževanja, je danes še zelo privilegirana oblika dejavnosti, kjer se preudarno izoblikujejo ustrezne kompetence. Marsikje opazimo porast izbire te oblike šolanja, predvsem v ZDA oz. v Severni Ameriki.

Poznamo različen odnos do tega, ne glede na izobrazbeno strukturo ali versko prepričanje. Dejstvo je, da se drugačen način posredovanja znanja oz. izobraževanja, ki se

fizično izvaja drugje, tj. izven prostorov izobraževalne institucije, ki je za to predvidena, največkrat "tiho" označuje kot nezakonita dejavnost.

Največkrat je glavni razlog za to neustrezna terminologija oz. nezadostno informiranje o omenjeni dejavnosti. Vsekakor ni dopustno, da se negativno označuje vsakršen proces pridobivanja znanja, ki se izvaja izven izobraževalne institucije.

V Sloveniji so zapisi o šolanju na domu v manjšini. To je seveda razumljivo. Glede na populacijo v državi in manjše možnosti za alternativno izobraževanje je tudi raziskovanja manj.

Pri zbiranju informacij za zapis o šolanju na domu, smo zaznali predvsem nenaklonjenost takemu načinu izobraževanja. Izpostavljen je predvsem dvom o kompetentnem in ustreznem načinu osvajanja znanja. Marsikje se šolanje na domu prepovršno in krivično označuje kot dejavnost, kjer gre le za t.i. opravljanje domačih nalog in dodatnih obveznosti, pa tudi, da je nemogoče ob svojem otroku sedeti in se učiti, ko se vrnemo iz službe. Gre za zelo slabo razumevanje šolanja na domu oz. nezadostno informiranost. Kakršno koli uvajanje alternativnega izobraževanja je za večino ljudi nesprejemljivo.

To dejstvo pa nekako ni skladno z napredkom in pojavom številnih modernih in uporabnih tehnik izobraževalnega procesa, s katerimi lahko učinkoviteje posegamo po učnih ciljih, zlasti ker vemo, da je dandanes izobrazba zelo pomembna vrednota. Starši in pedagoški delavci so prepričani, da njihovi otroci oz. učenci zmorejo doseči takšno stopnjo izobrazbe, ki bi jim omogočala opravljati (po njihovem mnenju) dostojen poklic (Cugmas, 2010).

V nadaljevanju želimo izpostaviti pomen šolanja na domu kot možnost alternativnega načina izobraževanja, od tega, kaj šolanje na domu predstavlja v strokovni in nestrokovni javnosti, do pozitivnega predznaka fleksibilnega šolanja. Zelo pomembno je razmišljanje s strani trenutno večinskih vršilcev izobraževalnega procesa, tj. šol. Poudarek je na individualnosti kot tudi na razvoju posameznikovih kompetenc. Zanima nas, kakšna je vpletenost staršev v otrokovo šolanje, zakaj se odločajo za šolanje svojih otrok na domu, kaj dejansko je ustrezno učno okolje, kaj ali kdo ga določa, ali je fleksibilno, spreminjajoče, proaktivno in ali je odprto za alternativne posege, za stremljenje k skupnemu cilju pridobivanja uporabnega znanja za posameznika. Vsa polemika nas bo morda pripeljala k še vedno številnim odprtim razpravam o ustreznosti privatnega šolskega sistema, ki pa bi lahko postal alternativni člen ob že ustaljeni praksi javnega šolstva.

Živimo v času različnih zgodb in teh idej ne smemo negativno ocenjevati samo zato, ker so drugačne od večine. Ravno tako ni primerno kritizirali načina dela šole v nekem mestu ali dela učitelja v nekem kolektivu, ker sta razvila drugačne učne prijeme, izobraževalne smernice in podobno.

Ustreznejše kot negativno kritiziranje je razumevanje različnosti in številnih novih možnosti, ki so se razvile zaradi različnih dejavnikov v določenem okolju in se okrepile. Tudi razlogov, zakaj nekateri raje šolajo svoje otroke doma, je toliko, kolikor je družin, ki so se za ta korak odločile. Važno je razumeti, da se ne moremo strogo držati le prepričanja o edinem možnem izobraževalnem sistemu iz preteklosti in istočasno pričakovati, da bo tak sistem dovolj močan, da bo zdržal vse ostalo korenito spreminjanje v družbi, katere pomemben člen je bil in tudi ostaja. Družba se spreminja, ravno tako njeni posamezniki, vrednote in načini za dosego ciljev.

Šola ima danes močno poslanstvo. Verjeti je treba v njene vizije in ukrepe, usmerjene v cilj – učiti za življenje. Šolsko okolje postaja vse bolj fleksibilno, bolj odprto in dojemljivo za spremembe. Šolski delavci vse bolj usmerjajo svoje delo tudi v inovativno učno okolje. Uporabljajo nove metode, razvijajo raziskovalno dejavnost, predvsem pa upoštevajo formacijo učenca kot posameznika, da se vse bolj zaveda svoje nujne in temeljne vloge v izobraževalnem procesu. Enega brez drugega ni. Izpostavimo tudi učitelja kot posameznika; koliko ceni in spoštuje svoj poklic, zakaj se je zanj odločil, koliko je pripravljen prestopati meje svojega poklicnega delovanja in pripraviti bogatejši nabor vsebin za svojega učenca, ali je pripravljen sprejeti zmago nad znanjem in koliko je sposoben deliti svojo namero in poslanstvo skozi številne generacije, ki s seboj prinašajo tudi kulturne in družbene spremembe.

2   Razvoj posameznikovih kompetenc pri šolanju na domu

Šolanje na domu kot alternativni izobraževalni proces vsebuje tudi pomembne dejavnike, ki krojijo posameznikovo učno podobo. Mnogi za šolanje na domu izoblikujejo manjše skupine otrok, ki jim potem ponudijo ali za učenje usposobljene mentorje/tutorje ali pa so to starši, ki so seveda sposobni izobraževati svoje otroke. Vsak ne more izvajati izobraževalnega procesa. Potrebna je visoka stopnja koncentracije, smiselna vodljivost po poti osvajanja učnih ciljev, korektno in smelo vrednotenje učnega dela in visoka profesionalnost ter sposobnost ločevanja med učenjem za zabavo in resnim izobraževanjem. Naklonjenost do takšnega izvajanja mora seveda biti obojestranska, podprta s strani izvajalcev (staršev/tutorjev) in tudi s strani prejemnikov (otrok/učencev). Zaradi (največkrat) individualnega načina dela je lažje postaviti mejnike in upoštevati želje obeh strani. Lažje in kakovostneje se rešujejo morebitni nesporazumi in konflikti, ki sčasoma pridejo na plan.

Posameznikova individualnost je pri šolanju na domu v ospredju. Način dela omogoča, da posameznik uspešno razvija občutek pomembnosti lastne avtonomije. Razvije motivacijo za izobraževanje in izpopolnjevanje, kar mu pomaga oblikovati dosleden in trajen sistem vrednot. Razvijajo se spretnosti za uspešno delo in strokovno rast. Ustvarjalnost, inovativnost, humanost, samostojno in odgovorno ravnanje ter osebna iniciativa so posledice dela, ki nastanejo tudi v šolskih institucijah. Pri šolanju na domu lahko te vrednote bolj postavimo v ospredje, lažje jim sledimo, jih "prebujamo" in jih poskušamo obdržati kot posameznikove cilje delovanja.

Sposobnost kreativnega in uporabnega vzgojnega načrtovanja se mi zdi pomemben dejavnik, izpostavljen kot pozitivni aspekt pri sodelovanju obeh strani, izobraževalne institucije in staršev, ki so se odločili za šolanje otrok na domu.

Šola je v današnjem času postala sinonim za socializacijo in prenos vrednot v povezavi s predvidenim kurikulom. Posredovanje znanja je v šolah posledica fiksnih elementov kulture in družbe, v kateri smo oblikovani in socializirani.

Šolanje na domu se počasi, a vztrajno oblikuje v izobraževalni okvir in v pričakovano možnost alternativnega izbora poučevanja brez negativnega predznaka. Proces socializacije nikakor ni vezan izključno na šolsko druženje. Ni le šolsko okolje najvažnejše

okolje, kjer naj bi posameznik prejemal in ustrezno vrednotil vedenjske obrazce za svoj obstoj in lastno funkcionalnost v okolju. Treba je gledati širše. Ponujamo razmislek staršem in učiteljem, ki se s primerom šolanja na domu ne srečujejo, niti o njem še ne razmišljajo. Vsak dober učitelj širi svoje poslanstvo z idejo, da moramo razmišljati tudi izven zapisanih okvirov. Sprejeti je treba drugačnost, neenakost in ravno tukaj je šolanje na domu izvrsten primer, da se spoštuje drugačen način prejemanja znanja. Šolanje na domu je model za alternativno izobraževanje, ki posamezniku omogoča kvaliteten individualni in socialni razvoj, ustrezen njegovemu okolju.

Značilnosti šolanja na domu so:

- *Učno okolje*: prilagojeno zanimanju, odprto, fleksibilno, dinamično, inovativno.
- *Učni materiali*: množičen izbor, večplastnost, kreativnost, vsebinska povezovalnost, inter-disciplinarnost.
- *Učni stili*: glede na ritem dela, glede na preference, učinkovitost pomnjenja, dialog, iniciativa.
- *Časovna razporeditev*: učinkovita, krajša (manjša udeležba, hitrejše delo, večja pozornost), možnost interdisciplinarnega povezovanja – medpredmetna povezava.
- *Socializacija*: znotraj interesne skupine različnih obšolskih dejavnosti
- *Sodelovanje s šolo*: visoka motivacija učitelja, nova alternativna možnost, pozitiven doprinos šole, izmenjava mnenj in znanja, krožno uporabljanje znanja (starši – učitelji).

Šolanje na domu vzpodbuja otrokovo individualnost, kreativnost in samoiniciativnost. Kot posameznik lahko izbira med številnimi možnostmi za svoje bodoče življenje. Izoblikuje lastne želje za svojo poklicno prihodnost.

3 Otrokovo šolanje in vpletenost staršev

Opažamo, da čedalje več staršev želi biti vse bolj aktivno vključenih v izobraževalni proces svojih otrok (Cugmas, 2010, str. 319). Živimo v času, ko starši poglobljeno spremljajo otrokovo odraščanje skozi proces izobraževanja. V preteklosti se temu ni namenjalo toliko pozornosti. Številni strokovnjaki, učitelji, mentorji, želijo vsak na svoj način deliti lastne izkušnje in mnenja, kako stremeti h kvalitetnemu in učinkovitejšemu posredovanju znanja. Priče smo poplavi številnih tehnik, metod dela, predavanj, kako omogočiti, da bo znanje uporabljeno smotrno in kakovostno. Največkrat, kar je seveda pohvalno s stališča posredovalca znanja, so snovi predstavljene na enostaven in logičen način. Zadeve kmalu postanejo jasne, mamljive za uporabo. Zaradi omenjenega se hitro vzpostavi zelo ohlapen kriterij, ki je težko merljiv. Gre za ustreznost vsebinskih prijemov posameznika, ki izvaja izobraževalni proces.

Poznamo številne kritike glede ustreznosti šolskega sistema, kvalitete učnih vsebin, zastarelosti učne opreme ipd.

Za vse omenjeno seveda obstaja razlog, zakaj je do določene pomanjkljivosti sploh prišlo. Velikokrat se kritike pojavijo takrat, ko je negativna naravnanost že tako razširjena, da se niti ne trudi poiskati pozitivne rešitve oz. izboljšave, temveč se z železnim čevljem nasloni na morda nekaj preostalih svetlih možnosti v sistemu, ko je ponavadi že prepozno.

Stopnja vpletenosti staršev v šolanje njihovih otrok je pomembno povezana z otrokovim šolskim uspehom in izobrazbenimi aspiracijami (Cugmas, 2010, str. 318). Dejavnost staršev, ki tako ali drugače želijo oblikovati in pospeševati otrokov optimalni razvoj, definiramo kot njihovo močno vpletenost (angl. *involvement*) (Maccoby in Martin, v Grolnick in Slowiaczek, 1994, Cugmas, 2010, str. 319). Določen del staršev se zelo trudi z usmerjanjem lastnega otroka na poti do izobraževalne vsebine. Vpletenost staršev se iz leta v leto močno povečuje. Tu je treba razlikovati vpletenost staršev v okviru izobraževalnega ciklusa, kjer želijo s svojimi ukrepi otroku vcepiti zavest o pomembnosti in nujnosti izobraževanja. Pripravljeni so na vsakršno pomoč svojemu otroku, seznanjeni so z vsemi novostmi, izboljšavami, alternativami, skratka, vse za odličnost in kompetentnost cilja, za katerega verjamejo, da ga je moč doseči le z njihovim udejstvovanjem znotraj izobraževalnega ciklusa. To ni nujno slabo. Ravno nasprotno. Njihova dejanja zmorejo istočasno kreativno vzpodbujati že obstoječi šolski sistem, da je vedno na preži za uporabo proaktivnih vedenjskih vzorcev in metod.

Šolanje na domu je v nekem smislu zelo podobno. Največkrat ga izberejo starši; tudi zaradi njihovega nezadovoljstva zaradi učnih vsebin, načinov poučevanja, verskega prepričanja itd. Vsi so tako ali drugače vpleteni v izobraževalni sistem. Starši, ki so zelo izobraženi, so velikokrat glasnejši pri "ocenjevanju" smotrnosti in ustreznosti učnih načrtov ter navad in spretnosti, ki jih otrok pridobi v šoli. Dejstvo je, da se ob vseh teh dejavnostih staršev izoblikuje v otroku močan občutek pomembnosti; tako individualni občutek obstoja kot povezava s tem, da je vse, kar počne, v močnem interesu okolice in da je sam v središču zanimanja. Izoblikujeta se dva vidika. Prvi je vidik starševske ambicioznosti, kjer se z zanimanjem staršev za otrokovo izobraževalno okolje zgradi močan temelj predvsem staršem ustrezne učne poti. V pravilnem sozvočju z izobraževalno ustanovo se lahko vzpostavi konkretno in zelo učinkovito delovanje. Drugi vidik je oblikovan na strani dijaka, otroka. Zaradi močne osebne volje in zanimanja (ki je zmnožek številnih faktorjev iz okolja – a o tem nekaj več v nadaljevanju!) je otrok lahko izredno motiviran za novo znanje in spretnosti, s čimer pa lahko starše motivira, da mu omogočijo dodatne aktivnosti.

Šolanje na domu vsebuje močne aspiracije v zvezi z dosežki pri izobraževanju, in to pri obeh akterjih, starših in učencih. Te aspiracije so najmočneje povezane z učno uspešnostjo, z vrednotami staršev, s pričakovanji glede otrokovih ocen, z ustreznostjo izobraževalnih ciljev in učnih strategij ter s pričakovanimi učinki izobrazbe.

Spoznavna vpletenost se kaže ne toliko v številnih aktivnostih, pač pa v vzporednih izobraževalnih poteh s poglobljeno vsebino. Starši ali vzgojitelji z večjo vpletenostjo v šolsko delo lažje spremljajo otrokov napredek in predvsem njegov izobraževalni ritem, ki je vse prej kot zanemarljiv. Izoblikuje se pomoč, odprtost za sodelovanje in pozitiven odnos do izobraževanja. Otrok spozna, da je izobraževanje vrednota, pomembna ves čas njegovega življenja, in razume nujnost nadgrajevanja znanja s ciljem njegove učinkovite manifestacije na kasnejših poteh poslovnega življenja. Istočasno lahko govorimo o višjih pričakovanjih staršev in otrok v zvezi z otrokovimi učnimi dosežki in učiteljem, kar pa končno vzpostavlja recipročno zaupanje v temeljno strukturo izobraževalnega procesa.

4 Razlogi za šolanje na domu

Kot vsaka "drugačna" in nevsakdanja stvar v našem okolju ima tudi šolanje na domu različne razloge za svojo manifestacijo.

V svetu največkrat razlogi za to izhajajo iz prepričanja staršev o neustreznem učnem programu in njegovemu izvajanju. V splošni javnosti so predstavljena le enostranska mnenja, brez globljega objektivnega preverjanja. Strokovna javnost ima svoje mnenje, ki je največkrat povezano s kolektivno pripadnostjo izbranemu poklicu, s tem pa tudi instituciji, kjer šolski delavec opravlja svoje poslanstvo.

Tako kot v svetu je tudi v Sloveniji. Učenje in izobraževanje na domu je pri nas popolnoma zakonito dejanje. Starši, ki se za takšen način izobraževanja odločijo, že na začetku poskrbijo, da za njihove otroke velja oblikovno enaka kulturna univerzalija kot za otroke, ki vsako jutro prestopijo prag šolske ustanove. Izobraževanje oziroma prejemanje ustreznega znanja, ki je primerno za določeno otrokovo starost in njegovo umsko dojemanje, je pri šolanju na domu izvajano na popolnoma enak način kot v šolski ustanovi. Red in disciplina, spoštovanje in avtoriteta, poslušanje in komuniciranje, vrednotenje in preverjanje. To je le nekaj elementov dela v šolski instituciji in tudi pri šolanju na domu. Nabor ustreznega znanja, izbor vsebine, vzporedni didaktični prijemi in interdisciplinarno povezovanje z drugimi izobraževalnimi predmeti na ustrezni starostni stopnji se prav nič ne razlikujejo od poučevanja znotraj institucije. Aktivnosti, ki predstavljajo neformalno izobraževanje (ogledi razstav, kulturnih prireditev ipd.), se popolnoma enako vrednotijo in so privzeti tudi pri šolanju na domu.

V preteklosti se je šolanje na domu največkrat izvajalo za bolne otroke ali ob daljši fizični odsotnosti iz šolskih klopi, ko je bilo treba zamujeno snov predelati v domačem okolju. Tudi v zgoraj omenjenih primerih je šlo za dodano vrednost pri izobraževanju. Ne glede na okolje in izvajalce se je izkazalo, da je tak način pridobivanja znanja možen, učinkovit in lahko tudi zelo kreativen, saj so bili rezultati v večini primerov zelo dobri.

Učinkovita spoznavna vpletenost pri šolanju na domu

Šolanje na domu izoblikuje močno in učinkovito spoznavno vpletenost izvajalca, ki se ne kaže toliko v številnih aktivnostih, pač pa v vzporednih izobraževalnih poteh s poglobljeno vsebino. Starši, vzgojitelji, tutorji z večjo vpletenostjo lažje spremljajo otrokov napredek in mu pomagajo, če je potrebno. Istočasno se izoblikuje odprt, nesebičen in pozitiven odnos do izobraževanja. Otroku se lahko pokaže, da je cenjen in nagrajen, da bi se lahko kasneje njegovo znanje in sposobnosti učinkovito manifestirale za korist družbe, v kateri sobiva.

Dandanes šolanje na domu razumemo kot drugačno posredovanje izobraževalne vsebine z istim ciljem (osvojiti znanje), ki ustreza učečemu se posamezniku.

Seveda se pojavljajo vprašanja glede ustreznosti šolanja na domu, npr. če otrok res lahko pridobi dobro izobrazbo, ali je *srečen*, ko se poučuje na ta način, ali se ta način pridobivanja znanja na nižji stopnji *pozitivno obrestuje* pri nadaljnjem izobraževanju ipd.

Najbolj pomembna pa je zagotovo motivacija in zanos staršev, ki so se odločili otroka izobraževati na domu. Zakaj so se sploh pripravljeni izobraževalno vplesti v tako pomemben proces otrokovega zorenja? Kaj je njihova glavna motivacija za alternativno obliko poučevanja?

Posamezniki, ki izobražujejo svoje otroke na domu, takega načina dela ne označujejo niti ga ne razumejo kot odvzem otrokove pravice do izobraževanja v šolski ustanovi. Ravno nasprotno. Šolanje na domu jim pomeni predvsem umik v smer, v katero močno verjamejo, da lahko prinese večjo moč in kompetentnost otroka za uspešno in kasnejše ustrezno delovanje v družbi. Menimo, da razumejo svojo dejavnost kot sklop proaktivnega usmerjanja k višjim ciljem: moralnim, družbenim, socialnim in akademskim.

Šolanje na domu in socializacija

Zaskrbljenost glede ustrezne socializacije zaradi šolanja na domu se največkrat pojavlja kot glavni razlog nesprejetja takšnega načina dela pri nas. Tak je najpogostejši odziv javnosti. Mnogi to označujejo kot potencialno škodljivo, ker je otrok več kot 30 šolskih ur na teden izključen iz vsakodnevne socialne interakcije, ki jo večina razume kot edino koristno znotraj šolske institucije. Seveda je treba presoditi, koliko je dejansko prisotna "ustrezna" socializacija v vsakodnevni otrokovi interakciji med šolskimi stenami, kjer se vse večkrat opaža minimalen nadzor odraslih. Velikokrat smo priče konfliktnim situacijam v razredu, prenašanju neustreznih socialnih norm in vrednot, ki jih otroci avtomatsko asimilirajo.

Poznamo situacije, kjer različni zgledi le niso najboljši. Socialno vedenje in socialna pravila so velikokrat glavni pokazatelji nefunkcionalne socializacije v razredu. Poznamo tudi številne primere kronične osamljenosti in zapostavljenosti posameznikov v gneči razreda.

Ravno tako ni primerno izpostavljati kritike o prekomerni zaščitenosti otroka in da je edino pravilno oblikovanje otrokove osebnosti, če je vključen v šolsko okolje. Fizično in psihično nadlegovanje, neupoštevanje individualnih razlik, čustvene zlorabe zaradi drugačnosti, močne potrošniške vrednote, nujnost izpostavitve gmotnega statusa, prehitro spolno dozorevanje ipd. prej negativno vplivajo na naše otroke znotraj šolskega okolja, kjer ostajajo pogosto brez ustreznega nadzora in ukrepanja.

5 Zaključek

V Sloveniji je šolanje na domu še vedno večinoma nesprejeta oblika izobraževanja. Premalo primerov se pojavi v javnosti, se o njih piše, predstavlja in širi znotraj lokalnih skupnosti, da bi ostale v spominu ali vsaj kot primeri dobrih izkušenj. Šola uči za življenje, ne glede na kakšen način (ali z izobraževanjem na domu ali v šolski instituciji) je posameznik pridobival svoje znanje. Glede na raziskave lahko govorimo prej o negativnem kot o pozitivnem doprinosu v našem šolskem okolju.

Odlično učenje, kot osnovni temelj vsake izobrazbe, zahteva *dobre učne tehnike*.

Osnovno mnenje o učenju je ostalo nespremenjeno, odkar je šola postala osnovni in zelo pomemben hram znanja. O dobrem učenju lahko rečemo le, da mora biti jasno, direktno in dosledno. Pomembno je tudi načrtovanje izvajanja izobraževanja. Pri otroku/ dijaku je pomembno sosledje dejavnosti znotraj izobraževalnega procesa. Ustrezna in učinkovita predmetna in vsebinska "časovna razpredelnica" je še na mnogih področjih problematična, saj ni jasno, kaj in koliko snovi ustreza učenčevi zmogljivosti. Velikokrat slišimo, da je vsebina neustrezna razvojni stopnji otrokovega dojemanja.

Nobene potrebe ni, da se otrok uči branja in pisanja po dolgem postopku v dveh do treh letih, kot predpisuje učni načrt. To ne pomeni, da ne odobravamo natančnejšega osvajanja omenjene spretnosti. Ravno nasprotno. Gledano z ustreznega ekonomskega vidika, je pomembneje izbrati učinkovitejši pristop, ki naj bo predvsem privlačnejši in zanimivejši za glavnega akterja, torej učenca. Če je prisotna želja po osvajanju znanja, poleg tega pa še raziskovalna želja, potem je v pravem trenutku dobil pravo "uporabno informacijo", ki je zlepa ne bo mogel zanemariti na nadaljnjih poteh izobraževanja.

Nezadovoljstvo in pritoževanje zaradi neustreznih učnih načrtov v Sloveniji nista novost. Starejši učenci ter kasneje dijaki in študentje so največkrat priče površnemu podajanju znanja tudi kasneje, na fakultetah. Začaran krog te površnosti , da v Sloveniji velja nenapisano pravilo "ni važna kakovost, važna je količina podatkov", se vcepi v marsikatero družinsko okolje.

V slovenskem izobraževalnem prostoru bo v prihodnosti bolj prisotno zasebno šolanje. Znanje je še vedno v družbi premalo vrednoteno. Tudi s finančnega vidika. V svetu je ideja o zasebni šoli bliskovito hitro prepričala starše, da ji je vredno slediti. Iz kakovostnejših vsebin, načrtov, lažjega nadzora otrok, ustreznega kurikula in predvsem sledljivosti se je uspel oblikovati okvir želenega principa, ki se je prej med starši pojavil kot zahteva po nujni spremembi v javnih šolah. Tudi vlade so razumele nujnost sprememb in so ustrezno uredile dostopnejše vstope družinam, ki jim finančna situacija ne omogoča lahkega prehoda v zasebne šole. Javne šole so naenkrat postale izbira. Nekatere so se "izgubile" in so ostale nespremenjene, neučinkovite in "slabe". Ostale so s svojim javnim predznakom skušale spremeniti svojo pot v kakovostnejšo, kar je marsikaterim tudi uspelo.

Slovenija je država, kjer so šolski sistemi in izobraževalne poti zelo kakovostne. Predvsem moramo znotraj tega omeniti delo učiteljev in izobraževalnih institucij ter njihovega vodstva (ravnateljev), da si želijo sprememb, novitet in s tem dodane vrednosti za svoje učence. Razumeti moramo, da šole niso institucije za varovanje otrok. Niti niso šole odgovorne za vzgajanje otrok. Šole, ki si prizadevajo stopati inovativno v svet prihodnosti, so fleksibilnejše, bližje potrebam staršev, ki želijo za lastne otroke najboljše izobraževalne prijeme. Šole se morajo zavedati, da že dolgo niso več same sebi namen. So kot "podjetja", ki bodo preživela na "trgu" le, če bodo izvajala novosti, stremela k inovativnemu poučevanju in sledila spremembam na "trgu". Skušala se bodo prilagoditi "uporabnikom", zahtevam časa, v katerem delujejo, in istočasno ne bodo izgubila vizije za prihodnost.

Šolanje na domu zmore v ospredje postaviti zanimivo dejstvo. Otrok v domačem okolju prejme močan in bogat intelektualni kapital in ne glede na njegovo nadaljnjo izobraževalno pot zmore preživeti. Vseeno je važno omeniti tudi člen, ki postavlja na

prioritetno mesto disciplino izvajalcev izobraževalnega procesa na domu in tudi sposobnost dobrega treninga za učinkovito posredovanje znanja. Enako velja za učitelje, ki svoje poslanstvo opravljajo znotraj izobraževalne institucije. Njihovo delo je lahko enako sveže in neposredno. S svojim delom zmorejo dodati svežino že obstoječim učnim načrtom.

Alja Perger, MA

Homeschooling in Slovenia

With this article, Homeschooling in Slovenia: is our educational environment open-minded enough accepting the alternative educational approach? A new stage is discovered, mostly being more recognizable of understanding the importance of nowadays educational approach and discussion. It might be an early stage of still developing as a new, alternative educational model mainly for the elementary students. Above all, this article tries to cover the following levels. First, parents involvement and their participation into the educational process. Second, what affects the school system has as being marked as the important cultural universality in a specific society, an all the way to the third level, where we discuss about the individual participation in all this process.

The article puts up front some important discussions in a way of the social responsibility inside educational frames. It starts with comparison of its effect in mainstream schools and its disappointment results of majority. It continuous with educational aspect of changing the environment that can provide a new, different, maybe either some mayor acceptance of a real understanding of social responsibility long after the main school process inside institution is done. It shows the path from focusing on the significant role of education in empowering people to achieve sustainable development.

Educators have attempted to implement a number of sustainable development initiatives. To inspire people with active participation to create a world where everyone has the opportunity to benefit from quality education and learn the values, behaviour and lifestyles required for a sustainable future and for positive social transformation. It covers the full range of human activities in order to equip learners with the relevant knowledge, skills and values for sustainable development. At the same time, education being explained through the alternative concept of homeschooling is transformed to allow understanding or even better accepting the process of learning taking place beyond traditional educational institutions.

Homeschooling, as the alternative educational process towards regular and known educational processes being held in the static educational institutions, is very well known and implemented state of choice in the world. As such it holds a variety of approvals as well as disapprovals, from the as we may say, as desired knowledge, which it can be given through it or at the opposite, what (if some) negative circumstances can be created, especially when defined in more details.

Could we create some negative competence developments in individual educational growth comparing to some uniformed knowledge getting from nowadays schools where

more often the remarks explain a high level of dissatisfied competences, knowledge and pupils skills mostly connected later with continuing education further.

As such, its concept of creating a different and innovative educational concept, a process of homeschooling more or less still represents an interesting frame of educational process. It represents mostly the proactive sense and concept of understanding. Homeschooling being manifested at the elementary level in Slovenia is still judged mainly as using the inappropriate tools for education growth. Still there is not enough examples nor education to be shown the opposite. Understanding it properly it could be a very useful and creative "mind-creative" tool for many individuals and groups who simply want to build strong, creative and usable competences as symbiosis with every day needs and world fast pace developments.

In a variety sociological respects, we can mark a number of additional reasons parents look for children's better way to be educated. They want their children to achieve more academically than they would in school. Applied to this, parents wish to individualized curriculum and learning environment that meets their child's special needs and talent.

Third, they hope to foster relationships of the family among siblings and parents. Fourth, they want to come up with guided and reasoned social interactions with peers and adults rather than having the school to determine. Finally, there is a strong reason such is the safety of their children. Above all, as the new economy is rising and with it some very intensifying labour market competitions, parents mostly pursue homeschooling by choosing an expert superior skill needed in educational and occupational contests. In view of the fact that public school is no longer the ideal place for learning, different parents mostly search any kind of improvement. According to Romanowski (2006), families choose to home school their children because they intent to build up their relationships with their children. These parents have experienced personally or have witnessed children suffering both emotionally and academically because of the schools' limitation, and recognized "that the schools are often reluctant or unable to serve children with unique learning styles or academic needs". This initiates them to consider "breaking the traditional formal model of teaching will enhanced understanding and learning in their children".

In all likelihood, the most vastly held misconception of homeschooling is the myth of socialization what we are also discussing in the article. Hugely it is indicated that the socialization experiences homeschooled children gain are more than adequate. In fact, indicators like quality of friendships along childhood, rarity of behaviour problems during adolescence, acceptance to new experiences in college, civic involvement in adulthood conveyed that the socialization experiences homeschooled children receive may be more advantageous compared to children who attend conventional schools. For that reason, homeschooled parents are mindful of the issue of socialization and strongly devoted to positive socialization chances for their children. For instance, homeschooled children are involved in various activities outside the home range from scouting, dance classes, group sports and volunteer work with peers, children of varying age, and adults. Hence, they are not isolated from the outside world. It has to be understood how schools are not the only place children learn basic life skills and because homeschooled students are not peer-grouped in school, they learn to interact and deal with variety of people, making them socially mature and able to adjust to new situations.

Every school today has a strong mission. It should not be ignored the power of created vision, manifestations which are all streamed into one and important final goal. To teach, to provide important educational tools, which will help to live the life we want to achieve. The school environments are becoming more flexible, more open and acceptable for fast coming life diversity. It allows differences. It allows different streams. In addition, it creates a need to provide more. Educators everywhere are eager to lead their knowledge tightly together with the concept of "having the innovative approach and innovative learning environment". New methods and researches show how more than ever both individuals, educator and the pupil have changed in a way of what they are accepting and expecting. Each of them has the important role being the "individual". There is no successful plan missing any of them. Nevertheless, the educator provides the main understanding how his occupation is valued. For how far and deep he is ready to play a role of the educator and creates this value, which is and it has to be the 'added value" to his pupil. It is important to recognize as well the significant part as being a teacher. With what purpose the job is being done, for how far the teacher is willing to push his limits, what strings he is capable to pull. But the most important issue should be if a teacher is ready to understand his role as being "just somebody" who is ready to be unbeaten by somebody else (better) knowledge and how he knows he has to carry his mission through many generations modestly accepting the possible cultural and social changes within.

Slovenia is marked as a pioneer creating a homeschooled environment. Which is regarding the population and the lack of similar research in the mentioned way also understandable. Through process of useable information and data about our written subject showed mainly negative opinion focusing to the importance of homeschooled environment in our country. A doubt is revealed how competent and useful this alternative environment could be. Not evaluated with scientific purpose, but still makeable, the process of homeschooling provides the false understanding of creating the "long term homework tasks at home". As mentioned before, we cannot build our innovative school sustainable methods following different thought and similar as mentioned above. Nowadays, a school environment has to be open for a cultural diversity and social as well. Not only as one of the important competence inside the school curriculum but also as the crucial manifestation inside the educational formation of each individual.

Homeschooling, as a reliable educational process, needs to be understood properly starting with the parent, educator and its head institution. Inside the article, we do not implement government regulations concerning this subject. Our clear intention is to show a reliable and opportunistic new educational curve. Homeschooling as being the alternative educational model these days can build additional added value in our schools. It can offer innovative techniques, flexible options and can give additional skills, which are more than welcome in nowadays elementary educational crucial years.

Homeschooling can be evaluated openly and very positively as having a chance creating a very flexible educational environment with many benefits. However, one thing is for sure, it will create a dramatic movement inside the education field; one of the promising soon to be effects of it could be its influence in forming and changing the public education in the future.

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