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RECONCILING THE OTHER: TRAVELLING OBJECTS AND COLLABORATIVE TEACHING

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Keywords:

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learning, Other

Abstract/Izveček A collaborative art education project involving Japan and the Czech Republic focused on the enculturation processes experienced by two teachers and their students, how immersion in visual arts can contribute to cultural understanding and the reconciliation of two pedagogical approaches to art. This project also addressed this reconciliation with the unknowable 'Other' through the creation of artwork, 'travelling objects' and collaborative teaching. Outcomes include similarities between objects from the two countries and two pedagogical approaches and suggest that participants strived to reconcile the Other, thus creating a spatial and relational intermediate space by dealing with those objects and communicating together.

Ključne besede:

kulturna inkluzija,
kulturna identiteta,
umetnostna vzgoja,
sodelovalno učenje,
Drugo

Uskladiti se z Drugim: potovalni predmeti in sodelovalno učenje

Projekt, ki temelji na sodelovalnem učenju, je bil izveden na Japonskem in na Češkem in se osredotoča na procese inkulturacije, ki so jih izkusili učitelji in učenci, ki so v projektu sodelovali. Poudarek je na načinih, kako lahko umerzija v vizualno umetnost prispeva k razumevanju kulture, in na integraciji oz. uskladitvi dveh pristopov k poučevanju umetnosti. Projekt spodbuja uskladitev z neznanim Drugim skozi ustvarjanje umetniških del, 'potovalnih predmetov' in prek sodelovalnega učenja. Zaključimo lahko, da so se udeleženci med dejavnostmi poskušali uskladiti z Drugim in na ta način ustvarili medprostor, ki jim je omogočil iskanje podobnosti med izdelki in sporazumevanje.

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Introduction

Emmanuel Levinas's concept of *l'Autrui* or the Other highlights the heterogeneity polarity of an 'I' and an 'Other' (Levinas, 1961). He suggests something that is 'infinitely unknowable' (Todd, 2002, p.69). The notion of the 'Other' has significance for art education (Sato, 2018) because art education initiatives have focused on inclusivity and diversity, the recognition of cultural differences, making meaningful connections between humans and the world and mediating discrete cultures (Ono, 2018, p. 45). Multiculturalism emphasises the benefits of cultural diversity (Dwivedi, 2001; Guo and Jamal, 2007) for societies and has dominated postmodern political and educational discourses until recently. Politically, multiculturalism was abandoned as a failing concept leading to parallel societies in European politics. However, intercultural and cross-cultural projects continue to resonate in art education and are aimed at cultural dialogue (Levy, 2007).

Culture is defined as a system of meanings (Hatch and Schultz, 1997; Hong, Morris, Chiu and Benet-Martínez, 2000), such as language, technology, social relations, values and attitudes, shared by members of a group through learning. Cultural identity determines how people regard themselves and how they relate to the world. Understanding others is also indispensable when trying to understand oneself (Giddens, 1993). The present project, which attempts to connect two distinct cultures, must appropriately address and handle the cultural identities of both learners and instructors, along with beliefs as a potential mode of interaction with the Other.

According to Levinas, the subject 'I' appears when a body is positioned in a particular place or resting within it (Levinas, 1947). As individuals shift from their original location/place, they often encounter the Other. Such movements provide opportunities to experience Otherness and become mindful of otherwise unconscious everyday realities. The present study attended to the physical sense of place and space of the classroom and Iezaki, a teaching artist.

Two cultural pedagogical spaces

This project by elementary school students and art teachers from two distinct cultures, one central European and the other east Asian, necessitated communication and collaborative work.

Both cultural pedagogical spaces evince discrete and characteristic ways of teaching, learning and knowing, stemming from distinct educational, spiritual and philosophical traditions. The Czech elementary art curriculum encompasses music and visual art in the domain of art and culture. It accentuates the perception and expression of pupils' own experiences through various visual media and communication in the broad term of interpretation and meaning-making. In the Japanese context, Art and Handicraft is a formal subject in the elementary school curriculum. Learner activities are designed as artistic expression and the interpretation of artistic works. The Japanese curriculum highlights the development of creativity in children to enrich the lives of learners. Thus, the participants in the project brought their cultural patterns to the creation of art.

The teaching artist: a transformative experience

Along with her quest to create art, Iezaki, who is a Japanese artist/teacher, attended weekly art classes conducted by Novotná in a Czech elementary school. As an art teacher, she was interested in Czech art education practices. Iezaki entered the local school as a researcher/observer; however, she gradually joined Novotná as a partner and teaching collaborator over eight months. After her first visit to the Czech Republic, Iezaki began travelling frequently between the two countries, her suitcase full of objects created by children and intended to expand her artistic inquiry and learning in the real-life context (Blanuša Trošelj, Peić Papak and Zuljan, 2021) into art education projects.

Pierre Bourdieu's conception of cultural habitus (Bourdieu, 2010) is significant in this context. This generative principle distinguishes practical activities and principles of classification, seeing and differentiation. Raney (1999) lists cultural habitus as one aspect of visual literacy. Iezaki's objects should also be interpreted from the standpoint of cultural inclusion. The objects look like nests and render her place or the appearance of her position in relation to her existential signification of two cultures. One of these sculptures seems to symbolise her feelings of isolation during her first stay in the Czech Republic. The object represents a sense of intimidation or distrust. This sculpture is a nest of thousands of sharp, translucent paper parts assembled to form a fragile structure (Figure 1). The second installation was created in Japan, and the loss of spines and the decreased sense of vigilance in the rounded, windowed objects symbolises a very different relationship (Figure 2).



Figure 1: Sculpture Made of Paper ©Iezaki. M Figure 2: Sculptures in Wood and Iron
© Iezaki. M

Collaborative teaching: encountering the Other

Collaborative teaching is an example of interfacing with the Other in a pedagogical context. Sometimes called cooperative teaching or team teaching, collaborative teaching requires educators working in tandem to lead, instruct and mentor groups of students. Letterman and Dugan (2004) posit the benefits of collaborative teaching that involves participants from discrete cultural backgrounds as facilitation of diversity. Conversely, because of this diversity, team teaching can reveal difficulties such as disputes between members. Nonetheless, the experience of resolving such challenges can make collaborative teaching and learning experiences even more valuable (Eisen, 2000). In a bilateral collaboration between the Czech Republic and Japan, Fulková, Tipton and Ishikawa (2009) explored intermediate spaces through art and gallery education, and incorporating the art process in co-education could contribute to those conflict resolutions. Hakkarainen and Paavola (2007) emphasise the nonlinearity and irregularity of collaborative learning. The willingness and ability to negotiate a compromise through communication are pivotal concepts in collaborative learning. Most importantly, the building of a collaborative team gives students additional opportunities to connect with the curricular content.

The research

Aim and research questions

The study describes and analyses the process applied to an art education project and the results of the endeavour. It is linked to an intercultural art project that emphasises encountering Others and the effect of location/place embodied in such experiences. The project focused on cultural education and artistic creation and was conducted in the Czech Republic between November 2019 and January 2020. The study is intended to answer these research questions:

1. How can a common educational art project reconcile two culturally different pedagogical approaches?
2. How can intercultural discovery contribute to the acceptance of different perspectives?

The research delves into an enquiry about the psychological and physical transformation of an 'I' in response to the Other. The travelling objects as the alternative of 'I' made by Czech and Japanese pupils and art teachers' and their students' voices or actions related to artistic learning constitute the fundamental research data.

Methods

The present study used mixed and arts-based qualitative research methods. The authors subscribe to action research, where practices and reflections are cyclically repeated for the attainment of superior knowledge. The a/r/tographical approach related to arts-based research (Barone and Eisner, 2012) was partially employed, since artistic elements of art work by the Japanese art teacher guided the intercultural art education project. A/r/tography as a research methodology transforms the traditional separation of theory and practice and encourages the opening of interstitial spaces because of its rhizomatic nature. A/r/tographers flow in dynamic momentum between discrete roles to 'inform, enhance, evoke and/or provoke one another' (Irwin and Springgay, 2008, p. 25). The authors applied a/r/tographic enquiry to the development of art lessons, opening unknown and unlabelled interstitial spaces that introduce new awareness.

Every lesson was video recorded, and the teacher's discussions were also audiotaped. In aggregate, the researchers obtained seven video recordings and five audio recordings, which represented 21 hours of recordings.

Afterward, transcripts of the conversations and teachers' written reflections were acquired for analysis, and a qualitative coding procedure was applied (Sato, 2008). Other pedagogical documentation in the form of shared online portfolios (Novotná, 2019) containing visual data were also acquired, and the visual data were analysed complementary to the text. The approach is called triangulation, and it collects and analyses multiple types of data (Sato, 2008).

The themes that appear in the following discussion section were formulated to answer the research questions through a hermeneutic analysis of the picked-up voices and practices of participants, while examining them across all parts of the multiple data of codes, primary transcriptions and visual records. The findings were subsequently verified in several discussions, using records from specific learning situations.

Participants

The collaborating teachers functioned in distinct roles. The Japanese art teacher Iezaki participated in all classroom instruction undertaken in both countries, while the Czech art teacher Novotná engaged in the Czech classroom instruction. In Japanese elementary school, a Japanese teacher, Mihoko Miyazaki, is engaged as an instructor for Japanese classes. The art educators designed these collaborative lessons together, and Iezaki and Novotná developed those lessons in the Czech school based on the Czech elementary art education curriculum and the experimental issues of interaction with the Other by exploring meaningful places or spaces between two cultural spheres triggered by the artistic work of the Japanese teaching artist. Both art teachers communicated in English, and the Czech teacher translated the Japanese teacher's English into Czech for students. Iezaki also played the role of a cultural mediator, travelling between the two countries with lesson plans, art objects created by students, and information. Both teachers took on the multi-layered roles of researchers and teachers during the project.

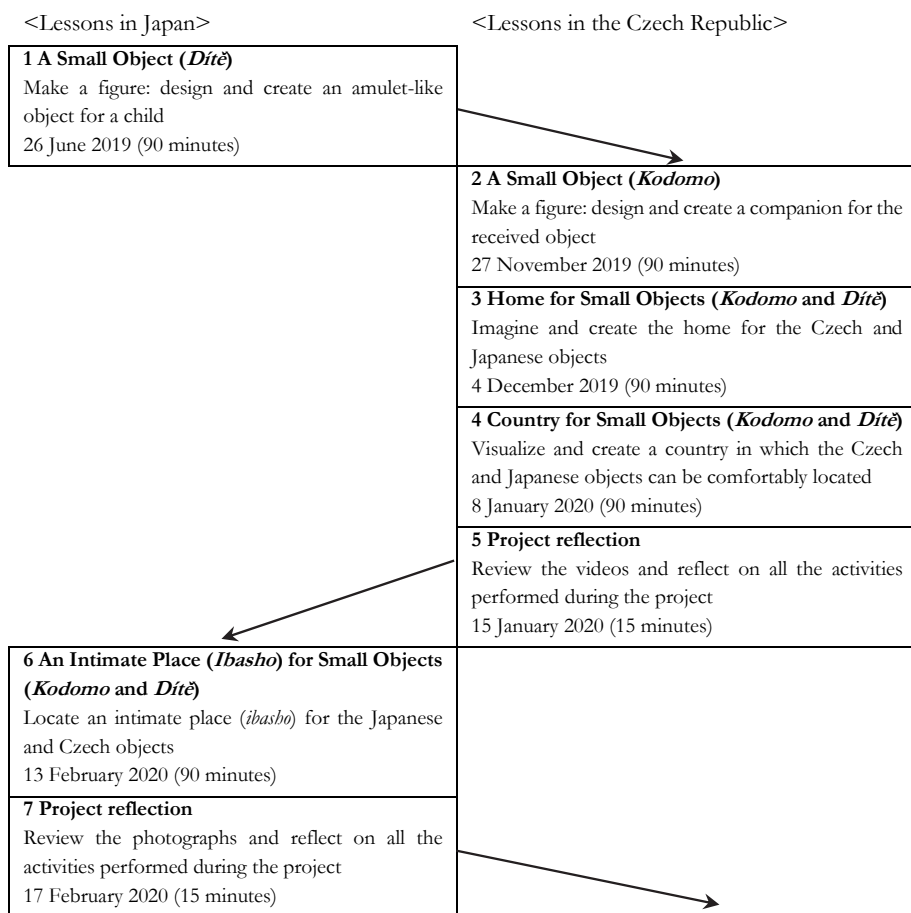
The participants in this case study comprised 20–25 pupils of a Czech Republic public elementary school in Prague and 25 corresponding students from a public elementary school in Niigata, Japan. All the participating students in both countries were aged between eight and ten. This age range is wider because of the long project duration of seven art lessons lasting 37 weeks. Also, the number of pupils changed several times during the project for contingent reasons, such as the transfer or migration of families, and so on.

Results

A series of lessons was implemented at the two elementary schools in Japan and the Czech Republic. The complex structure (Table 1) of the project was initiated in the Japanese school in June 2019. After experiencing the unpleasantness of being surrounded by Others through role-playing, the Japanese pupils created small objects called *Dítě* (Czech for ‘child’) and wrote accompanying letters to the Czech pupils (Step 1). These objects are related to amulets, as Read (1956) indicates, and physical sensations and an individual’s wishes permeate them. To create amulet-like objects was an approach that proposed generating an intimate interaction and a meaningful space between Czech and Japanese students through objects pervaded with their experience of ‘I’. These objects and letters then travelled from Japan to the Czech Republic. Next, the Czech pupils watched a short video documenting the art activities undertaken previously in Japan. Through this method, they could grasp the project’s logic and the unfamiliar context of the Japanese school. In their first lesson, the Czech pupils received the Japanese objects and letters. They then created their tactile answers (Step 2) to the received objects and letters. In the subsequent lesson, they wrote letters to the Japanese pupils to introduce their *Kodomo* (Japanese for ‘child’), the objects they had created, and to explain the relationships they had discovered between the two created objects. In the third step, the students created homes for both figures (Step 3). The fourth stage (Step 4) required Czech pupils to collaboratively create the scenography of an imagined country in which the houses would be located. The Czech students called this country the *Kodomo Republic*. Then, the students executed a collective performance that combined space and sound and was documented via video. The final lesson required the students to view and comment on the edited video of the performance realised in the previous class. The students exchanged their views on the entire project and agreed to send their compiled work to their counterparts in the partner school in Japan (Step 5). A month later, the Japanese pupils received the set of artefacts dispatched by the Czech pupils. The Japanese pupils were asked to find appropriate *ibasbo* (place; see Section *Ibasbo*) for the objects within their school and to photograph the objects in those places. The students then examined all the *ibasbo* photographs on the screen. Finally, they viewed the video of the Czech performance about the *Kodomo Republic* and reflected on the project as a whole (Step 6). In the following week, the students selected the best pictures from the *ibasbo* collection and consented to the return of the Czech objects along with the reflections by the Japanese students.

The Czech objects were returned in Autumn 2020 in the Japanese cultural form of a box wrapped in a cloth called *furoshiki*, and the series of lessons was over. Analysis of the documents confirmed two varying approaches to art education. One of the perspectives was embodied by the Japanese teaching artist, who emphasised spontaneity in creation along with tactile sensitivity in acting on one's environment to affect the inclusion of the 'I' and the Other. The Czech teacher accentuated the communication and participation of pupils in the classroom with a more conceptual, rational and reflective approach.

Table 1: The project scheme shows the component art tasks. The lesson steps are numbered in chronological order.



The physical aspect of handling shared objects was accentuated by the handing over of the created objects to counterparts or the Other. In the ritual action, pupils embedded small pieces of paper with secret words symbolising the essence of life into the created figures, thus positioning the alter-egos of the students. This ritual action was inspired by the soul objects enclosed in a Japanese Buddha statue, Dainichi Nyorai Zazō, in Tokyo National Museum. An x-ray survey revealed that an object representing the soul had been placed inside the sculpture by the creator. The core of life is invisible, but it exists and relates to secret actions. The Japanese teacher reflected upon the Czech teacher's reaction to her approach:

... According to her [Czech teacher], my interpretation is holistic. Or intuitive, but not intuitive... She said I needed to give it a name. What came to my mind at that time was tactile... Hand interpretation. Do not set the logic first. I am groping (Written reflection, 16 January 2020).

However, the conversation transcript showed that some students were confused about these secret actions: 'Mrs. Teacher, what do I write?' (Transcript 27. 11. 2019, III -1, 3, 6). The terms 'soul' and '*Kodomo*' were unclear for the students and thus symbolised secrets; they were intentionally treated with obscurity. The incomprehensibility confused the participating students and at the same time motivated them to guess what the objects meant for the Other. One pupil observed the received object attentively and discovered something embedded within it: 'Mrs. Teacher, you can see inside and there is something red' (Transcript 27. 11. 2019, III -1, 3, 30-34).

The Czech pupils touched the received objects and composed the fragments of the unknown culture into a tactile answer: They looked for similarities and compatibilities between their cultural constructs and the Japanese figures (online portfolio 4–11 December 2019). Similarities were noted in shape, colour, adornment and image (ex. Figure 3). One student formulated the relationship between the two figures in the following manner:

... What I did is called Bear spirit. It is made of blue, green and white colours. And that is their [Japanese Dítě's] son (Czech letter 6).

The participating pupils from both countries loved touching and playing with the small clay figurines. One student attributed the following emotions to a figure: [when turned down], he is sad, when I put him up, he is happy. He changes his mood (Transcript 27. 11. 2020, I, 5-4)

The records provide evidence that pupils were engaged in playing with the objects as toys (Transcript 4. 12. 2019, I -3, 7, 8), holding them in their hands, moving them and uttering sounds or words as if the students embodied the objects (Author-1, 2020). Vujičić, Peić and Petrić (2020) point out the importance of movement for children's learning. Pupils showed their strong ownership of the created small intimate objects (Iezaki, 2020) (Transcript 27. 11. 2020, II, 2). The students further expressed their anxiety about their figurines travelling far away and were afraid of their potential loss.



Figure 3: *Kodomo* (centre) and *Dítě* (both sides)



Figure 4: Object Turned Up

The analysis evinced another strong approach to art education, as represented by the Czech art teacher-researcher. She adopted a method of teaching the arts discursively (Fulková 2008: 20; Kafková 2019: 81–90). This educational approach was developed at Charles University in Prague and is based on visual semiotics, visual culture studies, the knowledge and procedures of contemporary theory and the history of art. It now delves into contemporary art strategies as well as gallery and museum education. It systematically studies visual literacy, which is defined as a multi-layered competence required for visual communication and for the active creation of contemporary culture. The strategy of using the Other's vocabulary as a metaphor contributed to the uniqueness of the project. The act of interpretation redefined the activities on the basis of the voices of the students. For example, the created country where the objects from two countries resident was named the *Kodomo Republic* by one of the Czech students (Transcript 8. 1. 2020, I, 2-4). This aspect showcased the crucial role of communication in the intercultural project. The description of the Czech art teacher's voice highlighted the emphasis on communication:

Czech teacher: I accentuated [communication] ... I showed the artworks to children to teach them how to interpret, to ask what it means and why ... When we interpreted together, immediately, we communicated. Pupils must explain [what] they did understand and must say [what] they interpreted by doing (Transcript 8. 1. 2020. 4, 18-19).

In contrast, the difficulty of translating connotations encompassed by native words was also revealed (see below).

Japanese teacher: ...they [Czech children] are now more active in asking me things, even if we cannot exactly understand each other, ...but sometimes I feel as if I can understand the Czech language much better if I ask something immediately... (Transcript 8.1.2020. 3, 8.).

Discussion

Ibasho: the practice of spatial and relational inclusion

Since teachers and pupils came from different socio-cultural backgrounds, the collaboration yielded several difficulties in communication. A good understanding of the core concept of *ibasho* (Figure 5) in the art education project was essential for collaborative learning.

The key concept of *ibasho* resisted translation. The Japanese term encompasses the notions of 'being' (existence) and 'place' (location). This term is used quite commonly in Japan. Fujitani (2015) describes *ibasho* as being based on the recognition that 'I' am in place, which is an acceptance and recognition by other people in relation to them. The spatial and relational nature of *ibasho* overlaps with Levinas' 'positioning' of the 'I' and with the non-symmetrical relationship between the 'I' and the Other. The concept of *ibasho* also intersects with the concept of identity, which is constructed in relation to people inhabiting a specific place.

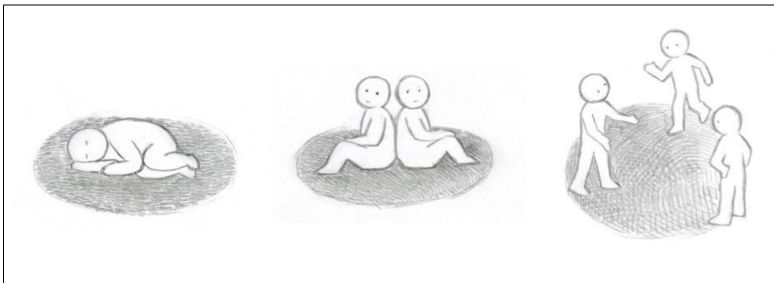


Figure 5: *Ibasho* drawings by Iezaki. M

Ibasbo was experienced during the project in the movement of the actors and objects; it was also encountered in the learning process itself and all the face-to-face interactions with the Other. The *Kodomo Republic* performance created opportunities for the emergence of *ibasbo*. One boy associated the relationship with a Japanese girl through their objects with location features:

‘At first we[I] thought it would be like a pull-like jacuzzi. When I made the dolphin [his object], I thought I got a dolphin [a Japanese girl’s object] from that girl in China [Japan]’ (Transcript 8. 1. 2020, VI, 1-5).

One of the students formulated a significant slogan for the *Kodomo Republic*. The paraphrasing of this slogan was important because he found the meaning of the whole dynamically expanding creation and shifted the common understanding of it. On the other hand, a boy claimed, ‘I want to line the boundary [for the *Kodomo Republic*] there’ (Transcript 8. 1. 2020, III, 3).

The process of creating the scenography and the ensuing discussions about how and where to install the houses and figures may be seen as living *ibasbo*, or the materialising of social interactions. Students questioned the ownership of a space and reflected on the concept of boundaries, differentiating the inside from the outside. The sounds employed by the students in their performance to characterise the *ibasbo* constituted a significant element in the confirmation of their existence. The two teachers’ efforts to communicate over the project facing their discrete pedagogical approaches might also make living *ibasbo* in the space of co-education, sharing the elements of artistic inquiry.

The answer to the first research question (how a common educational art project can reconcile two pedagogical approaches) is that the *ibasbo* generated from the efforts of participants’ communication in the creative process reconciled the two culturally distinct pedagogical approaches.

Moving between cultures

Intercultural movement comprised the focal concept of the whole project. The Czech art teacher stated that ‘the symbol of the project is your back [Iezaki’s suitcase]’ (Transcript 8. 1. 2020. 5, 18) (Figure 7). Migration was recognized as a pivotal factor in the destabilisation and reconstruction of *ibasbo*. The accent emanated from Iezaki’s personal experience of isolation and marginalisation.

Marginalisation forms a classification of acculturation strategies (Berry, 1997); it concerns the experiencing of crisis-like unsettling because of the incongruence between one's cultural orientation and the host civilisation. Marginalisation becomes a driving force towards integration, which may be defined as the establishment of an appropriate relationship between the host society and one's own culture. Inclusion is expressed as a figurative reconstruction of *ibasbo* in Iezaki's and students' artworks and the two teachers' voice descriptions:

Japanese teacher: ... [when I] first came here, I felt [that] my house was like this [pointing at the shape with thorns]. But after... becoming more collaborative together, I now feel [that] I am more rounded... (Transcript 8. 1. 2020. 1, 52).

Czech teacher: [It is] how we [teachers] work in tandem. It is the participation of teachers. It is for me very interesting... comfortable... (Transcript 8. 1. 2020. 8, 1).

The authors' answer to another research question (how intercultural discovery can contribute to the acceptance of different perspectives) is that attempting to understand the Other through verbal and nonverbal dialogue also contributed to better understanding the 'I'; then, participants could respect those different perspectives.



Figure 6: Two Teachers in the Czech Classroom



Figure 7: Iezaki's Suitcase

Conclusion

This art education project identified two distinct pedagogical methodologies. The first emphasises communication as an aspect of the artistic process and meaning-making through classroom discussion and artistic creation. The second highlights spontaneous creation through tactile sensitivity and motivates students to act on their environment and to materialise their physical and social associations, including ambiguity. A common feature of both strategies of imparting knowledge is the element of responding to the Other.

The two divergent directions were combined and reconciled by striving for the practice of spatial and relational inclusion in the bilateral project, and the participants' communicative efforts deepened their understanding of the 'I' and the Other.

The hermeneutic analysis of the multiple data obtained from the project allows three focal deductions to be made. First, the *ibasho* theme can create authentic experiences psychologically and physically, thus connecting intimate objects and spaces in interaction with the Other. Second, the tactile sense is a viable medium of sharing: it encourages the expression and interpretation of thoughts and feelings across cultures. The sharing of tactile objects in this project created an attachment between students and their artefacts and enhanced the cohesion of meaning. Third, paradoxically, it may then manifest as the awareness of an intimate inside and allows the construction of boundaries with a contrasted outside.

It is difficult to reconcile such inner/outer conflicts or two culturally different perspectives. However, participants engaged in the creation of art through intimate objects were aware of those conflicts or different perspectives, which would direct them to respect both the 'I' and the Other and make an effort at reconciliation. Continuous communication between cultures through art and culture education could play a significant role in the cultural understanding and mutual enrichment of cultures.

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EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION - AN OPPORTUNITY FOR COMPENSATORY EDUCATION

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Abstract/Izvlaček

The article describes a project about 'experiential education' at a school in Germany. The main educational objective is to offer an alternative way of teaching pupils who show destructive and aggressive behaviour. After a critical analysis of the concept of experiential education with regard to its educational relevance, the conceptual design and implementation of the project is presented. The experiences gained through participant observation and interviews can be interpreted in such a way that pupils with behavioural problems can gain a new, different access to themselves through special movement- and social-related activities, an outcome which has positive effects on social behaviour in the class and school climate in general and working behaviour in subject lessons specifically.

Keywords:

experiential education,
compensatory education,
holistic approach, ego-
effectiveness

Izkušensko izobraževanje – oblika kompenzacijskega izobraževanja

V članku je predstavljen projekt na področju izkušenskega izobraževanja na primeru šole v Nemčiji. Osnovni cilj projekta je razviti alternativno obliko poučevanja učencev, ki kažejo destruktivno in agresivno vedenje. V prispevku je najprej predstavljena kritična analiza koncepta izkušenskega izobraževanja z vidika vloge in pomena tovrstne oblike poučevanja, medtem ko je v drugem delu opisana konceptualna zasnova in izvedba projekta. Rezultati raziskave, pridobljeni z opazovanjem z udeležbo in intervjuji, kažejo, da lahko učenci z vedenjskimi težavami dostop do lastnega zaznavanja/razmišljanja pridobijo prek gibalnih in socialnih dejavnosti. S tem pa lahko pozitivno vplivajo tako na splošno socialno vedenje v razredu in razredno klimo kot na vedenje pri šolskih dejavnostih specifičnih predmetov.

Ključne besede:

izkustveno
izobraževanje,
kompenzacijsko
izobraževanje, celostni
pristop, ego-učinkovitost

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Introduction

After the first 'wave of experiences' at the beginning of the last century, experiential education embarked on an extended renaissance in educational discussion and practice. Towards the end of the last century, an 'experience orientation' invaded almost all areas of society (Schulze, 2000), so it is common to speak of a second 'wave of experiences'. In the last two decades, this second wave has increasingly focused on the potential for and significance of experiences in teaching and educational processes and is thus enriching the educational discussion (Schenz, 2006; Becker and Schirp, 2008; Zoglowek, 2009).

Oelkers (1992) posed the question, "Can experiencing educate?" at the beginning of the resurgence of 'modern experiential education' (Kölsch, 1995) and answered it himself as follows: "Experience can educate, and education can be an experience, although it is difficult to control, only weakly foreseeable and always associated with incalculable side effects" (Oelkers, p. 9, 1992, own translation). Despite the scepticism expressed here, which is shared by not a few, many published teaching projects have reported successful experience-oriented practice (e. g. Fischer, 2004; Michl, 2015; Heckmair and Michl, 2018). Thus, there is sufficient reason to believe that experience has high educational and learning potential. "Children can learn many things in and about experiences; their senses can be trained, and a variety of experiences can be gained that they would not otherwise have had in many families and their living environment. However, whether and how the initiated experiences make a contribution to the (self-)education process cannot be planned" (Höltershinken, p. 67, 2013, own translation).

The basic question of how upbringing and education can be made plannable cannot be answered by experiential education, but that experiential education can make a contribution cannot be denied either. This article is to be seen as a further contribution to presenting the possibilities of experiences in the educational and learning work in school (see a similar related approach with a different angle of incidence by Zoglowek and Kuhn, 2021).

Experiential education

"Experiential education sees itself as an alternative and supplement to traditional and established educational and learning institutions" (Fischer & Ziegenspeck, 2008, p. 27, own translation). It aims towards a holistic approach and procedure.

Cognitive, affective, social, and motor areas are to be addressed at the same time, as these are necessarily mutually dependent. From the phenomenology of experience developed by Dilthey (1919), Neubert (1932) worked out seven experience-oriented moments, from which she derived pedagogical principles for a school education oriented towards the humanities. These are, for example, the "method of contemplation", the "claim of wholeness" or the "development of individuality" with simultaneous "learning of objective learning content" (Neubert, 1932, p.16ff, own translation). According to Dilthey, the triad "experience - expression - understanding" form a significant epistemological unit. Furthermore, he emphasizes that knowledge is only possible through experiencing, in the meaning of 'reliving', and working through the experiences. It is not the experience as such that is decisive, but the educational reflection on it. Didactically, this triad process is of the greatest importance, since it "expresses both the holistic context and the creative power of the experiences for the individual development of the person" (Zoglowek, 2009, p. 197). Even though Neubert critically discusses the possible limitation of the educational effectiveness of experiences - such as the ego relation and the individuality of the experiences, or its emotional relation - she ultimately pleads for experiences as "eternally valid methodical means" (Neubert, 1932, p. 60, own translation) (see also Koring, 1997; Zoglowek, 2009).

Even though experiential education is still met with scepticism, it has nevertheless found its place and significance in today's (school) education over the past two or three decades. A coherent theory, a comprehensive concept or a fundamental didactic foundation are still lacking, but this is probably not even possible, given the complexity, subjectivity, and general imponderability of pedagogically initiated situations. Nevertheless, there are enough examples of successful and functioning experiential social and schoolwork from the primarily socio-pedagogical practice. There are also increasing attempts to provide a deeper theoretical foundation and systematization of experience-based learning (Zuffellato and Kreszmeier, 2007; Fischer and Lehmann, 2009; Michl, 2015; Heckmair and Michl, 2018). With its claim to be an "alternative supplement", experiential education today can contribute to enriching everyday school life and schoolwork without striving for a "reform of the didactics of experiential education" or a "transformation of the school through experience", as Neubert (1932) emphasized.

One often finds "today's experiential education programmes and their reality [...] as not copyable and transferable originals, which are convincingly positioned in their niche existence of 'pedagogical provinces', but without other pedagogical areas being able to be connected according to their ideas [...]. Thus, the problem of experiential education is no longer how new concepts, programmes or discourse options can arise in the processes of pedagogical practice and educational reflection, but how existing potential can be used more offensively and not permanently wasted" (Fischer, 2004, p. 4, own translation).

Compensatory education

Compensatory education was primarily a concept in early childhood education, most popular in the 1970s and 1980s. Inspired by support programmes in the USA to increase the developmental chances of children and adolescents in precarious life situations and educationally disadvantaged homes, such initiatives were also taken in Europe at this time (Bloom, Davis and Hess, 1964; Iben, 2008). In view of the lack of evident success and increasing criticism of the content, compensatory education was lost from the 1980s onwards (Bronfenbrenner, 1974; Bernstein, 1981), but since the turn of the millennium, it has gained renewed importance in connection with the increase in children with a migration background and children in poverty (BpB, 2009; Schmidt and Smidt, 2014). However, in their review of the significance of the compensatory approach for early education, Schmidt and Smidt (2014) conclude that available research findings show no significant compensatory effects. This does not mean, however, that the entire concept must be rejected in principle: "However, these findings do not fundamentally call into question the basic potential of the compensatory approach. A balance of the current empirical state of knowledge shows that early compensatory support can have clearly positive effects" (Schmidt and Smidt, 2014, p. 141, own translation).

Compensatory education, understood as an educational aid accompanying schooling to compensate for socio-culturally determined behavioural and learning deficits, can certainly help children to develop their natural talent and aptitude potential.

This is precisely the aim of this article: the presentation of an experiential education project in a school, in which an alternative learning and educational program is created for a certain group of pupils who show salient negative behaviour.

The experiential education activities offered for the development of ego-strength and self-efficacy, of independence and self-responsibility can thus assigned a certain compensatory function.

The experiences project

The theoretical approaches briefly presented in the introduction form the basis for an experiential education project that attempts to respond to a problem that has existed at this school for years. Even if the approach can be considered primarily socio-pedagogical, it should nevertheless be pointed out at this point that no experiential therapy is carried out, but rather an attempt is made to react to constantly occurring behavioural deviations that, so far, have resisted successful change.

Inspired by Pestalozzi's pedagogy of an all-round, holistic education of head, heart and hand (Pestalozzi, 1996) and referring to the didactics of experiential education, alternative working and learning strategies are developed for a certain group of pupils. By means of primary experiences, an approach is initiated to enable learning with (more) commitment and motivation. The model of the human experience circle developed in the experiential education of Ziegenspeck (1992) serves as a ground-breaking approach (see Table 1).

Table 1: The human circle of experience (Ziegenspeck, 1992, taken from: Fischer and Lehmann, 2009, p.134, own translation)

Individual Level		
To be	To become	To want
Curiosity	Courage	Interest
Pleasure	Creativity	Responsibility
Love	Achievement	Steering
Self-awareness	Autonomy	Emancipation
Identity	Mastering	Integration
Heart	Hand	Mind
Emotionality	Psycho-motorics	Cognition
Soul	Body	Spirit
Life	Activity	Learning
Relationship	Work	Education
Humanity	Individuality	Enlightenment
To be	To become	To want
Sociocultural Level		

Problem outline

The school has been trying for years to counter the problem of pupils with behavioural problems by means of various educational resources, without much success so far. The negative behavioural problems observed from the very beginning of the school year could generally not be eliminated. On the contrary, they often intensified over the school year and ended partly with draconian disciplinary sanctions, up to expulsion from school.

Deep-seated social development deficits such as aversive and destructive behaviour, absent and deviant behaviour in class, as well as aggressive and delinquent behaviour towards fellow pupils and teachers are more or less the order of the day for some pupils. The negative influence on the class and teaching situation is considerable and disturbs or prevents the positive learning climate that is the goal. Exclusion from class or lessons may improve the situation for the rest of the class, but it does not help the excluded ones, instead, it reinforces their underdevelopment in the social as well as the intellectual sphere.

Intervention programme

Pupils who provoke by extravagant behaviour in class usually cannot be integrated into the school behavioural framework and into school learning processes using conventional methods. The actual productive, cognitive work of a school lesson can have little or no success as long as emotional and psychological approaches are blocked.

Breaking up or interrupting teaching routines can be a sensible method to help the entire class, but especially those students who are negative conspicuous. For this purpose, action- and experience-oriented activities from the field of experiential education (Neubert, 1932; Fischer, 2004; Meier, Hampel, Gaiswinkel and Kümmel 2009; Michl, 2015), but also the Scandinavian concept of *friluftsliv* (Hofmann, Rolland, Rafoss and Zoglowek, 2015), are selected and tailored according to the situation of these conspicuous pupils.

Step 1 - Situation analysis

A multi-professional team of teachers, consisting of a member of the school management, the class and subject teachers, a social worker, a special-education teacher and a leisure educationist, accompanies classes 5 and 6 and determines which pupils should participate in the experiential education project.

The pupils are also involved in this process, i. e., action is taken in consultation with them, so that the measures and activities are understood as individual help and not as punishment.

Step 2 - Intervention

The social worker and the leisure educationalist set up an activity programme and a time schedule for the selected children, when and where experiential education-oriented "adventure activities" take place. The social worker and the leisure educationist, who is an "outdoor specialist", carry out these activity-learning units.

Table 2: Time schedule of experiential educational programme

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
1	Grade 5 Actions Aula/ Hall A	Grade 6 – gr.1 Actions Aula	Grade 6 – gr.2 Actions Hall B	Grade 5 Reflection	
2	Grade 5 Actions Hall A	Grade 6 – gr.1 Actions Hall B	Grade 6 – gr.2 Actions Hall B	Grade 7- gr.1 Reflection	Grade 6/7 (girls) Reflection
3		Grade 7 – gr.1 Actions Hall B	Grade 6 – gr.2 Reflection	Grade 6/7 (girls) Actions Hall C	
4		Grade 7 – gr.1 Actions Hall B	Grade 6 – gr.1 Reflection	Grade 6/7 (girls) Actions Aula	

Table 2 shows the experiential education timetable for the current school year. From the beginning, the activities take place outside. However, additional sports-hall hours are always available, so that the activities can take place in any case, regardless of the weather.

The experiential education activities are physical and movement-related activities and challenges. These can be nature hiking, climbing, skating, canoeing, strength and balance exercises, or other activities in the natural environment that are, first and foremost, physically challenging. For example, the pupils must find their way around an unknown natural area in small groups, using only a map and compass to reach a certain destination, or climbing activities, where they have to support, carry and secure each other in pairs. To cross a river or moorland with dry feet can be another exciting challenge for a small group.

It is crucial to provide situations where the task arouses curiosity. Curiosity for action and excitement. The experiences should trigger, support and further develop a positive self-image and personality development. "The theme of experiential education is, of course, the improvement of the personal situation" (Fischer, 2004, p. 8, own translation).

In order to involve the pupils better in taking responsibility for the activities, they should also partly decide what is to be done. For example, at the beginning of the lesson, they are offered various activities from which they can choose. In "free" phases, pupils can also decide what they want to try out today without a predetermined task. However, care is to be taken to ensure that no more than two activities are offered at a time.

Step 3 - Reflection

In the theoretical presentation of experiential education, attention was drawn to the special importance of reflexive processing of the activities and situations experienced. This period of reflection is also attributed a decisive importance in this method. It corresponds to Dilthey's triad process of 'experience - expression - understanding', which is important for comprehension and cognition, but also to the phase of 'transfer', i. e., the transfer and integration of the content of the experiences into a school subject context.

Figure 1 illustrates the (potential) learning process by turning frequent experiences into an experience that, in turn, becomes knowledge that can be applied in other situations. It is therefore important that all action units are connected to or completed with a period of reflection. This reflection work is mainly initiated and led by the social worker, but the leisure educationist or other teachers can also participate.

As a guideline, the content of these reflection periods is accomplished by general methods of social youth work such as 'analysis of the energy level', 'movement analysis' or 'writing down thoughts with pen and paper' (Jugendleiterblog, 2018).

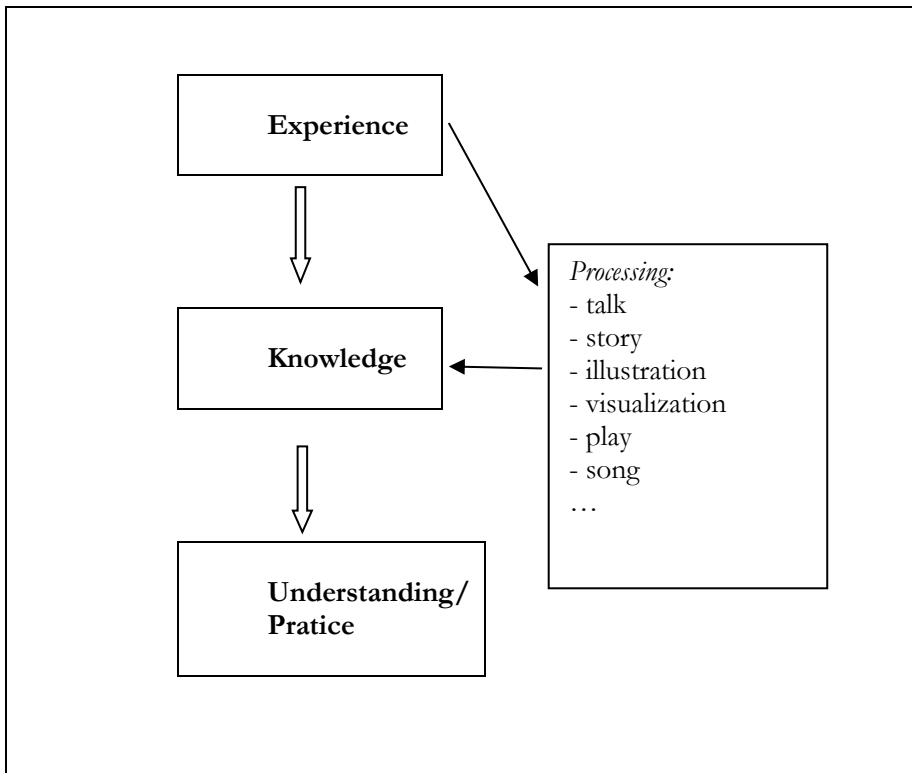


Figure 1: Experience - Expression - Understanding (Zoglowek, 2009)

Step 4 - Subject-specific integration

In addition to this desired stimulation of ego and social competence, the first part of the reflection phase - and this is the innovative and most important aspect in this approach - is also meant for the stimulation of subject-specific competence. By being removed from normal lessons, pupils necessarily miss out on parts of the subject lessons during their experiential education activities. These curriculum-related achievements are now included in the experience education approach to assist in the reintegration of pupils into regular lessons over the long run.

Here, the epistemological unit 'experience - expression - understanding' is applied in a double way, both intentionally and instrumentally. The pupil can and should verbalise and express her or his experience in the period of reflection.

Thus, the experience is understood. If, in the next step, pupils are able to describe their activities and experiences in more detail, in keywords or in whole sentences, the experiences can become a starting point for learning processes within, e. g., German lessons. Physical activity and experience thus do not remain on a physically or emotionally satisfying level but are taken as a concrete starting point for cognitive-abstract learning.

The following example illustrates such a procedure. Table 3 shows a simple word-writing exercise, while Table 4 calls for more complex descriptions, including individual comments and explanations by the pupils.

This is an example for a German lesson but could also apply to an English lesson.

Table 3: Keyword description of the experienced activities

	Review	Experiences	
Activity	Location	Devices/Materials	Evaluation
What did you do?	Where did you do something?	With what did you do something?	How did you like it?

Table 4: Scheme for a more complex description of the experienced activities

Experience arena school
Activity: what, when, where?
Devices/materials:
Evaluation:
Comments/explanation:
Pictures/photos:

In addition to physical, social and emotional moments of experience, all experiential education activities should offer opportunities for communicative, verbal and cognitive learning. From the keyword-like description of individual activities to description of procedures, comments and justifications and the keeping of a weekly report booklet, which is an inducement in order to compile a good internship report. When the verbalisations and written descriptions of the experienced activities reach the level required in Table 4, the pupil can be reintegrated into the regular lessons.

Initial experience

The experiential education project is still in its initial phase. Since no generally applicable concepts can be used, the teachers must develop their own approaches and try out their own ideas.

Experiences in one group cannot be generalized to other groups, or only to a limited extent. What might be a success for one pupil, might be a failure for another. Therefore, it is possible to report about experiences in general, but not to generalize them or even to evaluate them with regard to different perspectives or implications. Here every pupil stands alone. Given the relatively difficult starting position, the staff supporting this experiential education project is satisfied with each pupil who shows positive behavioural changes - and after a certain period of time, the youngster can be taken back into 'regular teaching', provided these pupils have achieved a positive attitude towards their work in class.

The short interviews, which were carried out with the social worker, the leisure educationist and various teachers, show clear improvement in the relationship levels between the actors. Improved working behaviour in class and a positive change in social behaviour are reported. Behavioural problems are decreasing in favour of steady development of the individual personality and self-discovery. The relationship level in 'normal' teaching lessons has become more sustainable, along with a decrease in juvenile delinquency. Pupils can always be reintegrated, even if this is not possible in all cases.

As in any serious educational and teaching work, each specific pupil is to be regarded as an individual. Education is an individual process. Whether experiences contribute to the (self-) education process, (see Höltershinken, as cited in the introduction), can only be ascertained afterwards or much later. If, however, experiences support a desire for personal development, then these experiences are of inestimable value in education and the art of teaching. So, every successful attempt can be seen as confirmation and encouragement of the experiential education project. Thus, the short description of an individual case should be used to outline the importance and correctness of the experiential educational approach.

Case description: Timmy

Timmy registered for grade five in summer 2018. The primary school that had educated the boy for four years described Timmy's behaviour as follows:

Single mother, father never present. Mother has an alcohol problem; Timmy was temporarily placed in homes several times after intervention by the Youth Welfare Office. Timmy shows negative social behaviour, is quick-tempered, massively disturbs teaching, is unfocused, has a weak learning attitude style, and he is aggressive and sometimes violent.

The fifth school year initially was a challenging year for both the pupil and his teachers. Repeated crisis interventions occurred, and direct institutional care followed. For Timmy, the first school disciplinary measures were imposed. Last autumn, the school attempted to influence the boy through experiential/outdoor education. Timmy reacted positively to the new physical challenges. He climbed with motivation, gladly accepted the opportunities for skating, boarding or archery and quickly developed a positive relationship towards the social worker and the outdoor educationist. Although he still rejected regular lessons and the corresponding teachers, the professionally-guided reflective talks and the resulting growth in personality and strengthening of his self-efficacy led to slow changes in Timmy's attitude. In addition, an individual learning assistant helped to reduce Timmy's resentment towards teaching. The periods of effective learning in class increased, and crisis interventions by the youth welfare office have not been necessary for months.

Final reflections

Educational work is always a great challenge, and for all the major achievements that schools and educational institutions, teachers and educators worldwide have accomplished each year, there are no recipes or concepts for successful work. In principle, successful education and educational formation cannot be planned (see also Scholz, 1964; Schwiersch, 1995; Schäfer, 2011; Höltershinken, 2013); success is more likely to be determined by the diversity and variety of approaches and methods, proposals and opportunities. Not to mention the social, political and socio-cultural conditions that shape the respective educational and teaching concepts. The variety of teaching and educational approaches also includes experiential education, as it has been documented in a series of publications. The holistic approach, based on action and experience, can certainly be ascribed a compensatory component, similar to the way Kurt Hahn tried to demonstrate the possibilities a hundred years ago in his experiential therapy approach, how every young person can discover and promote previously undiscovered abilities in him- or herself (Hahn, 1958; 1998). Working in the field of experiential education can perhaps do partial justice to the educational principle of 'equal opportunities for all'. By working with socio-cultural differences and deficits, we can try to achieve an equal basis for learning.

It is evident that the physical challenges can be beneficial in two ways: on the one hand, it is about overcoming individual blockades; on the other hand, it is also about relaxation and contemplation. Between these two (emotional) states, we can offer experiential education activities, so that a feeling of capability and self-efficacy can be developed. If these experiences can be carefully transferred to other school situations and developmental challenges, the general educational and learning goals of schools can be achieved. With its aspirations, this school seems to have taken a step closer to this objective. And they are thinking ahead.

The future goal is not only to use experiential education as a socio-pedagogical strategy for difficult pupils, but also to offer these personality and self-image-promoting activities to all pupils. School should be a place for children and young people to have many opportunities to develop fundamental attitudes and qualities. The path via action- and experience-oriented learning seems to be a successful one, based on previous experience.

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WHAT IS MOST DIFFICULT IN A TEACHER'S JOB FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF TEACHERS, STUDENTS AND PARENTS?

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Abstract/Izveček The purpose of this research lies on the fact that although teacher's job is generally considered to be satisfactory, some of its aspects are perceived as difficult. In this qualitative study, conducted in Croatia, 158 students, 78 teachers and 148 parents were interviewed. The most frequently listed difficult aspects of teacher's job were keeping discipline, transferring knowledge, motivating students, working with problematic children, communicating well with students, adjusting to students, assessing students' knowledge realistically, and working with parents. Answers varied slightly between participants, between primary and secondary schools, as well as depending on the length of teaching careers.

Ključne besede:
starši, učenci, učiteljeva
poklicna vloga,
poučevanje

Kaj je najtežje pri učiteljevem delu z vidika učiteljev, učencev in staršev?

Namen te raziskave je v dejstvu, da čeprav se delo učiteljev na splošno šteje za zadovoljivo, je nekatere njegove vidike mogoče opredeliti kot težje. V tej kvalitativni študiji, izvedeni na Hrvaškem, je bilo intervjuvanih 158 učencev, 78 učiteljev in 148 staršev. Najpogosteje navedeni najtežji vidiki dela učitelja so bili: ohranjanje discipline, prenos znanja, motiviranje učencev, delo s problematičnimi otroki, dobro komuniciranje z učenci, prilagajanje učencem, pravično vrednotenje znanja učencev in delo s starši. Odgovori so se nekoliko razlikovali med udeleženci, med osnovnimi in srednjimi šolami, pa tudi glede na delovno dobo učiteljev.

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Introduction

For student teachers, it is beneficial to learn about various challenges in their future job, so they can be better prepared for preventing and treating these. The richest resources for learning about difficulties or demands related to teaching are their experienced colleagues. A teacher's job is public, influential and exposed. Hence, it is valuable to explore how other relevant participants in the educational system, students and parents, view the teacher's role (Diković and Plavšić, 2019) as well as the difficulties they face at work. It has been confirmed that students' perception of teachers' behaviour relates largely with their academic engagement and success (e.g., De Jong and Westerhof, 2001; Maulana et al., 2011; Maulana, Helms-Lorenz and van de Grift, 2015). It is thus relevant to find out if students recognise the difficulties that their teachers face, because they very likely notice how the teachers cope with these. If students perceive that their teachers cope with difficulties successfully, they will be more likely to engage in the foreseen learning activities. If they perceive their teachers as lacking effective coping skills, they will be less likely to become actively involved in the learning activities.

Findings confirm the connection among students' achievement, parents and teachers' relationship and parental attitudes towards school (e.g., Fan and Williams, 2010; Hill and Taylor, 2004; Westergård and Galloway, 2004). Parental satisfaction or dissatisfaction with school is significantly based on their attitudes about the school system, and one of the most important single predictors is parents' perception of the difficulties related to teaching (Maričić, Šakić and Franc, 2009). Therefore, the importance of parents' perspective in recognizing the difficulties teachers face may indirectly influence their children's school engagement and achievement.

Difficult aspects of a teacher's work

A teacher's job is usually considered to be pleasant, satisfying and fulfilling (e.g., Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2015). However, this does not imply that it is easily implemented. According to the job demands-resources model (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007), teachers' health (impairment) and (de)motivation result from interaction between job-related demands (e.g., mental, emotional, physical etc.) and resources (e.g., support, autonomy and feedback). Working with children, being a part of their development, and having the opportunity to learn continuously are usually seen as benefits or resources in a teacher's job.

On the other hand, there are aspects of their work that are recognised as difficult, even strenuous, and there is a plethora of research confirming this. Generally, if teachers invest more in working and communicating with students and collaborating with colleagues than they receive back, they face emotional, psychological and professional difficulties in their work (Van Horn, Schaufeli and Taris, 2001). Besides personality-related factors, there are external factors, such as problems with classroom discipline, time constraints, deficiency of materials and resources, absence of professional recognition, insufficient support, workload and the variety of compulsory duties (e.g., Harmsen et al., 2017; Klassen and Chiu, 2010; Prilleltensky, Neff and Bessell, 2016; Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2011). Such demanding aspects can lead to adverse consequences for teachers' health (e.g., Bartholomew et al., 2014; Philipp and Schüpbach, 2010) and motivation (e.g., Hakanen, Bakker and Schaufeli, 2006), resulting in poor organisational outcomes including aggravated social relationships and job attrition (e.g. Harmsen et al., 2018; Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2011).

Some authors found that teaching behaviour, grouped into domains or types, can be associated with various levels of *difficulty* (Kyriakides, Creemers and Antoniou, 2009; Maulana, Helms-Lorenz and van de Grift, 2015). However, additional evidence is necessary in identifying more concrete difficulties teachers encounter in their work. Although many aspects identified as difficult are stressful, with harmful consequences, not all of them are necessarily like that; they can be viewed as challenging, hence leading to different ways of solving them.

The Primary and secondary school perspective

Working with children and young people of various ages makes diverse demands on teacher competences. Besides individual differences among their students, teachers face developmental differences among children and young people in cognitive, social, emotional, and physical aspects (Jablansky et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2011). Although educational outcomes are clearly articulated in curricula, there are different expectations from *primary* and *secondary* school. The former is still more distant from the professional orientation and is seen as necessary basic education that is not too comprehensive. The latter offers either a more demanding general education as a preparation for further university education, or a more profession-focused education.

There are common difficulties teachers face in both primary and secondary schools, such as dealing with classroom disruption, lack of student motivation, or adjusting to student needs. However, specific difficulties in primary and secondary schools stem from students' distinct developmental stages. Thus, teaching approaches should be adjusted according to children's and young people's cognitive, emotional, physical and social maturity level (Wang et al., 2011).

Generally, there is a lack of literature comparing the job difficulties of teachers in primary and secondary schools. Some findings point to greater work satisfaction among primary-school teachers (Koludrović, Jukić and Reić-Ercegovac, 2009), while some show that teachers of primary education experience higher levels of stress compared to teachers in secondary education (Antonioni, Ploumpi and Ntalla, 2013).

Length of teaching experience

When looking at the length of teaching experience, few models can be found that elaborate the development of a teaching career. Huberman's model (Huberman, 1989) describes the challenges and attitudes teachers face through three phases: novice, mid-career and late-career. At the beginning of the novice phase, a teacher's main concern is to survive in the newly discovered shocking reality. After that, the teacher focuses on the task of teaching and less on other duties. Finally, attention shifts from delivering content to making sure that students learn. The mid-career phase usually begins with stabilisation, when teachers start to feel confident about their competences, but become aware of institutional and system constraints. Some teachers feel it is time for additional contributions, like writing articles, organising events etc. Mid-career usually ends with reassessment, as teachers reflect on achievements and failures. They either cope with and solve the difficulties or leave them unsolved. In their late-career phase, teachers often reach professional serenity, accepting themselves, handling difficulties with greater ease and supporting younger colleagues. Approaching retirement, teachers gradually distance themselves from school, colleagues and students. Some reflect positively on their career, while some are bitter about it. The model is not linear, and phases are not distinct sequences. It foresees different lengths, regressions, jumps and plateau effects, as well as various factors influencing it: personal experiences, the social environment, or organisational specifics (Huberman, 1989). There is confirmation in the research for this model. Gavish and Friedman's (2010) research highlights that there are differences among novice teachers and teachers who have worked for several years in teaching.

Novice teachers have deficits: in appreciation and professional recognition from students, in appreciation and professional recognition from the public, and in a collaborative and supportive ambience. Beginning teachers are committed to their jobs, but they are unpleasantly surprised with the heavy workload and the level of errant student behaviour (Latifoglu, 2016). Teachers with more years of work experience adapt better to the school environment and working circumstances (Antoniou, Ploumpi and Ntalla, 2013).

We can conclude that there is abundant research about job satisfaction, as well as about stress in teaching work, but it is unclear what is considered difficult in a teacher's job. Moreover, in the majority of studies, teachers are participants, while other stakeholders' perspectives are not taken into account. The purpose of this research is therefore to recognise what aspects of teachers' work are perceived as most difficult from the perspective of various stakeholders, and the objectives are as follows:

- 1) to explore the most difficult aspects of teachers' work from the perspective of students, teachers and parents;
- 2) to identify potential differences among primary and secondary students, teachers and parents in assessing the most difficult aspects of teachers' work; and
- 3) to examine if teachers' assessment of the most difficult aspects of their work depends on the length of their teaching experience.

Method

Procedure and participants

This study formed part of a study related to teacher motivation for learning and competences for teaching. Questions in this study were created for both scientific and educational purposes. To fit the purpose, the research design was qualitative and involved structured interviewing. With the aim of discovering more about the expectations of students, teachers and parents about teachers, student teachers of humanities and music were instructed about the selection of participants and interviewing as a method of data collection. They received course credits for this task. Their task was to select and interview the following: one student from primary school (aged 7 through 15), one student from secondary school (aged 15 through 19), one teacher from either primary or secondary school, and one mother and one father of a primary or secondary school student.

The total sample included 384 interviewed persons. There were 158 students ranging from 7 to 18 years ($M = 14.40$, $SD = 3.02$), 98 girls and 59 boys. The primary school subsample numbered 81 students, 7 to 15 years old, and the secondary school subsample gathered 77 students, 15 to 18 years old. There were 78 teachers included with an age range from 26 to 77 years ($M = 39.43$, $SD = 10.38$), comprising 57 women and 21 men. The sample consisted of both primary school teachers (two-thirds) and secondary school teachers (one-third). There were 148 parents in the sample, 29 to 62 years old ($M = 42.81$, $SD = 5.97$). Half of them were mothers ($n = 72$), and half were fathers ($n = 76$). Parents reported having children in primary (50 percent) and secondary school (50 percent).

Measures

For the first objective, to explore the most difficult aspects of teachers' work from the perspective of students, teachers and parents, the research variable was explored with an open-ended question: *What is most difficult in teacher's work?* Collected answers were then categorised, as part of the data analysis in the Results section. For the second objective, to identify any differences between primary and secondary students, teachers and parents in assessing the most difficult aspects of teacher's work, the research variable was a closed-ended question, depending on the participant: *Do you attend primary or secondary school?* (for students) / *Do you work in primary or secondary school?* (for teachers) / *Does your child attend primary or secondary school?* (for parents). For the third objective, to examine if teachers' assessment of the most difficult aspects of teacher's work depends on the length of their teaching experience, teachers were asked the open-ended question: *How long have you been worked in school as a teacher?* Their answers were then grouped according to the length of their teaching into three categories: 1) up to six years ($n = 27$); 2) 7 – 14 years ($n = 25$); and 3) 15 years and more ($n = 26$).

Results

The most difficult aspects of teacher's work

To explore the most difficult aspects of teachers' work from the perspective of students, teachers and parents (the first objective), the most difficult aspects of teacher's work were listed from the three perspectives. Each participant offered one answer, and a joint list was made for all of them.

These answers were distributed into 54 categories, i. e. aspects of teacher's work; the separate lists show that students recognised 30 aspects, teachers pointed to 26 and parents identified 32. The five most frequent answers were ranked for each group. The joint list narrowed to 8 characteristics, and the rankings according to students, teachers and parents are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Frequency of the most difficult aspects of teacher's work from the perspective of students, teachers and parents

Rank	Students (n = 156)	Teachers (n = 77)	Parents (n = 148)
1	to keep discipline (35)	to keep discipline (13)	to keep discipline (36)
2	to transfer knowledge (29)	to evaluate students' knowledge realistically (10)	to transfer knowledge (17)
3	problematic children (16)	to motivate students (7)	to motivate students (15)
4	to motivate students (13)	problematic children; to work with parents (6)	to adjust to students (11)
5	to communicate/relate well with students (9)	to communicate/relate well with students (4)	problematic children; to communicate/relate well with students (8)

Primary and secondary school perspectives

The second objective was to identify differences among primary and secondary students, teachers and parents in assessing the most difficult aspects of teacher's work. Therefore, rankings of the most difficult aspects of teacher's work were compared by primary and secondary school. Again, all three perspectives were analysed. The results appear in Table 2. Altogether, there are 13 aspects listed because some descriptions have the same frequency. Equal frequency also led to fewer rankings in the case of teachers in both primary and secondary schools.

The length of teachers' teaching experience

The third objective was to examine if teachers' assessment of the most difficult aspects of teacher's work depended on the length of their teaching experience. Accordingly, the rankings for the most difficult aspects of teacher's work were compared regarding the length of teachers' experience. Table 3 lists nine aspects. Only the first three rankings are shown because the fourth rank has a frequency of one.

Table 2: Frequency of the most difficult aspects of teacher's work by primary and secondary school

Rank	Students		Teachers		Parents	
	Primary school (n = 80)	Secondary school (n = 76)	Primary school (n = 45)	Secondary school (n = 25)	Primary school (n = 72)	Secondary school (n = 65)
1	to keep discipline (22)	to transfer knowledge (18)	to keep discipline (11)	to evaluate students' knowledge realistically (4)	to keep discipline (15)	to keep discipline (17)
2	to transfer knowledge (11)	to keep discipline (13)	to motivate students (5)	to keep discipline; problematic children. to motivate students; to communicate/relate well with students; to work with parents; to adjust to students; the beginning of working at school (2)	to motivate students (10)	to transfer knowledge (7)
3	problematic children (9)	to motivate students (8)	problematic children; to evaluate students' knowledge realistically; work with parents (4)		to transfer knowledge (8)	to adjust to students (6)
4	to review exams (7)	problematic children (7)			to adjust to students (5)	problematic children; to motivate students (4)
5	to motivate students (5)	to communicate/relate well with students (6)			to be fair (4)	to communicate/relate well with students; to evaluate students' knowledge realistically; to be fair; to stay calm and rational (3)

Table 3. Frequency of the most difficult aspects of teacher's work regarding teachers' length of teaching

Rank	Up to 6 years of experience (n = 25)	7 – 14 years of experience (n = 25)	15 and more years of experience (n = 26)
1	to keep discipline (5)	to evaluate students' knowledge realistically (5)	to keep discipline (5)
2	problematic children, to motivate students (3)	to keep discipline, to work with parents (3)	to evaluate students' knowledge realistically (4)
3	to communicate/relate well with students; to work with parents (2)	to motivate students; the beginning of working at school (2)	problematic children; to motivate students; responsibility for students; to stay calm and rational (2)

Discussion

The most difficult aspects of teacher's work

The first objective explored the most difficult aspects of teacher's work from the three perspectives. Parents identified the greatest range of most difficult aspects (32), students a slightly shorter list (30), while teachers provided the least variety (26). The joint list produced eight difficulties (Table 1). The explanation for this overlap is that all three groups share the experience of being students, so they have shared opinions. According to the job demands-resources model (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007), all the concretely listed difficulties can clearly be identified as emotional and mental constraints.

Parents, teachers and students put *keeping discipline* at the top. Classroom discipline implies an encouraging atmosphere for teaching and learning. However, keeping discipline in school is not easy, and teachers find it both an obstacle and a challenge. By pursuing successful discipline, teachers can be perceived as competent by students and parents. Teachers who are more emotionally invested in their students and show more love for them are also more emotionally engaged in the classroom (Macuka, Burić, and Slišković, 2017).

Hence, it is important for efficient teachers to maintain discipline in the classroom. Lack of discipline in the school context is often a predictor of emotional exhaustion, and emotional exhaustion and teachers' feeling correlate with job satisfaction and further with motivation to leave the teaching profession (Skaalvik and Skaalvik, 2011).

Students and parents assign *transferring knowledge* to 2nd place, while teachers do not rank that in the top five. This clear difference in perspectives can be explained by the fact that transfer of knowledge is the core job of a teacher; if teachers considered this the most difficult part, this would be worrying (Babar et al., 2016; Calderhead, Denicolo, and Day, 2012). However, the second position from the teachers' perspective is *evaluating students' knowledge realistically*. Besides being difficult, grading is a central ethical dilemma for teachers (Alm and Colnerud, 2015). The difficulty of evaluating student work raises issues of reliability, validity (Alm and Colnerud, 2015), objectivity, and sensitivity of a teacher as an assessment instrument.

Teachers and parents locate *motivating students* in 3rd place, while students place it slightly lower. Teachers and parents probably share similar challenges in encouraging children to study school subjects. The students are also aware that their motivation is low and assign the teacher the job of boosting their interest in the subject (Lamb, Astuti, and Hadisantosa, 2016; Nilson, 2016). In the context of learning and teaching, a teacher needs to establish and maintain the "classroom as a learning community" (Brophy, 2013). Students' motivation is greater if teachers believe in its effectiveness (Thoonen et al., 2011).

Students put *problematic children* in 3rd position, teachers place this 4th and parents assign this 5th place. The term refers to students whose behaviour negatively deviates from the expected. Expectations among students, parents and teachers about appropriate behaviour in school can differ, even within each of these groups. Some results (Lopes et al., 2004) recommend that teachers' sense of efficacy moderates as problematic learners become older. Also, educators express the awareness that problematic learners could benefit with defined individualised programs.

All three groups rank *communicating/ relating well with students* in fifth place. Appropriate definition and articulation of messages, instructions, expectations and responsibilities is crucial for reduction of misunderstandings. As the main facilitator of the classroom climate, the teacher is either a positive or a negative model.

When students communicate with teachers with relational, functional, participatory or even sycophancy motives, they employ more effort in the classroom (Myers and Thorn, 2013).

From the teachers' perspective one of the most difficult aspects is their *work with parents*. It is ranked in 4th place. In contrast, students and parents do not mention it in their top five. As important mediators in the process of schooling, parents manifest a wide range of attitudes and behaviour that can be either ameliorating or aggravating for teachers. Some parents can be very involved in various aspects of their child's interaction with school, while some are uninvolved. Teachers emphasise the importance of having parents as partners in the education process with students. LaRocque and colleagues (2011) argue that parental involvement is influenced by a range of factors such as comfort level, knowledge, self-confidence and motivation. On the other hand, teachers should make sure that parents' participation is familiar and meaningful. Irresponsible parents and everyday stress at work can contribute to exhaustion in professional teachers (Macuka, Burić, and Slišković, 2017).

For parents, the 4th rank comprises teacher's *adjusting to students*. Teachers and students do not rank this in their top five. Parents realise that children differ in personality and needs, so they (the parents) must adjust their parenting skills. This may be why they have some empathy for teachers who must adapt to a broader range of student diversity. Suldo and colleagues (2009) emphasise that students perceive teachers to be helpful when they put effort into connecting with them on the emotional level, employ various and effective teaching methods, encourage learning achievement, act fairly and justly and nurture a classroom climate where questions are welcome.

The recognised difficulties of a teacher's job from all three perspectives can be seen as risks for teachers' health and motivation, thus contributing to the demands-resources model (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007).

Primary and secondary school perspectives

To address the second objective, rankings of the most difficult aspects of a teacher's job were compared by primary or secondary school, again, from all three perspectives (Table 2).

Although *keeping discipline* was identified as the most difficult aspect of teacher's work, students and teachers ranked it slightly higher in primary than in secondary schools, while the parents' answers did not differ regarding the type of school.

This could be related to the evidence that teachers in primary school experience higher levels of stress (Antoniou, Ploumpi and Ntalla, 2013). It could be that discipline is more associated with keeping the atmosphere physically calmer, and that happens more easily in secondary school because young people are physically less active than children (Trost et al., 2002).

The highly ranked item, *transferring knowledge*, mentioned by students and parents, but not by teachers, was recognised as more difficult from the secondary school perspective. In secondary school, the content is more structured, and adolescents have more questions that interest them, while teachers may find it difficult to answer or respond to their requests. Teachers in some secondary schools in Croatia are professionals in their subject and perhaps less often have the pedagogical competencies that are important for teaching.

While teachers' answers suggest it is equally difficult *to motivate students* regardless of school, students think it is more difficult in secondary school, and parents guess this to be the case in primary school. Teachers' point of view is confirmed by research that shows stability in students' extrinsic motivation in primary and secondary schools (Lepper, Corpus and Iyengar, 2005). So, a teachers' job in creating a motivational atmosphere is always demanding. On the other hand, the same research shows that students' intrinsic motivation decreases with the years of schooling. This finding is supported by our results (Table 2), where students find motivation to be a bigger problem in secondary school. Parents may think that it is more difficult to motivate younger children because their level of sustained attention is lower than in older children (Betts, 2006).

From the primary school students' perspective, *problematic children* seem to be more of a challenge for teachers than from the perspective of the secondary school students, probably because their physical activity dominates more than in secondary schools. From the teachers and parents' point of view, it is more of a problem in secondary schools. They may see more cognitive and emotional challenge in managing attitudinal conflicts with older students than with younger ones. It is also possible that elementary school teachers are more satisfied with their work because they have chosen it and are better trained, compared to secondary school teachers, who might have chosen the teaching career as their less preferred option.

Secondary school teachers put *realistic knowledge assessment* higher than their primary school colleagues.

Secondary school parents recognise this as a difficult aspect of teacher's work, while the primary school parents and students at both types of schools do not mention it in the top five. It is likely that knowledge assessment in secondary schools is perceived as more of a burden because marks obtained in secondary school are more related to the greater complexity of learning content (in contrast to elementary school), the high pressure of the state graduation exam at the end of the final school year, and a probable wish for enrolling at university.

From all three perspectives, *communicating or relating* well with students becomes more difficult in secondary school, since none of the groups from primary school mention it among the top five. This can be supported by findings that primary school teachers are more satisfied with their job and have significantly more positive attitudes towards students than their colleagues in secondary school (Koludrović, Jukić and Reić-Ercegovac, 2009). In adolescence, students have more elaborated attitudes and they are readier to express and advocate for them, so it can be more demanding for teachers to communicate with them.

Secondary school parents think it is more difficult for teachers *to adjust to students* than the primary school parents. Parents have probably noted how challenging it can be to raise adolescents, so they empathise with secondary school teachers. Teachers' perspective is similar; only secondary school teachers identify it among the top five most difficult aspects of their job, while their primary school colleagues do not mention it.

Secondary school teachers see *work with parents* as a greater difficulty than do their primary school colleagues. This can be explained by findings that primary school parents assess school programmes and teacher quality more positively and see themselves as more involved in their children's education compared to secondary school parents (Kranželić and Ferić Šlehan, 2008). Expectations that parents have from secondary school are higher and related to preparation for either further formal education or work.

Regardless of school type, only parents consider it as most difficult for a teacher *to be fair*. Parents assume a protective role when their children are in question, so they expect teachers not to harm the children by treating them unfairly because this could have a range of unfavourable effects (e.g., Berti, Molinari and Speltini, 2010; Lenzi et al., 2014). By being unfair, teachers can, in the long run, deprive students of improved prospects for further education and even careers.

Only secondary school students' parents have the opinion that it is difficult for teachers *to stay calm and rational*. They may be extrapolating from their experience how difficult it is to cope with their adolescent children's demanding behaviour.

Only primary school students mention *reviewing exams* as one of the most difficult tasks for the teacher. Teachers give written exams more frequently in elementary than in secondary schools because learning units are smaller, so they notice that teachers must assess knowledge more frequently.

Only secondary school teachers mention that it is the most difficult aspect of their work *to begin with it*. It could be that secondary school teachers feel greater responsibility and accountability because they face a more demanding population and higher expectations to prepare them for either work or further formal education. The results of the primary and secondary school comparison fill the gap in the research related to these two educational stages.

The length of teachers' teaching experience

For the third objective, rankings of the most difficult aspects of teacher's work were compared regarding the length of teachers' experience (Table 3). Only three ranks are listed. One rationale is that there were fewer teachers than parents and students in the sample. The other reason is that teachers' answers are diverse, many of them appearing only once. This could indicate teachers' more thoughtful responses, reflecting their insight into and contemplation of their careers.

Keeping discipline was the most difficult aspect of a teacher's job from the perspective of the longest and the shortest teaching experience. For teachers with medium experience, this was ranked slightly lower. These results confirm the non-linear change in teachers' self-efficacy related to classroom management over the years of teaching experience: it increases from the beginning and later decreases (Klassen and Chiu, 2010), although the shift happened almost a decade earlier in this study. Teachers with less experience are not that skilled at maintaining discipline (Latifoglu, 2016). They might not have expected it to be part of their job, or they might have insufficient competences for that. In contrast, teachers with the most experience are more tired of leading the class, and the lack of discipline is a burden in their work. From the perspective of teachers with the least teaching experience, the second position was assigned to *motivating students*, while this was perceived as slightly less difficult for their colleagues with more teaching experience.

This is in line with research showing an increase in teachers' self-efficacy related to engaging students across the first 20 years of teaching (e.g., Klassen and Chiu, 2010; Wolters and Daugherty, 2007). Teaching experience, along with continuous professional development, helps teachers in motivating students. Teachers with less experience must find various methods to motivate students for learning, while more experienced teachers already have a wide repertoire of methods.

Teachers with medium-length experience find realistic *evaluation of students' knowledge* to be the most difficult aspect of their work, while their colleagues with the most experience in teaching find this somewhat less difficult; meanwhile, their colleagues with the least experience did not put this item on their list. A similar finding emerged for *working with parents*, as a difficult aspect of teachers' work. For teachers with medium-length teaching experience, the *beginning of working at school* is one of the most difficult aspects of a teacher's job, while others did not mention it. As Huberman (1989) suggests, teachers in their mid-career years (7–18) often re-evaluate and question their career related choices. These reassessing processes probably extend to all aspects of their work, including assessment of students' knowledge and work with parents. Those who remain in a teaching career probably reach a period of serenity in which they feel more self-confident (Huberman, 1989).

For teachers with the least teaching experience, working with *problematic children* is slightly more difficult than for teachers with the most teaching experience, while those with medium experience did not mention it. Similar to the result with classroom discipline, experience helps in work with problematic children, as well as further formal, non-formal and informal learning. Some authors suggest that because of attrition, teachers with more teaching experience report better self-efficacy related to this topic (Wolters and Daugherty, 2007). Those who give up teaching careers could be, on average, less competent compared to their colleagues who remain.

Only teachers with the least experience placed *communicating or relating well with students* among the top three most difficult aspects of teacher's work, while teachers with more experience did not. This, too, could be the result of improved self-efficacy with years of experience. Communication competences can be improved in interaction, so teachers with more experience feel more comfortable in their communication roles. Gavish and Friedman (2010) support these results with the finding that novice teachers lack appreciation and professional recognition from students.

Only from the perspective of teachers with the most teaching experience are *responsibility for students* and *staying calm and rational* considered to be among the most difficult aspects of a teacher's job. Teachers who have had the chance to reflect on a long period of teaching probably realise that their work is relevant and that they are responsible not only for the time while they teach, but also for the future. They have had experience of meeting former students who give them feed-back about what learning was useful in their life after school. So, after impatience at the beginning of their career, teachers' self-confidence increases through evaluation and feed-back. Huberman (1989) suggests this phase can be recognised as serenity, although he identified this phase as appearing after almost 20 years of teaching experience.

The results of this research contribute to Huberman's model of teachers' career development.

Conclusion

Results of this study suggest that there are major commonalities in understanding the difficulties of a teachers' job among the most important stakeholders in the educational system: students, teachers and parents. The fact that all three groups share the experience of being students probably contributes to the overlap. However, two colliding paradigms can be recognised: one in which all the responsibility and power lies in the teacher's hands, and the other in which teachers are facilitators of mutual processes with shared responsibilities. The former paradigm can be seen in the aspect of *transferring knowledge*, whereby in the process of teaching, teachers are supposed to load products into empty containers. It can also be viewed from the perspective of *keeping discipline*, which can read as if teachers should have obedient followers that are expected to obey students' demands. The latter paradigm can be recognised in the items *motivating students*, *communicating or relating well with them* and *adjusting to them*, because without students' interest and active participation in the process, learning and teaching do not take place. However, it is possible that some participants view *transferring of knowledge* and *keeping discipline* as participatory processes in which teachers are facilitators that in fact do motivate students, adjust to them and relate well with them. Hence, the implication of the results is to alert student teachers to these varying paradigms and encourage them to identify the advantages and disadvantages.

Another implication is that clear recognition of teacher's job demands from the three perspectives could indicate concrete risks for teachers' health and motivation, according to the demands-resources model (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). There are some methodological limitations in the present research. The choice to list only the most difficult aspects makes it difficult to access a more thorough elaboration of what precisely participants meant. Participants mentioned the first thing that came to their mind. A different research design, such as listing more than one aspect, or having more time for reflection, could have yielded different answers. It would be beneficial to explore what students, parents and teachers with different characteristics, such as academic achievement, view as most difficult in a teacher's job. One recommendation for further research would be to explore how teachers, students and parents perceive teachers' resources and coping with difficulties. Such information could serve as useful feedback for teachers to encourage their self-reflection (Den Brok et al., 2004).

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THE ROLE OF TEACHERS' SUPPORT AND ENTHUSIASM IN PREDICTING MATHEMATICS ANXIETY AND CONFIDENCE AMONG STUDENTS

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Abstract/Izveček

The goal of this study was to examine the contribution of teachers' support and enthusiasm to explaining self-confidence and mathematics anxiety in primary-school students. The results of the t-test showed that girls and boys statistically significantly differ only in the perception of confidence variable, while no gender difference was determined in the other variables. The results of regression analysis showed that teachers' support and enthusiasm are predictors of student self-confidence, with support also making an independent contribution to explaining mathematics anxiety.

Keywords:
enthusiasm,
mathematics anxiety,
self-confidence,
students, support

Vpliv učiteljeve podpore in zavzetosti na učenčev občutek tesnobe oz. samozavesti pri učenju matematike

Ključne besede:
navdušenost, podpora,
samozavest, strah pred
matematiko, učenci

Cilj te raziskave je bil preučiti prispevek učiteljeve podpore in navdušenja pri razlagi krepitve samozavesti in odprave strahu pred matematiko pri učencih osnovne šole. Rezultati t-testa so pokazali, da so se dečki in deklice statistično bistveno razlikovali v zaznavanju spremenljivke samozavesti, pri drugih spremenljivkah pa glede na spol ni bio razlik. Rezultati regresijske analize so pokazali, da sta podpora in navdušenje učiteljev napovedovalca samozavesti učenčev; podpora pa tudi prispeva k razlagi strahu pred matematiko.

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Introduction

Mathematical abilities are extremely important, since they are key to understanding other scientific disciplines as well as technology and engineering, all of which are vital for training new and innovative experts (Ker, 2013). Today science and technology assume the central place in world culture, and in order for any nation to become competitive, the significance of mathematics in its education system must not be underestimated (Maliki et al., 2009). Unfortunately, many students at all education levels nowadays have a negative attitude towards mathematics and fear it, which can cause serious problems and become an obstacle in their education (Artemenko et al., 2015; Guita and Tan, 2018; Ma, 2003; Richardson and Suinn, 1972; Stodolsky, 1985; Vidić, 2016; Vidić et al., 2020; Wadlington and Wadlington, 2008).

Student confidence in mathematics entails students' belief in their own ability to learn mathematical content and successfully solve mathematical exercises. Cerbito (2020) points out the importance of self-confidence in students because it provides a good predictor of achievement in mathematics. Research indicates that students with high levels of self-confidence attain higher levels of achievement in mathematics (Miscević-Kadijević, 2015; Hannula et al., 2004), while students who are not successful in mathematics assess their level of self-confidence and motivation as lower (Opstad and Årethun, 2019). Moreover, high self-confidence in maths classes reduces mathematics anxiety (Kvedere, 2014).

Affective factors play a key role in teaching and learning mathematics. One of the affective factors that has earned special attention from researchers is math-related anxiety (McLeod, 1992). Mathematics anxiety is one of the common attitudinal and emotional factors that have received attention in recent years (Baloğlu and Koçak, 2006). Many questionnaires aiming to determine attitudes toward mathematics, among other dimensions, also focus on mathematics anxiety (e.g., Adediwura, 2011; Fennema and Sherman, 1976; Tapia and Marsh, 2004). It is not rare for students to suffer from math-related anxiety, which limits their ability to do mathematics and solve mathematical exercises (Ashcraft and Moore, 2009; Furner, 2017).

The results of the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) of 2012, in which the principal testing field was mathematical literacy, showed that 59% of the tested students often worry they will have a hard time in mathematics lessons; 33% reported becoming very tense when they have to do mathematics homework; 31% said they feel helpless when doing a mathematical exercise; and 61% of the students said they worry about poor grades in mathematics (OECD, 2013). The consequences of mathematics anxiety listed by researchers often include poor mathematical achievement, avoidance of maths classes, inability to solve mathematical problems and feelings of guilt and shame (Burton, 1979; Hendel, 1980; Richardson and Suinn, 1972; Tobias and Weissbrod, 1980). The scientific literature offers various definitions of mathematics anxiety. Cemen (1987) has defined mathematics anxiety as the state of being anxious in response to situations regarding mathematics that represent a threat to self-respect. Richardson and Suinn (1972, p. 39) stress that “mathematics anxiety involves feelings of tension and anxiety that interfere with the manipulation of numbers and the solving of mathematical problems in a wide variety of ordinary life and academic situations”. Spicer (2004, acc. to Marshall et al., 2017) has provided a simple, graphic definition of mathematics anxiety, determining it as the emotion that blocks a person's ability to think when faced with a mathematical problem. Buckley and Ribordy (1982) define mathematics anxiety as an unthinkable fear of mathematics which can impede a person in the manipulation of numbers and in solving mathematical problems in various life and academic situations. Ferguson (1986, acc. to Hlalele, 2012) has identified three common types of mathematics anxiety: mathematics test anxiety (associated with anticipating, taking and receiving mathematics tests); numerical anxiety (associated with number manipulation); and abstraction anxiety (associated with abstract mathematical content). Mathematics anxiety has no single cause but is the result of numerous factors, such as belief in the student's competence, learning without understanding, bad experiences with maths teachers and inappropriate teaching methods (Greenwood, 1984; Guita and Tan, 2018; Lutovac, 2008; Tariq and Durrani, 2012; Tobias, 1978). Jackson and Leffingwell (1999) present the results of their research, according to which the participants associated their mathematics anxiety with insensitive and careless teachers.

Moreover, previous research has indicated that support from parents and their encouragement of children in learning mathematics are both connected with better achievement in mathematics by the children (Kliman, 2006), and LeFevre et al. (2002) have shown in their research that exposing children to mathematical topics at home contributes to better mathematical skills in early childhood. On the other hand, the research done by Antolin Drešar and Lipovec (2017) has proven that parent mathematicians are less engaged in the school mathematical activities of their own children in comparison to parents who are not mathematicians, who are more involved but sense difficulty in helping their children deal with their obligations in mathematics. Previous research (Antolin and Lipovec, 2013) has found that, among parent mathematicians, the work with children does take place; however, it was not related to school activities. Instead, the activities happened spontaneously, without planning, during walks, on drives and so on. The support students receive from their adult carers (parents or teachers) has proven to be extremely important in forming students' attitudes towards mathematics.

To increase student interest in mathematics, it is important for students to experience positive emotions connected with mathematical activities (Schiefele, 2009). Each student has the right and should have the opportunity to learn mathematics with understanding and without fear, wherein the teacher's role in securing an encouraging environment and sufficient level of support becomes especially important.

Teacher support relates to student perception of the teacher as the one who cares for and helps his/her students (Trickett and Moos, 1973, acc. to Patrick et al., 2007). Affective and academic support have been recognised as two types of teacher support (Patrick et al., 2007) sometimes perceived as one unified measure, since they are inextricably connected (e.g., Wentzel, 1997). On the basis of the studied literature, Sakiz et al. (2012) emphasize that a supportive teacher cares for and stands by the students, appreciates and respects them, encourages and listens to them and has high expectations. A study by Cates and Rhymer (2003) has shown that students with greater fear of mathematics have a poorer fluency level across all mathematical operations but do not differ from other students in the accuracy of solving exercises. Precisely because of such results, the authors emphasise the role of teachers in providing students with opportunities to strengthen academic skill development beyond simple acquisition.

Support from teachers is positively correlated not only with the academic development of adolescents but also with their emotional and social development (Dubow et al., 1991; Hamre and Pianta, 2005; Roeser et al., 1996). If students experience constant teacher support, they will be able to establish quality mutual relationships. The benefits of positive perception of teacher support are reflected in increased student school engagement, student dedication to academic activities and a decrease in problematic school behaviour (Garcia-Reid et al., 2015).

Apart from teacher support, teacher enthusiasm is also regarded as a key condition for efficient instruction and student motivation for learning (Brophy and Good, 1986). Enthusiasm can be considered a complex construct that is hard to explain. Certain researchers view enthusiasm as a characteristic of teaching in the sense of motivating and vigorous teaching (Turner et al., 1998), while others perceive it as a subjective experience of teachers themselves regarding teaching in general and their particular subject (Long and Hoy, 2006). Collins (1978) has established certain indicators of high enthusiasm in teachers: varied speech intonation, frequent eye contact, moving in the course of teaching, different facial expressions, careful choice of words, use of humour and acceptance of diverse ideas and feelings. Keller et al. (2016) remark that teacher enthusiasm is studied in the form of displayed enthusiasm and as experienced enthusiasm. Displayed enthusiasm encompasses interactions between teachers, nonverbal communication and teaching styles, whereas experienced enthusiasm pertains to the teacher's inspiration in the subjects he/she teaches. Teacher enthusiasm is also often regarded as the ability to inculcate students with the importance and inner value of learning as well as the value of the content to be learned (Patrick et al., 2003; Turner et al., 2002). The teacher's enthusiasm can be inferred on the basis of his/her behaviour, preparation of teaching materials and pronounced interest in the teaching content (Patrick et al., 2003). Lazarides et al. (2019) stress the existence of theoretical models pronouncing the importance of teacher enthusiasm in forming student motivation for mathematics, but empirical research into the connection between enthusiasm and support has been implemented only in the last ten years (Frenzel et al., 2009; Frenzel et al., 2010; Kunter et al., 2013). The applied research has proven that teacher enthusiasm significantly increases student interest in mathematics, primarily because the teacher's enthusiasm transfers positive teacher emotions to the students and in such a way influences their motivation's development.

A study by Kunter et al. (2008) found that more enthusiastic teachers tend to report higher quality instructional behaviours. Further research has additionally shown that teacher enthusiasm is an important predictor of teaching quality, which in turn, positively influences student success and satisfaction (Kunter et al., 2013). Teachers with high levels of enthusiasm or intrinsic motivation for teaching positively influence students and their learning motivation (Brigham et al., 1992; Patrick et al., 2000). Zealous teachers leave little room for student boredom and misbehaviour; hence, a positive link between teacher enthusiasm and a disciplined classroom atmosphere and student motivation can be expected (OECD, 2020). Teachers who show fervour in their work are ready to develop their skills and educate themselves professionally; as principal sources of their enthusiasm, they list encounters with students, a positive atmosphere and work interactions (Wenström et al., 2018). Moreover, teachers who are filled with zeal transfer it to their students and often become role models for them (Frenzel et al., 2009). Enthusiasm in students influences their behaviour, which is positively correlated to their achievement (Brigham et al., 1992). Therefore, enthusiasm is considered an important characteristic of efficient teachers (Kunter et al., 2011).

The goal of this research was to examine the contribution of teachers' support and enthusiasm to self-confidence and mathematics anxiety in primary-school students.

Methodology

The following research tasks and hypotheses were formed according to the research goal:

1 to determine the existence of gender differences in students' perceptions of self-confidence and mathematics anxiety and teacher support and enthusiasm;

H1: There are no differences in the perceptions of the research variables between boys and girls;

2 to determine to which measure the perception of teachers' support and enthusiasm contributes in explaining student self-confidence and mathematics anxiety;

H2a: The teacher's support and enthusiasm significantly contribute to explaining students' self-confidence in mathematics;

H2b: The teacher's support and enthusiasm significantly contribute to explaining students' mathematics anxiety.

Participants and procedure

The research was implemented on an appropriate sample including 290 students from the second (N = 76), fourth (N = 77), sixth (N = 63) and eighth (N = 74) grades of a primary school in Zagreb. The average age of the participants was 10.93 years (SD = 2.27). Of the total number of participants, 144 were boys (49.66%) and 146 girls (50.34%). The research was done in May 2019, in school, under the supervision of the research team members, in 15 grades. Only those students for whom written parental consent was obtained were allowed to participate (86.31% of students from the grades involved in the study). The questions were read aloud to the younger students (2nd grade), and they independently assessed the claims. Older students needed no such help. Filling out the questionnaire lasted 30 minutes in each grade. Because lessons in the second and fourth grades are organised as class teaching, each grade has one teacher who teaches most of the school subjects (N = 8). For older students, lessons are organised as subject teaching, and the participating students from the seventh grade are taught mathematics by three mathematics teachers. Of the total number of teachers, 9 were females and 2 males.

The instrument

The instrument consisted of four scales:

Students' confidence in mathematics comprises 10 claims that indicate how self-confident students are in mathematics. The participants assessed claims such as *I have a lot of self-confidence when it comes to mathematics* and *I am able to solve mathematics problems without too much difficulty*, on a five-point Likert scale. The claims were taken from the questionnaire Attitudes toward Mathematics Inventory, ATMI (Tapia and Marsh, 2004). To verify the fitness of the items, we used Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient, which was calculated for our sample as $\alpha = .76$.

Students' anxiety in mathematics consists of seven claims taken from the questionnaire Attitudes toward Mathematics Inventory, ATMI (Tapia & Marsh, 2004). The following claims were also assessed on a five-point Likert scale: *My mind goes blank, and I am unable to think clearly when working with mathematics*, *It makes me nervous to even think about having to do a mathematics problem*. The obtained Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient is $\alpha = .86$.

Teachers' support - student perspective consists of five claims taken from the questionnaire (Kunter and Baumert, 2006).

The participants assessed their agreement with the claims on a five-point Likert scale, e.g. *Our mathematics teacher immediately knows what someone has not understood*, *Our mathematics teacher can easily tell if someone is really sad*. The obtained reliability coefficient, Cronbach's Alpha, is $\alpha = .90$.

Teachers' enthusiasm – student perspective includes two claims, also assessed on a five-point scale: *Our mathematics teacher is an enthusiastic teacher*, *Our mathematics teacher seems to really enjoy teaching* (Kunter et al., 2011). The obtained reliability coefficient, Cronbach's Alpha, is $\alpha = .73$.

Results and discussion

The first task of this research was to examine how the participants assess the research variables and to determine potential differences in these evaluations between boys and girls. Table 1 presents the mean values and the related standard deviations for all the examined variables and the results of the t-test. The results for each variable were formed so that the overall sum of the circled answers was divided by the number of claims, and so the average scale's assessment was obtained. Among the four assessed variables, the lowest assessment was attributed to the *confidence* variable, with this variable also having the lowest standard deviation ($M = 1.82$; $SD = 0.32$), which indicated a low dispersion of results. It is followed by *anxiety* ($M = 2.08$; $SD = 1.02$) and *enthusiasm*, as the variable with the highest assessment ($M = 4.15$; $SD = 0.97$). In general, the variables pertaining to the teachers are perceived significantly higher than those regarding the students.

Table 1: Means and standard deviations for all variables by student gender and t-test results

Variable	Total ($N = 290$)		Boys ($N = 144$)		Girls ($N = 146$)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD		
confidence	1.82	0.32	1.89	0.29	1.76	0.33	3.504	.001
anxiety	2.08	1.02	2.00	1.00	2.16	1.05	-1.366	.173
support	3.67	1.20	3.68	1.23	3.65	1.19	.240	.810
enthusiasm	4.15	0.97	4.11	1.09	4.18	0.84	-.614	.539

The results of the t-test show that boys and girls differ significantly only in the perception of *confidence* variable, where boys ($M = 1.89$; $SD = 0.29$) show somewhat greater self-confidence than girls ($M = 1.76$; $SD = 0.33$) (Table 1).

The results of the self-confidence assessment are in accord with the results of a meta-analysis conducted by Hyde et al. (1990), which showed that male subjects had moderately higher maths self-confidence than female subjects. It should be emphasized that gender differences in self-confidence were not found in one part of the related research (Mohd et al., 2011; Yeo et al., 2015). A possible explanation for the gender differences in the *confidence* variable could be that the strategies and methods used in the teaching process were not equally appropriate for boys and girls. Girls have more self-confidence and enjoy mathematics more when cooperative work is applied (Boaler, 1997); therefore, more frequent use of cooperative learning should be planned and used in mathematics classes.

As shown in Table 1, gender differences for the *anxiety* variable are not statistically significant. The results are in line with those obtained by Al-Shannaq and Leppavirta (2020) and with the results of research conducted in the Republic of Croatia with primary school students in grades 5-7, which found no gender differences in mathematics anxiety (Vizek-Vidović, 1994). The available literature shows that one part of the research proved gender to have a significant effect on the mathematics anxiety variable, where female participants have greater evaluations than the males (Arambašić et al., 2005; Braš Roth et al, 2014; Else-Quest et al., 2010; Ma, 1999). There is more than one cause of mathematics anxiety, i.e., many different factors can influence it. One of these is the belief that men are better at maths than women (Tobias, 1978) and that not only mathematics as a school subject, but also future careers based on a strong mathematical basis are more appropriate for men than women (Rapp, 2015, acc. to Forgasz and Markovits, 2018). Hunt (1985) claims to have found evident differences between men and women in mathematics anxiety and that women are more afraid of mathematics than men are. Similar claims come from Devine et al. (2012), who state that girls mostly report higher levels of mathematics anxiety than boys. Ahmed et al. (2012) have researched mutual relationships between self-confidence and mathematics anxiety and proved that higher self-concept leads to decreased anxiety, which in turn, induces higher self-concept. In line with this result, we could expect that by applying more adequate strategies and methods, a double benefit would occur, i.e., the increase in student self-confidence would lessen their anxiety.

The next research task was to examine the contribution of the teacher's support and enthusiasm to students' self-confidence in mathematics. Hierarchical regression analysis was implemented in two steps to anticipate students' self-confidence.

The students' demographic variables (age and gender) were introduced in the first step and support and enthusiasm in the second step. Before the implementation of the regression analysis, the correlations between variables were checked, and it was established that all are moderate but significant, with 1% risk. Therefore, all the variables are fit for the regression analysis, as it only separates those factors with independent anticipation contribution. All the elements that need to be satisfied in order to conduct the regression analysis were thus checked. The results show that although all the variables are not normally distributed, the distributions are not bimodal nor U distributions and are mostly asymmetrically shaped. Furthermore, the unexplained part of the criterion variance (residuals) is distributed normally. The Durbin-Watson test is close to 2 (1.771), i.e., it does not indicate the existence of multicollinearity, and the same is confirmed with VIF factors smaller than 4 (in a range from 1.000 to 2.999).

Table 2 presents the results of the regression analysis regarding the regression coefficient of $R = 0.541$, i.e., 29.2% of the explained self-confidence variance based on the introduced predictors.

Table 2: Contribution of support and enthusiasm in explaining student self-confidence in mathematics

	ΔR^2	β	t	p
1				
gender		-.209	-3.910	.001
grade (age)		-.374	-6.992	.000
$R = 0.43$; $R^2 = 0.18$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0.18$; $\Delta F(2/287) = 31.61$; $p < 0.001$				
2	.11**			
support		.353	4.087	.000
enthusiasm		.157	2.431	.016
$R = 0.54$; $R^2 = 0.29$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0.28$; $\Delta F(2/285) = 22.49$; $p < 0.001$				

R – multiple coefficients of correlation; R^2 – multiple coefficients of determination; ΔR^2 – change in the coefficient of multiple determination; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

In the first step, the demographic factors explain 18.1% of the students' self-confidence variance, where both predictors are significant, with age, i.e., grade, as the more significant predictor ($\beta = -.374$; $t = -6.992$; $p < 0.01$).

Correlation analyses show that self-confidence decreases with age ($r = -0.37$; $N = 290$; $p < 0.01$), and the testing of differences reveals greater self-confidence in boys than in girls ($t = 3.50$; $df = 288$; $p < 0.01$). Additional analyses indicate that the grade (age) explains 13.8% and gender 4.3% of the self-confidence variance. Support and enthusiasm were introduced into the analysis at the second step, and so the percentage of the explained self-confidence variable is 11.1% higher and is now 29.2% ($R = 0.541$). The increase in the explained variance percentage is statistically significant ($F = 22.492$; $p < 0.001$). Support is a more significant predictor ($\beta = .353$; $t = 4.087$; $p < 0.01$) than enthusiasm ($\beta = .157$; $t = 2.431$; $p < 0.02$); however, both variables have a statistically significant independent contribution to student self-confidence.

Support ($r = 0.49$; $N = 290$; $p < 0.01$) and enthusiasm ($r = 0.39$; $N = 290$; $p < 0.01$) are positively correlated with self-confidence, i.e., the students' self-confidence grows with an increase in support and enthusiasm. Additional analyses show that with this step, the portion of the variance explained by the variables from the first step of the regression analysis decreases; here support thus explains 17.2% and enthusiasm 6.2% of the self-confidence variance. In line with the set hypothesis, teachers' support and enthusiasm were proven to be predictors of student self-confidence.

Such a result could have been foreseen because empathic and positive teachers nurture self-confidence in their students by trying to understand them, providing them with help when needed and believing in the possibility of progress for each student. Klem and Connell (2004) have determined that teacher support does not have an equal effect on younger and older students: low teacher support has a more negative effect on younger students, while older students have more benefits from high levels of teacher support. Therefore, it would be advisable to pay special attention to providing adequate support to students during the early years of schooling.

The implemented hierarchical regression analysis examined the contribution of the demographic variables and the teachers' support and enthusiasm to anticipating mathematics anxiety in two basic steps. The students' demographic variables were introduced (age and gender) in the first step and teacher support and enthusiasm in the second. Before the regression analysis was conducted, the correlations between the variables were checked, and it was determined that all the correlations were moderate but significant, with 1% risk.

Not all the variables are distributed normally, but the distributions are neither bimodal nor U distributions and are mostly symmetrically shaped. Furthermore, the unexplained part of the criterion variance (residuals) is distributed normally. The Durbin-Watson test was close to 2 (1.726), i.e., it does not indicate the existence of multicollinearity, and the same is verified by the VIF factors lower than 4 (in range from 1.000 to 2.994).

Table 3 presents the results of the regression analysis regarding the regression coefficient of $R = 0.547$, i.e., about 29.9% of the explained mathematics anxiety variance based on the introduced predictors.

Table 3: Contribution of support and enthusiasm in explaining mathematics anxiety

	ΔR^2	β	t	p
1				
gender		.09	1.73	.084
grade (age)		.48	9.23	.000
$R = 0.484$; $R^2 = 0.235$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0.229$; $\Delta F(2/286) = 43.830$; $p < 0.001$				
2	.064**			
support		-.29	-3.35	.001
enthusiasm		-.10	-1.60	.111
$R = 0.547$; $R^2 = 0.299$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0.290$; $\Delta F(2/284) = 13.146$; $p < 0.001$				

R – coefficient of multiple correlation; R^2 – coefficient of multiple determination; ΔR^2 – change in the coefficient of multiple determination; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

The first regression analysis step shows that demographic factors explain 23.5% of mathematics anxiety variance, while only grade (age) is a statistically significant, independent predictor ($\beta = .478$; $t = 9.233$; $p < 0.01$). Correlational analyses indicate that mathematics anxiety increases with age ($r = 0.48$; $N = 289$; $p < 0.01$). Additional analyses show that the grade explains 22.7% of mathematics anxiety variance. Support and enthusiasm were introduced into the analysis at the second step, increasing the percentage of the explained self-confidence variance by 6.4%, which is now 29.9% ($R = 0.547$). The rise of the explained variance percentage is statistically significant ($F = 13.146$; $p < 0.001$). Support is a statistically significant predictor ($\beta = -.288$; $t = -3.346$; $p < 0.01$), while enthusiasm has no independent contribution to explaining the fear of mathematics ($\beta = -.103$; $t = 1.599$; $p > 0.05$).

Support ($r = -0.52$; $N = 289$; $p < 0.01$) and enthusiasm ($r = -0.38$; $N = 289$; $p < 0.01$) are negatively correlated to mathematics anxiety, i.e., the fear of mathematics decreases with an increase in support and enthusiasm. Additional analyses show that this step decreases the portion of the variance explained by the variables from the first step of the regression analysis, where support explains 14.9% and enthusiasm 3.9% of mathematics anxiety variance.

It is not surprising that mathematics fear increases with age. Students who struggle with mathematics early in school normally develop an aversion towards the subject (Mathai, 2014, p. 189, acc. to Davadas and Lay, 2020). Over the course of time, students are likely to have had negative experiences in maths classes, so we can assume that precise, timely support from the teacher could have eased their fear. According to the students' assessments, younger students receive more support than older students (Klem and Connell, 2004), and the level of support should not decrease if we consider the results of this study. By researching the attitude towards mathematics in Romanian students (10/11 to 14/15 years old, $N = 337$), Marchis (2011) concluded that the most significant factor was the teacher: the teacher's attitude towards mathematics and the amount of self-confidence and support he/she provides for the students influence their attitudes toward mathematics. The findings from a study by Katz et al. (2009) in two Israeli schools suggest that when it comes to their pronounced needs, students at different levels can perceive various tiers of teacher support and that teacher support could be more important for students who express a higher needs level. The fear of mathematics can be lessened by providing efficient support, but it needs to be provided in due time, continuously and with undiminished intensity.

Conclusions

In this study we aimed to examine the contribution of teachers' support and enthusiasm to explaining self-confidence and mathematics anxiety in primary-school students. According to our results, we can infer that the variables regarding students (*confidence* and *anxiety*) are given lower evaluations than those pertaining to the teachers (*support* and *enthusiasm*). Teacher support has proven to be a statistically significant predictor of students' self-confidence and mathematics anxiety, whereas enthusiasm makes an independent contribution to explaining student self-confidence.

The findings of this study show the importance of teachers in the students' perception of mathematics self-confidence and fear of mathematics. In designing the programme for teacher education and programmes of permanent education, the role of teacher support in realising the planned learning outcomes should be taken into consideration, not only academic outcomes but also social ones. The results could, furthermore, represent a starting point for future research to explore additional variables as well (besides teacher support and enthusiasm), in order to finally create a more incentivised educational environment for all students.

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INKLUZIVNOST DODATNE PODPORE IN POMOČI ZA UČENCE

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Izvleček/Abstract Raziskave kažejo, da so rešitve na področju izobraževanja otrok s posebnimi potrebami uspešne pri izboljšanju njihovih akademskih dosežkov, manj pa pri njihovi socialni vključenosti. V članku je predstavljena študija primera dodatne podpore mobilnih specialnih in rehabilitacijskih pedagogov učencem, za katere so na šolah presodili, da potrebujejo dodatno spodbudo pri doseganju ciljev, niso pa identificirani kot učenci s posebnimi potrebami. Zanimalo nas je razumevanje pojma inkluzije in ali se aktivnosti podpore učencem prekrivajo z že uveljavljenimi praksami. Ugotovili smo neenotno razumevanje pojma inkluzije ter usmerjenost v drugačno sodelovanje z učenci. Kljub spodbudnim ugotovitvam je oblikovanje čim manj izključujočih praks velik izziv.

Inclusiveness of additional support and assistance for students

Research shown that solutions for children with special education needs are successful in improving their academic performance, but less successful in improving their social inclusion. This article presents a case study of additional support from mobile special and rehabilitation educators for students who need extra encouragement to achieve their goals but are not identified as children with special needs. The research focus was understanding of inclusion and identifying overlapping activities with established practices. A patchy understanding of inclusion was found and a focus on working differently with students. Despite the encouraging findings, designing inclusive practices stays a major challenge.

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Uvod

Inkluzija in inkluzivnost kot vrednotna naravnost sta znotraj vzgojno-izobraževalnega sistema temeljno vodilo in vse bolj tudi kriterij presoje ustreznosti različnih sistemskih odzivov na šolanje otrok s posebnimi potrebami in drugih pogosto izključenih skupin učencev (Audrin, 2015; Florian, 2014, 2015; Lesar, 2019; Thomas, 2013). Če je sprva pojem inkluzija zgolj nadomeščal pojem integracija, postaja danes distinkcija med obema pojmomoma vse bolj razvidna. Haug (2017) razlike med pojmomoma opredeli skozi prizmo praks vključevanja oseb s posebnimi potrebami v večinske šole v treh fazah, ki jih lahko prepoznamo tudi v slovenskem šolskem sistemu. Podobno kot v nekaterih drugih evropskih državah so se v Sloveniji večji poskusi vključitve otrok s posebnimi potrebami v večinske šole in t. im. prva faza inkluzije po Haug (prav tam), začeli ob koncu 20. stoletja. Vodilo vključevanja je bilo prepričanje, da bo fizična vključitev učenca sama po sebi imela pozitivne učinke. Vendar se je v tujini že v sedemdesetih letih prejšnjega stoletja izkazalo, da sprememba lokacije izobraževanja ne odpravi segregacije, marginalizacije in diskriminacije učencev, podobne kritike pa so bile izpostavljene tudi v Sloveniji (Lesar, 2009). Haug (2017) drugo fazo razvoja inkluzije opredeli v smislu ožje naravnosti ukrepov vključevanja na sam pedagoški proces. V Sloveniji lahko takšno razumevanje inkluzije zaznamo predvsem v letih po sprejetju *Zakona o usmerjanju oseb s posebnimi potrebami* (ZOUPP-1, 2011) leta 2000, ki je kljub nekaterim spremembam, aktualen še danes. Učenci s posebnimi potrebami naj bi postali bolj polnopravni člani oddelkov in šole s tem, ko imajo dostop do prilagojenih programov, diferencirane in individualizirane podpore ter prilagojenega ocenjevanja. Posledično se v izobraževalnih ustanovah pojavi potreba po večjem številu kadra s specialno-pedagoško izobrazbo, ti kadri pa nosijo tudi vse večji delež odgovornosti za uspeh in vključenost učencev (Ermenc, Jeznik in Mažgon, 2019). Zadnja, tretja faza oz. širše razumevanje inkluzije po Haug (2017) pa v ospredje postavi prepričanje, da mora šola sprejeti raznolikost kot temeljno pozitivno izhodišče svojega delovanja, inkluzija pa ni vezana zgolj na učence s posebnimi potrebami, temveč je namenjena vsem (pogosto izključenim) učencem. Z drugimi besedami, gre za premik od specialno-pedagoškega razumevanja procesov vključevanja k obče-pedagoškemu (Florian, 2015; Ermenc, Jeznik in Mažgon, 2019; Lesar, 2009, 2019).

V okviru tako široke zasnove razumevanja inkluzije bo v prispevku predstavljena študija primera prakse dodatne pomoči in podpore učencem, ki niso imeli statusa učenca s posebnimi potrebami, pa so na šolah presodili, da za večjo vključenost potrebujejo nekaj dodatne spodbude, usmerjene pomoči in podpore. Slednje ni bilo usmerjeno le v dodatno strokovno pomoč učencu v primeru učnih težav, ampak širše, upoštevajoč tudi posameznikovo izvorno družinsko okolje in splošno socialno vključenost. V nadaljevanju predstavljeni študiji primera je dodatno podporo in pomoč devetim učencem nudila skupina devetih mobilnih specialno rehabilitacijskih pedagogov (v nadaljevanju SRP), ki so sodelovali v projektu Evropskega socialnega sklada *Mreža strokovnih institucij za podporo otrokom s posebnimi potrebami in njihovim družinam* (2017–2020). Šlo je za projekt, ki se je izvajal v okviru prednostne osi *Socialna vključenost in zmanjševanje tveganja revščine* in prednostne naložbe *Aktivno vključevanje, tudi za spodbujanje enakih možnosti in aktivne udeležbe ter povečanje zaposljivosti*. Namenjen je bil razvoju oz. nadgradnji in izvajanju preventivnih programov v strokovnih centrih za celostno obravnavo otrok in mladostnikov. Od leta 2021 je bil omenjeni projekt nadgrajen skozi oblikovanje trinajstih Strokovnih centrov za otroke in mladostnike s posebnimi potrebami.

Temeljni namen študije lahko opredelimo skozi dva cilja. Kot prvo nas je zanimalo, kako v projekt vključeni mobilni SRP razumejo inkluzijo in na kakšen način se le-ta po njihovi oceni udejanja v praksi. Dolga tradicija ločenega šolanja oseb s posebnimi potrebami in ločenega izobraževanja pedagoških delavcev rezultira v pogosto ločeni obravnavi tako ali drugače izključenih učencev v večinski šoli. Širše razumevanje inkluzije pa odgovornost za vključenost prenaša na vse partnerje vzgojno-izobraževalnega procesa (Gregorčič Mrvar idr., 2020), zato je pomembno tako poznavanje različnih predstav o tem, kaj posameznim strokovnim delavcem pomeni inkluzija, kot tudi oblikovanje bolj inkluzivno naravnanih strategij dela z učenci. Kot drugo nas je tako zanimalo morebitno prekrivanje projektnega modela z že uveljavljenimi sistemskimi ukrepi v šolah (predvsem z dodatno strokovno pomočjo in petstopenjskim modelom učne pomoči za učence z učnimi težavami).

Prepričanja in stališča pedagoških delavcev o inkluziji

Uresničevanje načel inkluzije v pedagoški praksi ni enostaven proces, avtorji različnih raziskav pa ugotavljajo, da poleg zagotavljanja sistemskih možnosti za inkluzijo, na uspešnost procesa vplivajo tudi prepričanja in stališča pedagoških delavcev (Kobal Grum, 2018; Lesar, Majcen in Podlessek, 2020; Schmidt in Vrhovnik, 2017; Štemberger in Riccarda Kiswarday, 2018). Raziskave, ki se ukvarjajo s proučevanjem stališč in pogledov različnih pedagoških delavcev o inkluziji, so usmerjene na proučevanje določene ciljne skupine, npr. študentov pedagogike in andragogike (Mažgon, Jeznik in Skubic Ermenc, 2018), pa tudi na primerjave stališč med različnimi pedagoškimi delavci, npr. med vzgojiteljicami in učitelji (npr. Štembeher in Riccarda Kiswarday, 2018) ter tudi na odnos pedagoških delavcev do specifičnih skupin oseb s posebnimi potrebami (Kuronja, Čagran in Schmidt, 2019). Manj pa je raziskav, v katerih bi bile preučevane razlike med specialno-rehabilitacijskimi pedagogi in ostalimi pedagoškimi delavci. Izpostavimo lahko ugotovitve raziskave (Jeznik in Kotnik, 2018), kjer so bili primerjani pogledi specialno-rehabilitacijskih pedagogov, mentorjev in prostovoljcev, ki so se udeležili *Mednarodnega festivala Igraj se z mano*. Gre za festival, ki si že desetletja pod organizacijo Centra Janeza Levca v Ljubljani in Društva za kulturo inkluzije prizadeva za izvedbo številnih aktivnosti, odprtih za vse, ne glede na različnost. Čeprav je šlo za raziskavo, ki je bila vezana na proučevanje specifičnega konteksta inkluzivno naravnane dogodka, so nakazane ugotovitve zaskrbljujoče. Izkazalo se je, da so predstavniki društev in nevladnih organizacij v povprečju bolj naklonjeni inkluziji kot zaposleni v splošnih in specializiranih vzgojno-izobraževalnih ustanovah. Hkrati pa se prav slednji ocenjujejo kot najboljše usposobljeni za spodbujanje inkluzivne skupnosti. Kot je izpostavljeno v raziskavi, to utrjuje prepričanje, da je zagotavljanje inkluzije znotraj vzgojno-izobraževalnih ustanov predvsem v domeni specialne in rehabilitacijske pedagogike in ne vrednota celotne skupnosti, vrednota na sebi, kot to predpostavlja širši pogled na inkluzijo. Z drugimi besedami, vzpostavlja se vprašanje, ali gre pri tem za dominacijo specialno-pedagoškega diskurza o inkluziji, ki pa ga lahko razumemo v luči ožjega razumevanja inkluzije (Haug, 2017).

Dodatna strokovna pomoč in petstopenjski model pomoči učencem z učnimi težavami

Poleg prepričanj pedagoških delavcev pa je pomemben temelj uresničevanja inkluzije tudi omogočanje določenih ukrepov in prilagoditev na sistemski ravni. V nadaljevanju izpostavljamo dve, v našem prostoru dobro uveljavljeni strategiji, pravico učencev s posebnimi potrebami do dodatne strokovne pomoči (v nadaljevanju DSP) in petstopenjski model pomoči učencem z učnimi težavami.

DSP je pravica otrok in mladostnikov, ki imajo izdano odločbo o usmeritvi v izobraževalni program s prilagojenim izvajanjem in dodatno strokovno pomočjo (ZOUPP-1, 2011). Delež učencev, ki imajo v Sloveniji odločbo o usmeritvi v določen izobraževalni program, je primerljiv z ostalimi evropskimi državami in se v zadnjih letih ustavlja okoli 8 % celotne populacije šoloobveznih otrok. Okoli 2 % populacije se šola v specializiranih vzgojno izobraževalnih ustanovah, okoli 6 % populacije pa je vključenih v običajne šole (Statistika in analize ..., 2020). DSP je znotraj veljavnega sistema vzgoje in izobraževanja organizirana na dva načina: kot dodatna strokovna pomoč, ki jo izvaja mobilna specialno rehabilitacijska služba kot del pomoči, ki jo običajnim šolam nudijo specializirane vzgojno izobraževane ustanove, ali pa so izvajalci DSP zaposleni na matičnih šolah učencev s posebnimi potrebami.

Leta 2016 je bila opravljena evalvacija različnih oblik dodatne strokovne pomoči, ki je otrokom dodeljena v skladu z veljavno zakonodajo (Vršnik Perše idr., 2016). Raziskava je med drugim pokazala pomemben pozitiven učinek DSP na akademske dosežke, manj učinka pa naj bi imel DSP na socialno vključevanje učencev, kar avtorje poročila vodi k predlogu, da se okrepi tudi druge vrste strokovne pomoči za otroke, hkrati pa se premisli in spremeni obstoječe prakse.

Manjše spremembe na področju dela z učenci so bile uvedene že po letu 2008, ko je bil v okviru projekta *Strokovne podlage za nadaljnji razvoj in uresničevanje Koncepta dela "Učne težave v osnovni šoli"* (Magajna, Čačinovič Vogrinčič, Kavkler, Pečjak in Bregar-Golobič, 2008) predstavljen tako imenovan petstopenjski model učne pomoči oz. kontinuum pomoči učencem z učnimi težavami, izjava o uresničevanju zastavljenih korakov pa je od leta 2015 sestavni del dokumentacije ob vložitvi zahtevka za usmerjanje posameznika kot osebe s posebnimi potrebami v določen izobraževalni program.

Prva stopnja pomoči je pomoč učitelja, ki s pomočjo notranje diferenciacije in ob upoštevanju načel individualizacije izpelje čim več ukrepov, s katerimi se zmanjšajo ali pa odpravijo učne težave posameznega učenca. Na tej stopnji pomoči se pomoč nanaša tudi na pomoč učencu v okviru dopolnilnega pouka ter v okviru podaljšanega bivanja (Magajna idr., 2008). Če pri tem učitelj ni uspešen oz. če učitelj presodi, da potrebuje ob tem pomoč, se mu pri naslednjem koraku pridruži šolska svetovalna služba. Naloga šolske svetovalne službe je v tej fazi trojna. Šlo naj bi hkrati za opazovanje učenca in svetovanje staršem oz. skrbnikom učenca, kot tudi za pomoč in svetovanje učitelju (prav tam, Čaćinovič Vogrinčič, 2009). Pri tretjem koraku gre za nudenje skupinske ali individualne učne pomoči učencu, po potrebi pa se opravijo tudi dodatni diagnostični postopki. Če tudi to ni dovolj, naj bi se v četrtem koraku vključilo svetovanje zunanje ustanove, katerih mreža je pogosto vezana le na večja mestna središča. Peti korak pomeni uvedbo postopka usmerjanja v skladu z veljavno zakonodajo (ZOUPP-1, 2011).

Metodologija

Študija primera: modificirana izvedba DSP

Kljub izpostavljenim sistemskim rešitvam ne moremo zaključiti, da smo v Sloveniji optimalno uspešni pri uresničevanju načel inkluzije v pedagoški praksi. Irena Lesar (2018, str. 125) strne nekatere dokaze, da je naš šolski prostor ob obstoječih sistemskih rešitvah prežet s specialno-pedagoško paradigmo: izhajanje iz individualistične perspektive, ki predpostavlja prilagoditev posameznika skupnosti, v katero je vključen; medicinska obravnava posameznika s posebnimi potrebami vodi v iskanje rešitev na ravni telesa in ne širše; oblike pomoči se oblikujejo glede na medicinske diagnoze in ne na osnovi razmisleka o tem, kje in kako se oseba najbolje uči; DSP se izvaja po sistemu »pull out« izven razreda, poučevalna praksa učitelja pa ostaja nespremenjena idr.

Nekatera izpostavljena spoznanja, ki o(ne)mogočajo uresničevanje inkluzije v praksi, so botrovala k oblikovanju aktivnosti v okviru projekta Evropskega socialnega sklada *Mreža strokovnih institucij za podporo otrokom s posebnimi potrebami in njihovim družinam*. Širša ideja projekta je bila povezana z realizacijo dela predlogov Bele knjige (2011), ki je predvidela ustanovitev mreže strokovnih in podpornih centrov ter referenčnih vrtcev in šol.

Strokovni centri naj bi predstavljali središča visoko kompetentnih strokovnjakov, ki lahko z inovativnimi rešitvami, strategijami in metodami dela nudijo ustrezno podporo otrokom in mladostnikom, njihovim družinam, vrtcem in šolam ter drugim ustanovam, ki delajo z otroki s posebnimi potrebami. Centri naj bi bili tudi povezovalne ustanove med zdravstvom, socialno, vzgojno-izobraževalnim sistemom in družino. Tako naj bi omogočili in dopolnili obstoječe oblike pomoči, nujne za posameznikov optimalen razvoj in socialno vključenost. Deloma se podobna ideja verjetno o uresničuje tudi skozi novoustanovljene *Centre za zgodnjo obravnavo*, ki so skladno z *Zakonom o celostni zgodnji obravnavi predšolskih otrok s posebnimi potrebami (ZOPOPP)* (2017) prevzeli vodenje postopka usmerjanja otrok na ravni predšolske vzgoje, uspešnost delovanja centrov pa bo razvidna po opravljenih evalvacijah uresničevanja zastavljenih ciljev v praksi.

Ena od aktivnosti omenjenega projekta je bila namenjena podpori učencem, ki (še) niso imeli odločbe o usmeritvi v določen izobraževalni program, pa so na šolah prepoznali, da bi jim pomoč mobilnega SRP koristila. Osnovna ideja je bila, da se za učence razvije strategije pomoči, ki ne bi bile usmerjene le v dodatno strokovno pomoč učencu v primeru učnih težav ali posebnih potreb, ampak širše, upoštevajoč tudi posameznikovo izvorno okolje (pomoč staršem oz. skrbnikom otroka) in splošno socialno vključenost. V nadaljevanju bomo odgovorili na dva vprašanja:

- Kako v projekt vključeni mobilni SRP razumejo inkluzijo in na kakšen način se le-ta po njihovi oceni udejanja v praksi?
- Ali in na kakšen način se pomoč in podpora učencem znotraj projekta prekriva z uveljavljenimi sistemskimi rešitvami (DSP in petstopenjski model pomoči učencem z učnimi težavami)?

Opis proučevane populacije

V študijo primera je bilo vključenih 9 učencev in 9 mobilnih SRP, ki so v šolskem letu 2017/18 svojo osnovno delovno obveznost dopolnjevali z urami zgoraj predstavljenega projekta. Vsi mobilni SRP so imeli zahtevano univerzitetno izobrazbo za delovno mesto. Povabljeni so bili tako izvajalci na začetku delovne poti kot tisti, ki imajo več izkušenj. V času raziskave so sodelovali z eno ali z dvema šolama, med katerimi je bila ena velika primestna šola z nad 1000 učenci, večinoma pa je šlo za srednje velike mestne šole. Samoocena kakovosti sodelovanja mobilnih SRP s šolami, ki smo jo izmerili v sklopu naše raziskave, je bila visoka.

Na lestvici od 1 (*Zelo neuspešno*) do 10 (*Zelo uspešno*) nihče ni izbral ocene pod 8, pet ocen se je gibalo med 9 in 10, štirje pa so izbrali oceno 8.

Učence opisujemo na osnovi odgovorov, ki so jih o njih podali mobilni SRP. Ugotovili smo, da je en SRP učenca za sodelovanje v projektu izbral sam, enega je izbralo vodstvo šole, dva šolska svetovalna služba (v nadaljevanju ŠSS), ostalih pet učencev pa je bilo izbranih ob sodelovanju mobilnega SRP, učiteljev, ŠSS ter staršev. V večini primerov je šlo za učence prve triade osnovne šole. Trije so bili v času trajanja raziskave stari 7 let in so obiskovali 2. razred, trije so bili stari 8 let in so obiskovali 3. razred, en učenec je bil star 10 let in je obiskoval 5. razred, dva učenca pa sta obiskovala tretjo triado, en 7. in en 8. razred.

Med trditvami, povezanimi z učenci, so mobilni SRP štirikrat izbrali izjavo, da *učenec nima takšnih težav, da bi ga zaradi tega bilo potrebno usmeriti kot učenca s posebnimi potrebami*. Po dvakrat sta bili izbrani izjavi: *učence bi po moji oceni moral biti v postopku usmerjanja, vendar postopek do sedaj ni bil sprožen* in *učenec bi po moji oceni moral biti usmerjen, a kljub svetovanju staršem ali skrbnikom, da vložijo vlogo za usmerjanje, postopek ni bil pričet*. Enkrat je bila izbrana izjava, da *je bil otrok usmerjan na predhodni stopnji izobraževanja*, nikoli pa, da *je učenec v postopku usmerjanja*.

Pri opredelitvi prvih opažanj pri izbranem učencu (vprašanje se je glasilo: *Opišite vašo prva opažanja o učencu_ki*) je večina mobilnih SRP izpostavila več stvari. Le en zaradi nepoznavanja učenca ni opredelil ničesar. V šestih primerih so med drugim izpostavljene *učne težave*, le v enem primeru je eksplicitno navedeno, da je izbran učenec *učno uspešen*. V treh primerih je izpostavljena *ustrezna socialna vključenost učenca*, v dveh primerih pa so izpostavljene tudi *vedenjske težave*. V treh primerih je izpostavljeno *neugodno socialno ekonomsko izvorno okolje otroka*.

Mobilni SRP so opredeljevali tudi poglavitne težave učencev. Vprašanje se je glasilo: *Če bi imel_a učenec_ka odločbo o usmeritvi, bi verjetno bile njegove_njene poglavitne težave povezane s področjem (označite lahko več odgovorov): a) vedenja; b) doseganja standardov znanja; c) vključenosti v razred kot skupnosti (sprejetost med vrstniki); d) družinske skrbi (zanemarjen otrok); e) vključenosti v razred (tih, nemoteč, neviden, spregledan otrok); f) Drugo*.

Pet vprašanih je izbralo odgovor *težave na področju doseganja standardov znanja*, trije so izbrali odgovor *družinske skrbi (zanemarjen otrok)*, dva odgovor *vedenje*, dva *vključenost v razred kot skupnost (sprejetost med vrstniki)* in en *drugo* (*Ni opaziti, da bi potrebovala usmeritev, le dopolnilni pouk; Neverbalne specifične učne težave*). Enkrat je bil izbran odgovor *vključenost v razred (tih, nemoteč, neviden, spregledan otrok)*.

Kot glavni kriterij izbire učenca (vprašanje se je glasilo: *Opišite glavne kriterije, ki ste jim sledili pri izbiri učenca_ke, ki ste ga povabili k sodelovanju v projekt*) je bilo trikrat navedeno, da naj bi šlo za učenca, ki *nima odločbe* in da je možno *dobro sodelovanje s starši*. Ostali kriteriji so bili še *dobro sodelovanje z razredničarko*, *otrok iz nespodbudnega okolja*, *prešolan otrok* in *učenec prve triade*.

Zbiranje in obdelava podatkov

Na uvodnem srečanju junija 2017 so bila v projektu sodelujočim mobilnim SRP predstavljena osnovna izhodišča raziskave s povabilom, da na šolah, s katerimi sicer sodelujejo, izvedejo poizvedbo o tem, katere učence bi bilo smiselno povabiti v sodelovanje v raziskavi in pred realizacijo pridobijo tudi soglasja vključenih oz. njihovih staršev, skrbnikov.

Na drugem srečanju oktobra 2017 so bila sodelujočim mobilnim SRP predstavljena izhodišča raziskave. Za namene študija primera je bil pripravljen avtorski elektronski vprašalnik, na katerega so sodelujoči mobilni SRP odgovarjali v decembru 2017. Vprašalnik je bil posredovan na elektronske naslove sodelujočih. Izpolnjeni vprašalniki so bili kot odgovor na elektronsko pošto posredovani avtorici raziskave. Vprašalnik je bil sestavljen iz sklopa splošnih vprašanj (izobrazba, število let delovnih izkušenj, velikost šole ipd.), vprašanj o učencu oz. učenki, s katero je mobilni SRP sodeloval v okviru raziskave (opažanja o otroku, kriteriji za izbor otroka itd.) in sklopa vsebinskih vprašanj (razumevanje inkluzije, podobnosti in razlike med modelom pomoči in podpore ter DSP in petstopenjskim modelom pomoči ipd.).

Del vprašanj je bilo zaprtega tipa, del pa odprtega tipa. Podatki so bili obdelani na dveh ravneh. Odgovore na zaprti tip vprašanj smo obdelali na nivoju deskriptivne statistike (f). Odgovore na vprašanja odprtega tipa pa smo najprej uredili, razčlenili na enote kodiranja in jim pripisali temeljne pojme oziroma kode. Slednje smo združili v kategorije, ki smo jih nato primerjali med seboj in jih razporedili v domnevne odnose, na podlagi česar smo oblikovali interpretacije. Izjava posameznika je lahko razvrščena v več kategorij, zato je izjav več kot pa je bilo sodelujočih mobilnih SRP v raziskavi.

Marca 2018 je bilo s sodelujočimi mobilnimi SRP organizirano tretje srečanje. Srečanje je bilo namenjeno predstavitvi prvih obdelav pridobljenih podatkov. Udeleženci so imeli priložnost, da so dodatno pojasnili svoja razmišljanja in s tem sooblikovali ali pa potrdili interpretacije podatkov (Telban, 2014), kar je pomembna prednost kvalitativno zastavljenih raziskovalnih pristopov, npr. študije primera.

Rezultati

Razumevanje in uresničevanje inkluzije

Glede na nekatere uvodoma predstavljene raziskave o pogledih pedagoških delavcev na inkluzijo smo predpostavili, da je razumevanje inkluzije pri specialno-rehabilitacijskih pedagogih ožje (Haug, 2017), povezano predvsem z integrativnim vidikom vključevanja učencev v šolsko sredino, v ospredju pa doseganje akademskega znanja in specialno-didaktične prilagoditve učnega procesa. Rezultati analize so razvidni v tabeli 1, v nadaljevanju pa podatke dopolnjujemo še z izbranimi izjavami.

Tabela 1: Razumevanje inkluzije

Kategorija	Koda	Število
Ožje razumevanje inkluzije	Vključenost v razred večinske šole Specialno-didaktične prilagoditve	3
Ožje in širše razumevanje inkluzije	Za vse učence Bogatenje skupnosti	2
Širše razumevanje inkluzije	Okolje se prilagaja posamezniku Obče-pedagoške spremembe učnega procesa Prilagajanje okolja za vse otroke na vseh ravneh izobraževanja Sprememba kulture vzgojno-izobraževalne ustanove	4

S kvalitativno analizo podatkov lahko le deloma potrdimo zgoraj zapisno predpostavko. V zapisih se odraža vse od ožjega do širšega razumevanja inkluzije. Ožje razumevanje vključuje poudarek na vključenosti in šolski uspešnosti posameznika v razredu večinske šole, kar ilustrira naslednji zapis: *Pod pojmom inkluzija razumem vključenost učenca s posebnimi potrebami v redno osnovno šolo in s tem prilagajanje okolja otroku, da bo le-ta lahko uspešen v šoli, ki jo obiskuje.*

Pomen specialno-didaktičnih prilagoditev ilustrira sledeči zapis: *Pri tem pa se mu prilagodijo metode dela, pripomočki, čas in prostor, obenem pa se iščejo še druge možnosti, s katerimi bi lahko otrok pridobil različne izkušnje za uspešno vključenost v družbo.*

V dveh zapisih lahko prepoznamo prepletanje ožjega in širšega razumevanja inkluzije.

V enem primeru gre za razmislek o vseh učencih: *Seveda naj bi to veljalo tudi za učence, ki niso usmerjeni kot otroci s PP, vendar imajo določene primanjkljaje oziroma posebnosti.*

V drugem pa je v ospredju razumevanje drugačnosti kot bogatenje skupnosti: *Mislím, da je to tudi priložnost za bogatenje ostalih otrok in tudi učiteljev na šolah.*

V štirih primerih je prevladovalo širše razumevanje inkluzije. Vsak zapis odraža različen poudarek. Enkrat je v ospredju težnja, da se okolje prilagaja posamezniku: *Pod pojmom inkluzivnost razumem, da je okolje (v našem primeru šola) prilagojeno potrebam manjšine (nasprotje od integracije).* V drugem zapisu je v ospredju razmislek o potrebi po obče-pedagoških spremembah učnega procesa: *Ne le, da smo usmerjeni na otrokove težave in primanjkljaje, pač pa predvsem kaj otrok potrebuje. S tem mislim, da bi se moralo poučevanje prilagoditi vsem otrokom. Pogosto opažam, da so otroci željni znanj, vendar jih sprejemajo na drugačne načine ... zavračajo frontalne oblike poučevanja. Nove generacije otrok vedno bolj kažejo potrebe po gibanju med učenjem, lažje, hitreje in z zanimanjem sprejemajo informacije, ki so jim posredovane po več senzornih poteh. Seveda pa je za takšen način poučevanja potrebna velika fleksibilnost učitelja, morda tudi manjša skupina otrok ter možnost uporabe različnih pripomočkov. Vsekakor je učitelj glavna oseba v procesu inkluzije, vendar menim, da bi moral imeti večjo podporo in pomoč.*

V enem zapisu je poudarek na prilagajanju učnega okolja za vse otroke na vseh ravneh izobraževanja: *V procesu vzgoje in izobraževanja od vrtca do fakultete imamo učence, dijake in študente iz drugega jezikovnega in kulturnega okolja, ki potrebujejo posebne prilagoditve učnega procesa in učnega okolja, če želimo, da se v vrtcih in šolah dobro počutijo in so uspešni.*

Enkrat pa gre za težnjo po spremembi kulture vzgojno-izobraževalne ustanove: *Inkluzija poskuša delovati v smeri spreminjanja kulture vzgojno-izobraževalne ustanove, v smeri sprejetosti vsakega posameznika.*

Ugotovimo lahko, da med v raziskavo vključenimi mobilni SRP prepoznamo mešan diskurz o razumevanju inkluzije. Ugotovitev dopolnjujemo z odgovori mobilnih SRP na vprašanje, do kakšne mere se opisana predstava o tem, kaj je inkluzija, udejanja v šolski praksi. Na lestvici od 1 do 10 (1 = *Se sploh ne uresničuje*, 10 = *Se popolnoma uresničuje*) je bila enkrat bila izbrana ocena 3, dvakrat je bila izbrana ocena 5, enkrat je bila označena ocena med 5 in 6, štirikrat ocena 6 in enkrat ocena 9. Ugotovimo lahko, da se to, kar mobilni SRP opredelijo kot inkluzijo, le deloma udejanja v praksi. Sodelujoči so svojo odločitev dodatno utemeljili in pojasnili. Dobili smo zelo raznolike utemeljitve, ki so predstavljene v nadaljevanju. V treh primerih je bilo neudejanjanje inkluzije povezano z učiteljem in z njegovo držo, pripravljenostjo za udejanjanje inkluzije.

Navajamo primer zapisa: *Nekateri učitelji so predani svojemu poklicu, se samoizobražujejo, so željni sodelovanja s specialnimi pedagogi, jih sprejmejo tudi kot suport v razredu, sprejemajo in se po svojih zmoglostih tudi poslužujejo drugačnih oblik in metod dela, s katerimi otroci lažje usvajajo znanja. Poskušajo razumeti primanjkljaje otrok, ki prihajajo iz manj spodbudnega družinskega okolja ali otroke s šibkimi socialno-emocionalnimi veščinami ter šibkimi izvršilnimi funkcijami ter uvidijo kakšne pristope in načine pomoči tak otrok potrebuje. Kadar učitelj pozna in sprejme tudi različne dejavnike okolja iz katerega otrok prihaja, mu tudi lažje pomaga pri razvijanju področij, na katerih ima primanjkljaje.*

V treh primerih se razlogi nanašajo na osredotočenost le na učence z odločbami o usmeritvi: *Učenci, ki so usmerjeni, imajo dokaj veliko podpore, so vodeni in spremljani. S pomočjo ur dodatne strokovne pomoči pridobivajo dodatna znanja učnih strategij, katera jim pomagajo pri premagovanju primanjkljajev. Zaradi oblikovanja strokovnih skupin, sodelovanja z učitelji, vodstvom, svetovalno službo ter starši jim je nudena celostna pomoč. V praksi pa vseeno opažam, da je vedno več otrok, ki niso usmerjeni, a bi vseeno potrebovali neke vrste pomoči. Bodisi učno pomoč, pomoč pri razumevanju socialnih odnosov, razumevanja čustev, bodisi zaradi finančnih težav družine ali posebnih družinskih situacij, zaradi katerih so starši nezmožni nuditi potrebno pomoč svojemu otroku.*

Kot težava pa je v treh primerih izpostavljena še neustrezna usposobljenosti učiteljev: *... učitelji pa se pogosto tudi čutijo nemočne, ker ne vedo, kako organizirati učni proces, katere metode, oblike in učna sredstva uporabiti. Čutijo, da za takšno poučevanje niso dovolj strokovno usposobljeni in pogosto občutijo dodatno obremenitev.*

Dvakrat je bilo izpostavljeno, da je udejanjanje odvisno tudi od samih učencev. Navajamo primer takšnega zapisa: *Če ocenjujem inkluzivnost na šoli, kjer delam, menim, da ta proces zelo niha od učenca do učenca. Odvisno od motnje, težav ki jih učenec ima, sodelovanja staršev, socialnih razmer, odnosa učenca.*

Dvakrat so bile izpostavljene prilagoditve in njihov način upoštevanja v praksi. Predstavljamo primer zapisa: *Sam odnos, ki ga imajo učitelji do upoštevanja prilagoditev, pa je zelo različen. Nekateri bodo prilagodili le prostor, čas... spet drugi pa bodo tem učencem omogočili preveč prilagoditev. Menim, da specialni pedagogi na tem področju lahko koristno svetujemo in nudimo podporo učiteljem.*

Posamično so se pojavili še odgovori, ki v enem primeru opozarjajo na soobstoj specializiranih ustanov: *Po drugi strani pa je še kar nekaj učencev s PP (npr. glubi in naglušni ter slepi in slabovidni), ki so vključeni v specializirane ustanove in ne v redne OŠ.*

V enem primeru je problematizirana integrativna naravnost šol: *Osebnostno menim, da smo še vedno v večji meri na stopnji integracije. Otroci s primanjkljaji so vključeni v redne osnovne šole in se po svojih zmogljivostih prilagajajo učnemu okolju. Kljub temu, da jim je z zakonom omogočen širok spekter prilagoditev, pa vendar v svoji praksi opažam, da kljub dodatni strokovni pomoči in sodelovanju učitelja s specialnim pedagogom v nekaterih primerih učno okolje še vedno ni prilagojeno otrokom.*

Le ena izjava je naravnana v prid udeležanja inkluzije v praksi. Zapis je predstavljen v celoti: *Na šoli, ki je v projektu, se v resnici udeležanja skoraj do maksimuma še pri učencih, ki nimajo odločb, glede na razpoložljive kapacitete učiteljev in ur.*

Odgovori, ki so jih podali sodelujoči, so obsežni, je pa hkrati razvidno, da mobilni SRP poglobljuje razloge neudeležanja inkluzije vežejo na dejavnike izven svoje profesionalne vloge.

Prekrivanje pomoči in podpore učencem z utečenimi sistemskimi ukrepi

Kot smo izpostavili v prvem delu članka, so dosedanje raziskave o vrednotenju rešitev inkluzivno naravnega izobraževanja v Sloveniji že pokazale, da je ena od pomanjkljivosti DSP usmerjenost v doseganje akademskih dosežkov, socialna vključenost pa je v ozadju (Vršnik Perše idr., 2016). Ker nas je zanimalo, ali s projektno aktivnostjo lahko preusmerimo pozornost iz akademskih tudi na druge cilje vzgojno-izobraževalnega procesa, smo v raziskavi sodelujoče mobilne SRP prosili, da naštejajo in razložijo nekaj splošnih ciljev, ki so jih za učenca zastavili ob začetku projekta. Poudarili smo, da cilji ne rabijo biti enaki ciljem, ki jih sicer zapišejo v individualiziran plan učencev z odločbo o usmeritvi v določen izobraževalni program.

Analiza odgovorov je pokazala, da so bili v enem primeru v ospredju cilji, ki so bili osredotočeni predvsem na socialne kompetence učenca: *Vključevanje v ožje in širše okolje, sprejemanje novega, socialna vključenost, samopodoba, govor in jezik.*

V drugem primeru pa so bili v ospredju akademski dosežki: *Učenka izboljša motivacijo za branje (sama izbere knjigo, ki bi jo prebrala in jo prinese k uri). Učenka izboljša tehniko branja in bralno razumevanje (loči vidno podobne črke, bere z ustreznim tempom, samostojno uporablja strategije pred, med in po branju). Učenka izboljša samokontrolo zapisa (samostojno popravi napake v zapisu, pravilno zapiše pravopisno težje besede).*

Pri ostalih sedmih zapisih je šlo za prepletanje akademskih dosežkov s socialnimi kompetencami. Podajamo primer: *Učenec izboljša dosežke na šolskem področju (branje, pisanje, računanje) – še bolj konkretizirani podcilji znotraj tega.*

Učenec se zaveda svojih čustev v stresnih situacija ter jih zna uravnnavati. Prepozna stresne situacije in v njih nadzoruje svoje vedenje. Učenec ve, kje in kako v stresnih situacijah lahko dobi pomoč.

Drug sistemski ukrep v prid večanja inkluzivnosti šolstva v Sloveniji pa je bila uvedba petstopenjskega modela pomoči za učence z učnimi težavami. Najprej nas je zanimala samoocena poznavanja tega modela s strani mobilnih SRP in zatem še ocena uresničevanja le-tega v praksi (kaj je šola že storila; pomoč modela pri modificirani obliki izvedbe DSP, prekrivanje konceptov idr.).

Ugotovili smo, da pri samooceni poznavanja modela med mobilnimi SRP na lestvici od 1 do 10 (1 = *Ga ne poznam*, 10 = *Ga zelo dobro poznam*) prevladuje najvišja ocena 10. Izbrana je bila šestkrat, ocena 9 je bila izbrana dvakrat, ocena 8 pa enkrat. Pri oceni uresničevanja petstopenjskega modela pomoči v praksi (1 = *Ga sploh ne uresničuje*, 10 = *Ga zelo uspešno uresničuje*) pa so bili vprašani nekoliko bolj skeptični, ocene pa nižje kot pri samooceni poznavanja modela. Enkrat je bila izbrana ocena 5, dvakrat ocena 7, trikrat ocena 8 in trikrat ocena 9.

Pri presoji že izpeljanega postopka izbire in sodelovanja z izbranim učencem v odnosu do petstopenjskega modela pomoči (*kaj vse je šola že storila ...; vam je model v pomoč; se koncept prekriva s projektnimi aktivnostmi ...*) so vprašani podali različne odgovore. Dva odgovora nakazujeta na neustrezno izvajanje petstopenjskega modela pomoči v praksi. Razvidno je, da v primeru ene učenke koraki petstopenjskega modela sploh niso bili izvedeni, ker je šola v celoti spregledala učenkine težave: *Učenka v 5-stopenjski model ni bila vključena, ker so bile njene težave vrsto let spregledane. Ko jim je bila pomoč ponujena so jo starši sprva zavračali zaradi bojazni pred stigmato. Zdaj pa so vseeno ugotovili, da učenka pomoč potrebuje in se razveselili možnosti vključitve v Projekt in se nadejajo sprožitve postopka usmerjanja v kolikor se bo to izkazalo za potrebno.*

Iz podanih odgovorov gre razbrati še, da se petstopenjski model pomoči deloma pokriva z aktivnostmi v okviru opisane raziskave, le da akademski dosežki učencev niso tako v ospredju: *Menim, da se koncept prekriva s projektnimi aktivnostmi, saj je delo z učenko podobno zadnji stopnji petstopenjskega modela. Obenem pa projekt dopušča več možnosti oz. drugačne možnosti za sodelovanje z učenko in starši. Večji poudarek je na delu s starši in sodelovanju z učitelji ter šolsko svetovalno službo.*

Mobilni SRP so korake pomoči dopolnili z možnostmi za številne druge aktivnosti z učenci. Za ilustracijo takšnega razmišljanja v nadaljevanju navajamo del odgovora: *Koncept pomoči se mi zdi ustrezno zastavljen in odlično bi bilo, če bi ga upoštevali oziroma dosledno izvajali v vseh šolah. Prepogosto so učitelji preveč storilnostno usmerjeni in največkrat prepoznavajo odstopanja le na akademski znanjih.*

Zaradi celotnega načina šolskega sistema smo po mojem mnenju preveč usmerjeni na pomoč otrokom le na kognitivnih področjih, s tem pa zanemarjamo ostala področja otrokovega razvoja, ki je tudi zelo pomembno, da bo kasneje lahko bolje razvijal svoje potencialne.

Pri samooceni načrta izvedbe aktivnosti je sedem vprašanih izbralo odgovor, da išče drugačne načine sodelovanja, izvedbe ur, le en pa odgovor, da je načrt aktivnosti enak kot za ostale učence z odločbo in IP. Pod možnost drugo je en mobilni SRP dodal še povezovanje obeh možnih odgovorov, predvsem v smislu dogovarjanja za prilagoditve z učitelji. Na osnovi odgovorov zaključujemo, da izvedenih aktivnosti ne gre enačiti z že obstoječimi oblikami podpore in pomoči učencem z ali brez posebnimi potrebami na šolah, ki so v svoji osnovi usmerjenosti izrazito orientirani na delo znotraj šolskega okolja. Opisi zastavljenih aktivnosti znotraj projektne aktivnosti pa so bili zelo raznoliki in skladni s ponudbo v urbanem okolju izvajanja projekta. Povzemamo nekaj načrtovanih aktivnosti: *Sodelovanje z zunanjimi organizacijami (Cent' r Most, Četrtna skupnost Mladi zmaji); Možnosti sodelovanja pri projektih CSD (Božiček za en dan, Dedek Mraz na gim. Bežigrad...); KinoBalon; Delavnice socialnega učenja (manjša skupina); Delavnice s psom terapevtom (še v dogovorih)- bralne urice in delavnice za vedenje in čustvovanje.; Organizacija obiskov brezplačnih dejavnosti, ki so na razpolago (Kinobalon, obiske Dedka Mraza, sprostivne delavnice, koriščenje aktivnosti v okviru Centra Most, Mladi zmaji...); Udeležba na prireditvi Noč v knjižnici ob spremstvu spec. ped. (prespi v šoli); Udeležje se delavnice za novoletni bazar in se aktivno vključi v prodajo izdelkov (pomoč spec. ped.). Udeležje se zaključnega izleta, ki ga organiziramo spec. ped. z zbranim denarjem na bazaru.; - Organizacija medvrstniške pomoči med starejšimi in mlajšimi učenci.*

V enem primeru je bila posebej predlagana skrb za krepitev medvrstniških aktivnosti: *Pomoč v razredu tudi drugim učencem, sodelovalno učenje, popoldansko prostočasno druženje s sošolci, skupen ogled kulturnih prireditev.*

V enem pa tudi skrb za odnose s starši in razrednikom: *Več aktivnega vključevanja staršev (celotne družine) in razredničarke.*

Kljub številnim predlogom o tem, kako izvesti pomoč učencem na način, ki ni osredinjena le na doseganje akademskih ciljev, v odgovorih pogrešamo razmislek o tem, kako v skladu z idejo o participaciji (Rutar, 2013; Kodele, 2017) v načrtovanje in izvedbo aktivnosti vključiti tudi same učence.

Sklepna razprava

Osnovni namen predstavljene študije primera je bil ovrednotenje pomoči in podpore učencem, za katere so strokovni delavci presodili, da bi za večjo vključenost v vzgojno-izobraževalni proces potrebovali nekaj dodatne podpore, spodbude in pomoči, pa hkrati nimajo odločbe o usmeritvi v program kot učenci s posebnimi potrebami. Aktivnosti naj ne bi bile usmerjene le v DSP učencem v primeru učnih težav, ampak širše, skladno z obče-pedagoškim razumevanjem inkluzije (Ermenc, Mažgon in Jeznik, 2019; Florian, 2015; Haug, 2017; Lesar, 2019). To pomeni, da naj bi osredotočenost pretežno na doseganje akademskih vzgojno-izobraževalnih ciljev dopolnjevala tudi osredotočenost na druge cilje, predvsem splošno vključenost posameznika v skupino itd. V iskanju bolj inkluzivno naravnanih pedagoških praks je bila pričujoča študija primera najprej osredotočena na poglede mobilnih SRP na inkluzijo. Kot drugo pa nas je zanimalo povezovanje izvedenih aktivnosti s podobnimi sistemskimi ukrepi, ki so na šolah že utečena praksa (predvsem DSP in petstopenjski model pomoči učencem z učnimi težavami).

V prvem sklopu smo ugotovili, da lahko med mobilnimi SRP prepoznamo mešan diskurz o razumevanju inkluzije. V ospredju ožjih opredelitev inkluzije je bilo vključevanje osebe s posebnimi potrebami v šolsko skupnost brez izrazitega poudarka na prilagajanju skupnosti posamezniku. Izpostavljen je bil pomen učne uspešnosti in specialno pedagoških prilagoditev, ki so razumljene kot ključen dejavnik vzpostavitve inkluzije. V dveh zapisih je sprva ožje naravnano razumevanje pojma inkluzije v drugem delu prešlo v širše, pri čemer je bil dodan razmislek o tem, da so specialno-pedagoške prilagoditve pomembne za vse učence in da bi morali prisotnost oseb s posebnimi potrebami v skupnosti razumeti na način njenega bogatenja. Raznolikost je torej lahko razumljena kot pozitivna vrednota skupnosti. Nekaj izjav pa je bilo takšnih, da že v osnovi nakazujejo širši vidik razumevanja inkluzije. V ospredju je bilo vključevanje na način, da se okolje prilagaja posamezniku. Specialno-pedagoške prilagoditve učnega procesa nadomeščajo obče-pedagoške prilagoditve, namenjene vsem učencem na vseh ravneh izobraževanja, kar vpliva tudi na celotno kulturo in klimo vzgojno-izobraževalne ustanove.

Sklenemo lahko, da smo v naši študiji identificirali preplet ožjega in širšega razumevanja inkluzije. Ko smo mobilne SRP spraševali o udejanjanju inkluzije v praksi, pa smo med njimi zabeležili nizko mero optimizma.

To, kar mobilni SRP sami opredelijo kot inkluzija, se le deloma udejanja v praksi, kar vprašani razumejo kot posledico kombinacije treh razlogov: različne pripravljenosti učiteljev za udejanjanje inkluzije, osredotočenosti učiteljev le na učence z odločbo o usmeritvi v določen izobraževalni program in dvoma v ustrezno usposobljenost učiteljev. Izpostavljeno potrjuje ugotovitve nekaterih drugih raziskav, katerih rezultati opozarjajo na neustrezno izobraževanje učiteljev za delo v raznolikem okolju (Lesar in Žvegljč Mihelič, 2020; Peček in Macura-Milovanović, 2015, 2019). Naj izpostavimo, da so vprašani razloge neudejanjanja inkluzije iskali predvsem izven svoje profesionalne vloge, kar morda nakazuje tudi na nemoč posameznikov pri doseganju inkluzivne vrednotne naravnosti v določeni skupnosti. Slednje odpira tudi vprašanje kakovostnega sodelovanja med različnimi partnerji vzgojno-izobraževalnega procesa in njihove sodegovornosti za procese vključevanja (Gregoričič Mrvar idr., 2020).

V drugem vsebinskem sklopu smo analizirali cilje in aktivnosti dodatne podpore in pomoči. Zanimalo nas je predvsem prekrivanje aktivnosti z že uvedenimi sistemskimi rešitvami (petstopenjski model pomoči z učence z učnimi težavami in DSP). Sodelujoči mobilni SRP so bili usmerjeni v oblikovanje ciljev in aktivnosti, ki naj ne bi bili enaki praksi izvajanja DSP za učence z odločbo o usmeritvi. Ugotovili smo, da si je en mobilni SRP zastavil cilje, ki so bili izraziteje naravnani na socialne kompetence učenca in en, kjer je bil večji poudarek na akademskih dosežkih. Pri večini je šlo za preplet akademskih dosežkov s socialnimi kompetencami. Ugotovili smo še, da mobilni SRP po samooceni dobro poznajo petstopenjski model pomoči učencem z učnimi težavami, ocena uresničevanja le-tega v praksi pa je nekoliko nižja. Vrednotenje aktivnosti glede na prakso petstopenjskega modela pa je pokazalo, da so mobilni SRP korake petstopenjskega modela uspešno nadgradili in dopolnili z drugimi raznolikimi aktivnostmi.

Sklenemo lahko, da projektnih aktivnosti ne gre enačiti z že obstoječimi oblikami podpore in pomoči učencem z ali brez posebnih potreb, neizkoriščen pa ostaja pomen participacije otrok v odločitvah, ki se tičejo prav njih. Tadeja Kodele (2017) je na primer ugotovila, da obstaja pomembna povezanost med kulturo ustanove in stopnjo participacije učencev z učnimi težavami. Po mnenju šolskih svetovalnih delavcev in učencev prav participacija lahko pomembno vpliva na zmanjšanje oz. odpravo učnih težav in k večji motivaciji učencev za šolsko delo (prav tam), verjetno pa tudi na splošno vključenost učencev.

Čeprav ima opisana študija primera omejitve in rezultatov ni mogoče posploševati, lahko opisane aktivnosti mobilne SRP podpirajo pri načrtovanju in izvedbi raznolikih in pestrih dejavnosti vzgojno-izobraževalnega procesa. Ne smemo pa mimo še nekaterih odprtih vprašanj, ki pa presegajo razsežnost pričujoče študije. Izpostavimo lahko predvsem vlogo mobilnega SRP v odnosu do ostalih podpornih služb šole. Specialno-rehabilitacijski pedagogi so v organizacijskem smislu trenutno na šoli lahko zaposleni kot mobilni SRP (kot je to v primeru opisanega projekta), lahko pa so zaposleni neposredno na šoli. V tem primeru se umeščajo v organizacijske organe šole in se njihov odnos z vodstvom, učitelji, učenci in starši verjetno razlikuje od situacij, ko mobilni SRP pride na šolo enkrat ali večkrat tedensko za izvedo ur DSP. Hkrati pa nimamo podatkov o tem, ali se na šolah zaposleni SRP prepoznava kot učitelji ali kot del ŠSS. Gre za vprašanje razumevanja dodatne pomoči in podpore učencem kot temeljne naloge ŠSS ali učitelja (SRP kot drugi učitelj v razredu za učenca z DSP). A vendar naj bi inkluzivnost bolj kot iskanje ustreznih sistemskih rešitev zaposlitve posameznega pedagoškega delavca, pomenila vsakokratno oblikovanje čim manj izključujočih praks in odzivov.

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METHODOLOGICAL PARTICULARITIES IN RESEARCH ON CONTEMPORARY CHILDHOOD IN CROATIA: A PEDAGOGICAL – PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract/Izveček The study aimed to determine the methodological particularities present in research on contemporary childhood. The study methodology involves an analysis of Croatian journals in which the subject of contemporary childhood has been published in the last two years. The inclusion criteria for article analysis were as follows: Social Science discipline, field of Pedagogy and Psychology, participants' age (from 6 to 14 years) and the visibility of the journal citation. The analysis of the contemporary approach included methodological particularities. The results show that these studies of contemporary childhood do not apply "contemporary" approaches to the examination of childhood.

Metodološke značilnosti raziskovanja sodobnega otroštva na Hrvaškem s pedagoško psihološke perspektive

Osnovni namen raziskave je bil prepoznati metodološke značilnosti raziskovanja sodobnega otroštva. Za ta namen so bili analizirani izbrani prispevki iz hrvaških znanstvenih revij, ki obravnavajo sodobno otroštvo, objavljeni v zadnjih dveh letih. Pri analizi gradiva smo uporabili naslednje kriterije, to so: družboslovna veda, področje pedagogike in psihologije, starost udeležencev v raziskavi (6- do 14-letniki) in citiranost revije. Upoštevali smo metodološke posebnosti sodobnih pristopov. Rezultati raziskave kažejo, da se pri preučevanju sodobnega otroštva ne uporabljajo sodobni pristopi.

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Introduction

One of the most valuable determinants of every modern researcher is his willingness to use modern approaches while conducting research. The abundance of research techniques, qualitative and quantitative data analysis and the ready availability of global methodological research enable modern researchers to create a holistic approach to research that will not only identify challenges and potential problems but also successfully address the difficulties which caused them (Dubovicki, 2019b; Dubovicki and Topolovčan, 2020a).

While conducting research in the field of education involving participants aged 6 to 14, we often put an emphasis on respecting ethical principles, obtaining consent for research, ensuring anonymity and other technical details of the study, and we end by neglecting the research methodology (and everything it entails). We often use pre-tested (validated) instruments, or those that are available (to measure what we want to research), and all of that is simply easier when it comes to data analysis itself. Even students opt to use such ready-made instruments for their final or graduate papers. However, the question arises whether we can get the right answers to the complex problems of contemporary childhood based on this traditional approach? Is a modern approach required when it comes to researching modern childhood? Research on pedagogical phenomena, which partly includes insight into contemporary childhood, has recently been carried out by authors who have warned about research not using a contemporary, i.e., holistic approach, especially considering that pedagogical phenomena are dynamic, changeable and difficult to measure (Suzić, 2017). Above all, using a contemporary approach means looking into the future through the prism of contemporary methodology. The results of previous research show that, while preparing and implementing their research, scientists and practitioners mainly focus on researching the present and/or past, and rarely on predicting the future (Burdin, Nutter and Gips, 1984; Dubovicki, 2020). Recently, attention has increasingly been paid to the methodological immaturity of certain studies conducted with children, which unfortunately contributes to lower reliability of the results (Gallacher & Gallagher, 2008). That leads us to the following question: In what ways can children participate in research? Some authors believe that observation is the most appropriate form of research on preschool children (Hajdin, 2009; Petrović-Sočo, 2009).

Participatory methods proved popular in the 1990s among researchers working with children (Dubovicki, 2019a; Mayall, 2002; Prout and James, 1990). It is certainly important that studies involving children achieve ethical and epistemological validity. By focusing on the new approaches in educational research that include participants aged 6 to 14, we sought to establish whether methodological approaches (and methodological particularities) are the topic of research in journals that publish scientific papers dealing with contemporary childhood, and we also wanted to establish whether research on contemporary childhood has been approached in a contemporary way. Keeping that question in mind, we ask ourselves what exactly is contemporary in the contemporary methodological approach. Above all, it should be reflected in a holistic approach, and not by approaching each profession within the specifics of their methodology, plurality of scientific paradigms, mixed methodology, and triangulation, with special emphasis on scientific contribution, especially in the case of topics that have been extensively researched (Bognar, 2012; Dubovicki, Mlinarević and Velki, 2018). While reviewing previous research dealing with this issue, we discovered that only a few papers include thematic/content analyses, which are vital for monitoring and predicting future trends (Dubovicki and Munjiza, 2021). That is why more recent pedagogical research has used a futures technique, Trend Analysis, which provides insight into past and present trends in a clear, systematic way, taking into account the methodological particularities of the historical approach and analysis of documentation, while also predicting potential future trends (Eğmir, Erdem and Koçyiğit, 2017; Dubovicki, Mlinarević and Velki, 2018; Dubovicki and Munjiza, 2019; Dubovicki and Topolovčan, 2020a; 2020b; Topolovčan and Dubovicki, 2019).

In addition to the contemporary methodological approach, one of the main goals of the paper is to open a methodological discussion on the pedagogical and psychological features, possibilities, advantages, and limitations of contemporary childhood research, but also to emphasize the importance of researching contemporary childhood with futurology research methods.

Materials and methods

The main aim of this study was to determine the methodological particularities represented in research on contemporary childhood, as well as the direction of future research in this field. To this end, we needed to take the following steps:

- analyse Croatian journals pertaining to a specific field of science (social sciences) and specific fields of science (pedagogy and psychology) which, in the last 2 years, have contained papers on contemporary childhood (based on predetermined criteria);
- determine the representation of a certain type of methodology (qualitative, quantitative, mixed methodology) in research on contemporary childhood;
- determine the representation of a certain scientific paradigm in the research on modern childhood;
- determine the number of research procedures used in the research on contemporary childhood;
- determine the research design and temporal dimension of research in contemporary childhood research;
- identify trends in contemporary childhood research based on thematic/content paper analysis;
- project potential future trends in contemporary childhood research, based on the established trends.

Given these research aims, we asked the following research question: Has contemporary childhood been researched following a contemporary research approach?.

Part One of the Research Methodology

The methodology in part one of the study involved analysis of Croatian journals that had published papers on contemporary childhood in the past two years (January 2018 – December 2019). The criteria used to select the journals related to a specific field of science (social sciences), specific fields of science (pedagogy and psychology), the age of the research participants (6 to 14 years) and the citation of the journal visible on Scimago Journal & Country Rank. The journals that met these criteria and were included in the analysis are as follows (in alphabetical order): Journal for General Social Issues, Croatian Journal of Education (hereafter, CJOE), Croatian Review of Rehabilitation Research, Jahr – European Journal of Bioethics,

Methodical Review: journal of philosophy of education, New Presence, Psychological Topics, Croatian Journal of Social Policy, Croatian Sociological Review, Management: Journal of Contemporary Management Issues, Organization, Technology & Management in Construction: An International Journal, Police and Security, Safety: Journal for the safety in the work organisation and living environment, Social Psychiatry, Tourism: An International Interdisciplinary Journal, and Interdisciplinary Description of Complex Systems: INDECS.

The criteria used to select articles for more detailed analysis are as follows: participants or age group mentioned in the article are elementary school children (6-14 years), and categorization of papers (original scientific article, review paper, professional paper or preliminary communication). From a total of 806 analysed papers, sixty-six met these criteria, which was only 8.19% (Table 1).

Table 1: Number of papers that met the criteria

Year	Total number of published papers	Number of papers that met the criteria	%
2018	376	37	9.84
2019	430	29	6.74
TOTAL	806	66	8.19

Part Two of the Research Methodology

To achieve comprehensive, precise analysis of the papers, in the second part of the study, we made a thematic/content analysis of those papers that were, according to the criteria, classified as dealing with research on contemporary childhood, and which were used as a basis for predicting possible future trends in researching the issue.

A detailed analysis was conducted with the help of a futures technique, Trend Analysis, which has rarely been used in previous research on this topic (Bigham and Riney, 2014; Dubovicki and Munjiza, 2021; Dubovicki and Topolovčan, 2020a; Topolovčan and Dubovicki, 2019).

Results

Part One of the Research

The analysis of the contemporary approach to research on contemporary childhood included some of the following methodological particularities: paper categorization, type of methodology, representation of the scientific paradigm, number of research procedures, temporal dimension of selected articles and research design.

Paper Categorization

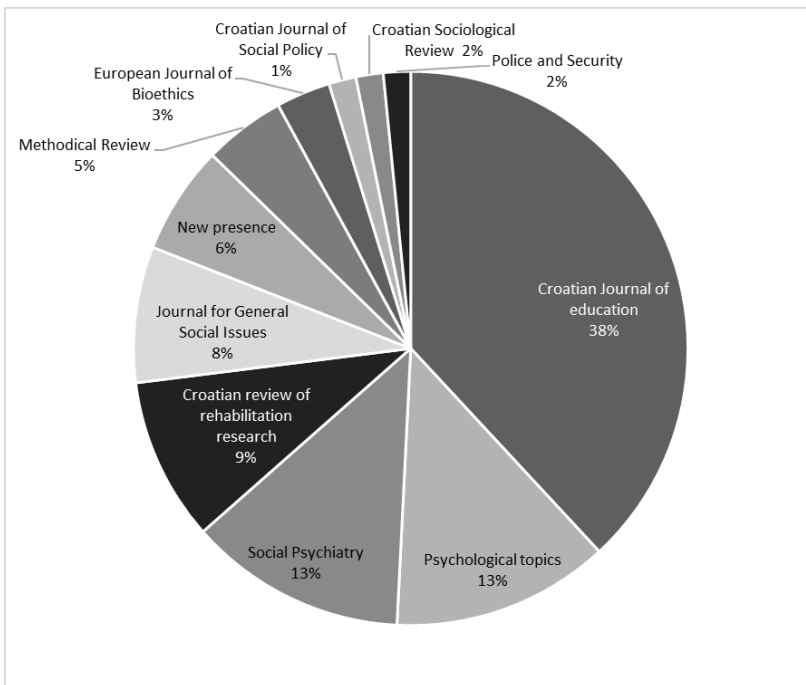


Figure 1: Representation of articles according to selected journals

Figure 1 shows the percentage of published papers by individual journals that met the criteria for the analysis. Most of the papers included in the analysis were from the CJOE, (38%), followed by Psychological Topics (13%), Social Psychiatry (13%), Croatian Review of Rehabilitation Research (9%) and from the Journal for General Social Issues (8%), which was to be expected, given that the titles of these journals indicate that they include papers on similar topics.

Further analysis on methodological particularities showed that, of the total number of papers that were included in the analysis (66), most were categorized as original scientific papers, which is partly because papers in these journals undergo strong preliminary methodological review and are only then sent to reviewers, who follow strict review criteria (established by the journal) in evaluation of submissions (Table 2).

Table 2: Categorization of articles included in the analysis

Categorization	Number of articles according to criteria	%
Original scientific paper	46	69.70
Review paper	8	12.12
Professional paper	7	10.61
Preliminary communication	5	7.57
Total	66	100

In addition, such journals have a strict rule ensuring that every review is conducted by reviewers who are experts in the field for which they are reviewing, and that reviewers are at least at the same peer level as authors. Such journals do not have trouble recruiting reviewers, since these journals can afford to cover the costs of reviews.

Type of Methodology

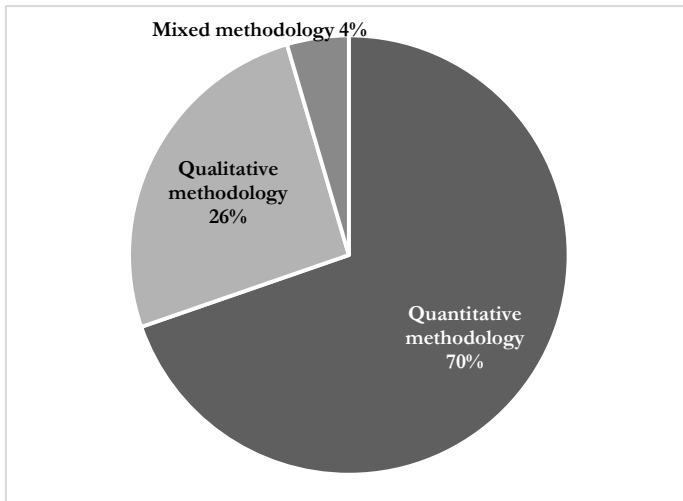


Figure 2: Representation of the type of methodology in the articles

The use of a combination of qualitative and quantitative methodology (i.e., mixed methodology), which certainly provides a holistic approach, is one indicator of modernity in a methodological approach. Therefore, methodologists advocate the use of mixed methodology, which is insufficiently represented in pedagogical and psychological research. That is why an analysis was made according to the type of methodology to which the individual paper belonged, based on the research techniques employed in those papers (Figure 2).

Results show that the least represented type is mixed methodology. These results are consistent with previous research that included the dominant quantitative methodology.

Scientific Paradigm

The results prompted us to further verify the prevalence of scientific paradigms whose pluralism would characterize a modern methodological approach (Figure 3).

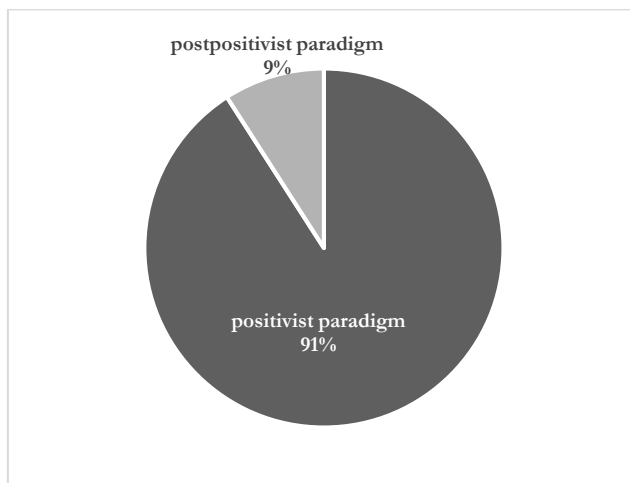


Figure 3: Representation of the scientific research paradigm in the articles

An absolute dominance of the positivist paradigm (91%) was noted in papers dealing with the problems of contemporary childhood. It is generally known that the positivist approach includes methods that allow precise measurement, quantification, manipulation and control of variables and hypothesis testing, while using experiments, quasi-experiments, correlation and survey (Dubovicki, 2017).

In addition to playing a significant role in curricular and educational re-forms, the Cold War also had an impact on the research approaches and methodological frameworks of pedagogical research. The present situation in research on pedagogical and didactic phenomena is mainly a result of the positivist approach, which asserts the possibility of correct understanding of natural and social phenomena, and that the basic task of science is to discover the real nature of reality and its true functioning. Such research aims to achieve an objective understanding of reality based on empirical data. The situation in research on pedagogical phenomena (especially in the Croatian context) has been mentioned by Jagić (2007), Dubovicki (2017), Dubovicki, Mlinarević and Velki (2018) and Topolovčan and Dubovicki (2019).

Number of Research Procedures

Table 3: Number of procedures included in the articles

Procedures	Number of articles	%
Questionnaires	22	33.3%
Polls	8	12.1%
Tests (skill or knowledge)	13	19.7%
Literature review	12	18.2%
Interviews	2	3.0%
Other	4	6.1%
Combinations of these procedures	5	7.6%

Table 3 shows the number of research procedures used in research on contemporary childhood. Most often questionnaires were the sole methodology applied (33.3%), meaning validated and sometimes standardized measurement instruments available for scientists to use for research purposes. Only in rare cases (7.6%), was a combination of procedures applied, indicating that the use modern procedures in contemporary childhood research is still insufficient. This is another indicator that goes in the direction of the mathematization and numbering of data on these phenomena in the field of pedagogy and psychology, methods which undoubtedly belong to the legacy of the Cold War (Topolovčan and Dubovicki, 2019).

Temporal Dimension of Selected Articles and Research Design

All articles included in the study were transversal in design (100%). Most focused on the present (n=55, 83.3%), some on the past (n=11, 16.7%) but none of them focused on the future.

The current situation with Coronavirus disease (COVID-19) has demonstrated that it is vital to invest in education for the future, especially by planning scenarios for varied future educational outcomes. For the same reasons, it is especially important to explore the future by employing futuristic research methods, which increasingly occupy a justifiably equal place among other research techniques (Dubovicki, 2020).

Part Two of the Research

The second part of the research comprised the content analysis (trend analysis), conducted with the help of the futures technique Trend Analysis, which enables researchers to predict, based on previous trends (based on analysis of previous papers and a historical approach), potential trends in the field of contemporary childhood research.

Trends in Contemporary Childhood Research

It should be noted that the thematic/content analysis was a challenge, since some content overlapped between categories, while the content of some papers, despite their title, was more focused on instrument validation than on the research topic for which it was intended.

Research results (January 2018 - December 2019) show that studies of contemporary childhood in all these journals were dominated by research regarding these topics: physical condition (f=6), teaching (quality, media, games; f=5), learning (f=5), children with developmental disabilities (ADHD, visually impaired; f=5), prevention (f=5), different types of disorders (f=4), school success (f=4), therapy (art, therapy with dogs; f=4), children's rights (f=4), different types of violence (f=4) and methodology (most often instrument validation; f=4).

Predicting Future Trends in Contemporary Childhood Research

That leads us to conclude that most papers deal with teaching and teaching-related specifics that, in a way, affect the teaching process, but they also emphasise monitoring (on account of to various mental and health difficulties), and activities focused on mitigation of such conditions, as well as on the facilitation of monitoring of teaching (therapy, physical condition, etc.).

Therefore, we can predict future trends in research on this issue, which will certainly seek solutions for students with disabilities in some form of assistance with monitoring and participating at all stages of the teaching process. We can also predict that, owing to the COVID-19 pandemic, further research will include papers on that exact issue.

Keeping in mind that this research deals with methodological particularities in contemporary childhood research, especially from a pedagogical and psychological perspective, the focus of interest included published papers on methodology, but only four. A more detailed analysis showed that research papers from the field of methodology in the context of contemporary childhood mainly focused on the validation of instruments dealing with the target population.

Discussion

Results from this study answer the set research question: Has the contemporary childhood been researched following a contemporary research approach? The modernity of research appears only in certain titles noted during the thematic/content analysis, but none at all from the methodological framework, which relies on previous, non-contemporary methodological approaches.

The non-modernity of methodological approaches can be seen in the prevalence of the positivist paradigm, the representation of quantitative methodology, the dominance of one research technique that is most often used to detect a state, but not to change it, which is something that we are expected to do, and which represents an important scientific contribution, especially in the area of education. In addition, all sixty-six papers belonged to the domain of transversal research, which leads us to question if observing only what happens now means that we only want to determine the present state? Do we not wonder about contemporary childhood research throughout history (because that might help us avoid repeating the same research of something we already know) or what could we expect (what trends) in the future research of the contemporary childhood?

Researching contemporary childhood does not mean studying current topics regarding contemporary childhood, it is necessary that research be conducted for the benefit of solving the problem which motivated us to conduct certain research, but also with children as active research participants (Cairns, 2001; Christensen & Prout, 2002; Mayall, 2002; Mužić, 2004; Punch, 2002; Rodrigues, 2018).

The mentioned analysis shed a light on another phenomenon that has significantly dispersed topics from the field of education. It is obvious that topics from education can also be found in journals in which one would not expect such topics to be covered, especially according to their title. It is possible that some journals will attribute the scope of topics to the so-called interdisciplinarity and multidisciplinary. However, we believe that topics regarding education should be linked to journals that are "recognizable" precisely for publishing such papers, such as (the analysed) *CJOE*.

Conclusion

Based on the research results, we can conclude that the majority of researchers do not use a contemporary approach when it comes to researching issues in contemporary childhood. Future research focusing on contemporary childhood (children aged 6 to 14) should make more use of methods that include participatory methods, mixed methodology, historical research, and futurology research.

In conclusion, research practice cannot be reduced to ingenious techniques that are pre-planned and carefully applied, and which would guarantee success in the research. Although it is necessary, prior to conducting research, to plan in detail the use of methodology and what to expect from the results and their implementation, we must be aware that all research is partly unpredictable, especially when the participants are children, and we should keep in mind that sometimes even the best plans can take a direction different than desired. Sometimes the unforeseen and unwanted results become the best results because they give us a new perspective and deeper insight into the issues.

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MNENJA IN STALIŠČA SLOVENSkih IN HRVAŠKIH VZGOJITELJEV O USPOSOBLJENOSTI ZA ODKRIVANJE POTENCIALNO NADARJENIH PREDŠOLSkih OTROK

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Izvleček/Abstract Namen raziskave je ugotoviti, ali obstajajo razlike v mnenjih in stališčih slovenskih in hrvaških vzgojiteljev o odkrivanju potencialno nadarjenih otrok ter pri samooceni kompetenc za tovrstno delo, v mnenjih in stališčih o pomenu izobrazbe in usposabljanja ter pri podpori svetovalne službe in staršev. V raziskavi je sodelovalo 542 anketirancev, in sicer 248 (45,8 %) vzgojiteljev iz Slovenije in 294 (54,2 %) iz Hrvaške. Rezultati raziskave kažejo, da obstajajo pri samooceni posameznih kompetenc statistično pomembne razlike med slovenskimi in hrvaškimi vzgojitelji.

Opinions and views of Slovenian and Croatian preschool teachers on their ability to identify potentially gifted preschool children

This research aims to investigate the differences between Slovenian and Croatian preschool teachers in their opinions and views on the identification of potentially gifted children, on the self-assessment of their professional skills in this field, on the importance of education and professional formation, and on the role of school counseling service and children's parents. The survey included 542 participants, 248 (45.8%) preschool teachers from Slovenia and 294 (54.2%) preschool teachers from Croatia. The results show that there are statistically significant differences in self-assessment of individual professional skills between Slovenian and Croatian preschool teachers.

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Uvod

Zgodnje odkrivanje in spodbujanje potencialne nadarjenosti dobiva vse večji pomen. Ob tem se velika pozornost v vseh evropskih državah usmerja tudi na izobraževanje pedagoških delavcev (Tomić, 2012, str. 101; Eurydice, 2009). V vrtcih so zaposleni strokovni delavci, vzgojitelji, katerih naloga in dolžnost je nuditi otrokom optimalne možnosti za celostni razvoj v zgodnjem otroštvu. Ravno na področju zgodnje identifikacije in kasneje edukacije ter spodbujanja razvoja potencialne nadarjenosti pri predšolskem otroku je še vedno premalo storjenega. Pogosto se namreč zgodi, da potencialna nadarjenost predšolskega otroka ni zaznana ali je napačno diagnosticirana (Kukanja Gabrijelčič, 2017; Sutherland, 2012). Vzroki so različni: od pomanjkanja zakonodajnih izhodišč, kurikularnih smernic, programov, izobraževanja vzgojiteljev in sodelovanja s starši do pripravljenosti institucij in strokovnega kadra na spremembe (Ferbežer, 2012; Primožič, 2013).

Za namene empirične raziskave smo z vprašalnikom pridobili mnenja in stališča vzgojiteljev glede nadarjenosti predšolskih otrok ter ugotavljali samooceno vzgojiteljev o kompetencah za odkrivanje in delo s tovrstno skupino otrok. Ugotovitve raziskave so prispevek k ozaveščanju pomena zgodnjega prepoznavanja in odkrivanja potencialno nadarjenih otrok in dela z njimi ter spodbuda za izboljšanje inkluzivne naravnosti pri vzgoji in izobraževanju nadarjenih, kar je pomemben prispevek k pedagoški znanosti.

Pomen odkrivanja potencialno nadarjenih otrok na predšolski stopnji

Odkrivanje potencialno nadarjenih predšolskih otrok je zahtevno in kompleksno opravilo, ki zahteva ustrezno procesno diagnostiko (Ferbežer, 2012; Žagar, 1999). Nanj morajo biti še posebej dobro pripravljene strokovno usposobljeni pedagoški delavci, ki se soočajo z izzivi prepoznavanja značilnosti nadarjenih otrok in nadaljnega usmerjanja v smislu realizacije njihovih potencialov. V slovenskem vzgojno-izobraževalnem prostoru na področju predšolske vzgoje govorimo predvsem o potencialni nadarjenosti (Kukanja Gabrijelčič, 2017). Da bi posameznik lahko izkazal nadpovprečne dosežke pri dejavnosti, s katero se ukvarja, mora imeti določen potencial (Cvetković - Lay in Sekulić - Majurec, 1998).

Ta mu bo omogočil, da se razvijajo njegove sposobnosti. V literaturi se pogosto obravnava tudi problem »spregledanega« potencialno nadarjenega otroka (Coleman, 1985; Ferbežer, 2012; Hodge in Kemp, 2006; Kukanja Gabrijelčič, 2017; Webb, 2005 idr.).

Avtorji navajajo, da je zgodnje odkrivanje otrokove nadarjenosti in visokih potencialov še posebej pomembno zaradi ustrezne edukacije in pozitivnih učnih izkušenj (Ferbežer, 2002; Grubb, 2008; Rajović, 2015; Webb, 2010). Pri spregledanem nadarjenem otroku se lahko začnejo v različnih oblikah kazati moteči znaki: motnje pozornosti in hiperaktivnost, pretirana zaskrbljenost, povezana z moralnimi in etičnimi vprašanji, perfekcionizem, ki je usmerjen tako vase kot k drugim, premalo spanja, veliko sanj, nočni strahovi, izražena občutljivost, frustriranost pri nedoseganju ciljev, težave v odnosih s sovrstniki, drugačni interesi kot sovrstniki, odklanjanje sodelovanja pri zadani nalogi in mnogoteri drugi znaki (Webb, 2010). Nadarjene otroke lahko prepoznamo že v prvih treh letih življenja, posebej na intelektualnem področju in pri jezikovnih zmožnostih (Brumbaugh in Roshco, 1959; Roedell, 1990; Marjanovič Umek in Zupančič, 2009, str. 423; Robinson in Robinson 1992; Silverman, 2005 idr.). Najpogosteje omenjena ovira, ki jo zasledimo v različnih virih, pa je neustrezna usposobljenost vzgojiteljev, da te otroke odkrijejo. Avtorji namreč navajajo, da je usposobljenost vzgojiteljev ključna za razvoj njihovih strokovnih, raziskovalnih in reflektivnih kompetenc, ki hkrati vplivajo na zaznavanje splošnih in specifičnih potreb predšolskega otroka na vseh področjih razvoja (Ferbežer, 2002; Hodge in Kemp, 2008; Kukanja Gabrijelčič, 2015, 2016; Čotar Konrad in Kukanja Gabrijelčič, 2015, 2016; Pfeiffer in Petscher, 2008; Pfeiffer, Petscher in Jarosewich 2003; Porter, 2005; Renzulli, Siegle, Reis, Gavin in Reed, 2009).

Vloga in pomen vzgojitelja pri odkrivanju potencialne nadarjenosti otroka

Osebnostne lastnosti vzgojitelja in njegove strokovne kompetence vplivajo na celosten razvoj otrokovih potencialov. Modrić (2013, str. 431) pri tem navaja, da je vzgojitelj pomembna oseba za razvoj socializacije otrok v vrtcu in je otroku zgled. Vzgojitelj mora biti socialno, čustveno in strokovno kompetenten, da lahko opazuje in spremlja potrebe posameznega otroka (Sindik, 2010, str. 70).

Novejše raziskave na področju izobraževanja vzgojiteljev predšolskih otrok poudarjajo strokovnost in kompetence za vsestranskost ter novo vlogo vzgojitelja (Ljubetić, 2012; Persson, 2006; Podgornik, 2008; Schleicher, 2013; Slunjski, Šagud in Brajša - Žganec 2006; Taylor in Nolen, 2005), kjer so v ospredju tudi zahteve za spremljanje nadarjenih in visoko sposobnih posameznikov (Ferbežer 2009; Kukanja Gabrijelčič, 2016; Pangričič, 2016). Raziskave usposobljenosti vzgojiteljev za odkrivanje potencialno nadarjenih predšolskih otrok in delo z njimi kažejo, da se vzgojitelji ocenjujejo kot zadovoljivo usposobljeni (Kukanja Gabrijelčič, 2016; Modrić, 2013; Sindik, 2010; Vann, 2015 idr.). Cvetković - Lay in Sever (2004) sta odkrili visoko sposobnost vzgojiteljic pri zaznavanju potencialno nadarjenega otroka. Podobno raziskavo je v Sloveniji izvedla tudi Kukanja Gabrijelčič (2016) in potrdila dognanja hrvaških kolegic. Nekatere druge študije (Grubb 2008; Pfeiffer in Petsche, 2008) kažejo na problem izobraževanja in informiranja vzgojiteljev pri odkrivanju potencialne nadarjenosti. Jacobs (1971, v Ferbežer, 2002) ugotavlja, da imajo vzgojitelji veliko odgovornost in da so tisti, ki se niso pedagoško-psihološko izobraževali in izpopolnjevali za identifikacijo potencialno nadarjenih predšolskih otrok, »precenjevali intelektualne sposobnosti, verbalno spretnost, kooperativnost tistih otrok, ki so v vzgojnem procesu poželi njihovo odobravanje«. Po pregledu in vsebinski analizi relevantne znanstvene in strokovne literature za delo z nadarjenimi predšolskimi otroki ter aktualnih raziskavah na področju razvoja predšolskega otroka, nadarjenosti in strokovnih kompetenc vzgojiteljev lahko povzamemo, da so vzgojitelji pripravljeni na izzive in pozitivne premike pri odkrivanju in delu s potencialno nadarjenimi predšolskimi otroki, vendar se še vedno počutijo nekompetentni oz. premalo strokovno usposobljeni za tovrstno delo (Bezić, 2006; Cvetković - Lay in Sekulić - Majurec, 1998; Ferbežer, 2002; Hmelak, 2013; Hohmann, 2005; Jurišević, 2011; Kukanja Gabrijelčič, 2016; Lillvista, 2014; Mönks, 2005; Persson, 2006; Rajović, 2015; Sindik, 2010; Webb, 2010).

Opredeleitev raziskovalnega problema

S kvantitativno raziskavo smo raziskali prepričanja vzgojiteljev in vzgojiteljic, zaposlenih v slovenskih in hrvaških vrtcih, o: (1) lastni samooceni kompetenc za odkrivanje potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delo z njimi, (2) lastni strokovni usposobljenosti in izobrazbi za odkrivanje potencialne nadarjenosti otrok v vrtcu, (3) pomenu svetovalne službe, vodstva vrtca in sodelovanja s starši pri odkrivanju potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delu z njimi.

Cilji raziskave

- ugotoviti, kakšna je samoocena vzgojiteljevih kompetenc za odkrivanje nadarjenih otrok in delo z njimi;
- ugotoviti, ali obstajajo statistično pomembne razlike med mnenji in stališči vzgojiteljev v Sloveniji in na Hrvaškem, da sta ustrezna izobrazba in strokovno izpopolnjevanje vzgojiteljev pomembna za prepoznavanje in razvoj potencialno nadarjenih otrok v vrtcih;
- ugotoviti, ali obstaja statistično pomembna razlika med vzgojitelji v slovenskih in hrvaških javnih vrtcih v podpori svetovalne službe in staršev pri odkrivanju potencialno nadarjenih predšolskih otrok in delu z njimi.

V okviru raziskovalnega vprašanja smo preverili naslednje hipoteze:

H 1: Med vzgojitelji v slovenskih in hrvaških vrtcih obstaja statistično pomembna razlika pri samooceni kompetenc za odkrivanje potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delu z njimi.

H 2: Med vzgojitelji v slovenskih in hrvaških vrtcih ni statistično pomembnih razlik v prepričanjih, da sta ustrezna izobrazba in strokovno izpopolnjevanje vzgojiteljev pomembna za prepoznavanje potencialno nadarjenih otrok v vrtcih.

H 3: Med vzgojitelji v slovenskih in hrvaških javnih vrtcih obstaja statistično pomembna razlika v podpori svetovalne službe, vodstva vrtca in staršev pri odkrivanju potencialno nadarjenih predšolskih otrok in delu z njimi.

Metoda raziskovanja

V empiričnem delu raziskave je uporabljena kavzalno neeksperimentalna metoda pedagoškega raziskovanja, kjer smo proučevali mnenja in stališča vzgojiteljic o nadarjenosti predšolskih otrok ter samooceno njihovih kompetenc za odkrivanje in delo z nadarjenimi otroki. V okviru empiričnega dela smo uporabili kvantitativni raziskovalni pristop, podatke smo zbirali na reprezentativnem vzorcu z vprašalnikom.

Tehnike zbiranja podatkov in instrumentov ter načini preverjanja merskih značilnosti instrumentov
Pri kvantitativni empirični raziskavi smo za namen raziskave oblikovali vprašalnik, ki je prilagojen ciljem naše raziskave.

S pomočjo tega vprašalnika smo zbrali podatke o mnenjih in stališčih vzgojiteljev glede statusa vzgojitelja, strokovnega razvoja, podpore vodstva in potencialne nadarjenosti predšolskega otroka. Vprašalnik je vseboval 17 vprašanj, ki so bila razdeljena v tri vsebinske sklope. Prvi sklop štirih vprašanj se je nanašal na demografske podatke (spol, starost, stopnja pridobljene izobrazbe in delovna doba), ki smo jih zbrali z anketnimi vprašanji zaprtega tipa.

Drugi sklop je bil namenjen mnenjem in stališčem vzgojiteljev v zvezi z odkrivanjem in delom z nadarjenimi otroki v vrtcu, tretji sklop pa je vseboval vprašanja o samooceni pedagoško-psiholoških in didaktično-metodičnih kompetenc strokovnega razvoja vzgojitelja. Vprašalnik je vseboval odprte in zaprte tipe vprašanj, uporabljena je bila lestvica Likertovega tipa, nominalne spremenljivke in ordinalne lestvice. Konstruktivno veljavnost vprašalnika smo preverjali s postopkom faktorizacije (uporabili smo analizo glavnih komponent) in s Cronbachovim koeficientom α . Objektivnost vprašalnika smo zagotovili s prevladujočo uporabo vprašanj zaprtega tipa, Likertove ocenjevalne lestvice, jasnimi, enopomenskimi in kratkimi navodili in nevodenim anketiranjem.

Opis postopka zbiranja podatkov

Prek spletne aplikacije 1-KA smo oblikovali končno verzijo vprašalnika (e-verzija), dostop do e-vprašalnika pa posredovali v vzorec vključenim osebam. E-vprašalniku smo priložili dopis z osebno predstavitvijo, razložili smo namen anketiranja in zagotovili anonimnost.

Opredelevitev vzorca

Pri kvantitativni empirični raziskavi smo v namenski vzorec vključili vzgojitelje v vrtcih, ki so vpisani v razvid javno veljavnih izvajalcev predšolske vzgoje v Sloveniji in na Hrvaškem. Po podatkih Ministrstva za izobraževanje, znanost in šport (2018) je teh vrtcev v Sloveniji 425, na Hrvaškem pa po podatkih Ministrstva za znanost in izobraževanje Republike Hrvaške 808. Na osnovi seznama vseh vrtcev v Sloveniji in na Hrvaškem smo v vzorec naključno izbrali vrtece in jim poslali vprašalnike. Znotraj posameznega vrta v Sloveniji in na Hrvaškem smo vključili vse vzgojitelje – njihovo število so nam posredovali ravnatelji oz. svetovalne delavke v teh vrtcih. K sodelovanju v raziskavi smo povabili približno (800) vzgojiteljev, zaposlenih v slovenskih in hrvaških javnih vrtcih, odzvalo se jih je 542.

Opis obdelave podatkov

Z vprašalnikom pridobljene podatke smo statistično obdelali s pomočjo programskega paketa SPSS 23.0. Pri preverjanju zastavljenih hipotez smo se ravnali po pravilu, da je največje dopustno tveganje za zavrnitev posamezne hipoteze 5-odstotna napaka – če bo raven statistične pomembnosti pri posamezni hipotezi manjša od 0,05 ($p < 0,05$), bomo hipotezo sprejeli.

Pri analizi kvantitativnih podatkov smo uporabili naslednje statistične metode: osnovno deskriptivno statistiko, kjer smo za nominalne spremenljivke uporabili frekvence in strukturne odstotke, za ordinalne spremenljivke pa smo uporabili aritmetično sredino, standardni odklon, najnižjo in najvišjo vrednost, koeficient sploščenosti in koeficient asimetričnosti.

Frekvence in strukturne odstotke smo uporabili pri demografskih podatkih anketiranih, pri vprašanju o številu potencialno nadarjenih otrok, ki so bili v zadnjih petih letih pedagoškega dela v vrtcu vključeni v katero koli skupino otrok, pri vprašanju o številu udeležb na strokovnih izpopolnjevanjih v zvezi z delom in odkrivanjem potencialno nadarjenih otrok v vrtcu v zadnjem letu in pri vprašanju o mnenju anketiranih v zvezi z njihovim aktivnim vključevanjem v različne oblike razvijanja lastnih kompetenc na področju odkrivanja in dela s potencialno nadarjenimi otroki v vrtcu. Pri vseh drugih vprašanjih smo uporabili aritmetično sredino, standardni odklon, najnižjo in najvišjo vrednost, koeficient sploščenosti in koeficient asimetričnosti, saj so vprašanja ordinalnega tipa.

- a) Analizo glavnih komponent smo uporabili za preverjanje konstruktne veljavnosti vprašalnika, za določitev latentnih spremenljivk (skupnih faktorjev) kompetenc pri odkrivanju potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delu z njimi ter za določitev latentnih spremenljivk (skupnih faktorjev) prepričanij v zvezi s potencialno nadarjenimi otroki.

Število posameznih latentnih spremenljivk smo določili glede na število komponent, ki so imele lastne vrednosti višje od 1 in glede na delež pojasnjene variance.

- b) Preizkus Kolmogorov-Smirnov za preverjanje normalnosti porazdelitev spremenljivk, ki so vključene pri preverjanju posameznih hipotez.
- c) T-test za neodvisne vzorce (ang. Independent Samples T-Test) za preverjanje naslednjih hipotez:
 - i. hipoteze 1, kjer smo ugotavljali, ali med vzgojitelji v slovenskih in hrvaških vrtcih obstaja statistično pomembna razlika pri samooceni kompetenc za odkrivanje potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delo z njimi;

- ii. hipoteze 2, kjer smo ugotavljali, ali med vzgojitelji v slovenskih in hrvaških vrtcih obstaja statistično pomembna razlika v prepričanjih, da sta ustrezna izobrazba in strokovno izpopolnjevanje vzgojiteljev pomembna za prepoznavanje potencialno nadarjenih otrok v vrtcih
- iii. hipoteze 3, kjer smo ugotavljali, ali med vzgojitelji v slovenskih in hrvaških javnih vrtcih obstaja statistično pomembna razlika pri podpori svetovalne službe, vodstva vrtca in staršev pri odkrivanju potencialno nadarjenih predšolskih otrok in delu z njimi.

Pri neizpolnjevanju pogojev, ki so bili potrebni za parametrične preizkuse (normalna porazdelitev in homogenost varianc), smo za preverjanje zastavljenih hipotez namesto

T-testa za neodvisne vzorce uporabili Mann-Whitneyjev U-preizkus.

Rezultati in interpretacija

V raziskavi je sodelovalo 542 anketirancev, od tega 505 vzgojiteljic (93 %), 9 vzgojiteljev (1,7 %) in 28 udeležencev (5,3 %), ki se niso opredelili po spolu. 248 (45,8 %) sodelujočih prihaja iz Republike Slovenije, 294 (54,2 %) pa iz Republike Hrvaške. Starost udeležencev se je gibala od 19 do 65 let, povprečna vrednost za slovenske vzgojitelje je 42 (10,1) let in 41,5 (10,6) let za njihove hrvaške kolege, razlika pa ni bila statistično značilna ($t = 0,53$; $p > 0,05$). Slovenski in hrvaški vzgojitelji se bistveno razlikujejo glede na delovno dobo ($t = 3,23$; $p < 0,001$); slovenski vzgojitelji imajo v povprečju več delovne dobe. Slovenski in hrvaški vzgojitelji se bistveno razlikujejo tudi po stopnji izobrazbe. Slovenija: minimalna delovna doba anketiranih je 1 leto, maksimalna delovna doba je 41 let, največ anketiranih ima 10 let delovne dobe (18). Polovica anketiranih ima manj kot 17 let delovne dobe, druga polovica pa več kot 17 let. Hrvaška: minimalna delovna doba anketiranih je 1 leto, maksimalna delovna doba je 42 let, največ anketiranih ima 10 let delovne dobe (29). Polovica anketiranih ima manj kot 14 let delovne dobe, druga polovica pa več kot 14 let (tabela 1).

Tabela 1: Prikaz osnovnih značilnosti anketirancev

Starost	42 (10,1)	41,5 (10,6)	0,53	0,599
Delovna doba v vrtcu	18,4 (11,8)	15,1 (11,7)	3,32	0,001

V nadaljevanju predstavljamo rezultate, ki se nanašajo na samooceno, in razlike med vzgojitelji v Sloveniji in na Hrvaškem, in sicer:

- pri kompetencah za odkrivanje potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delo z njimi;
- pri prepričanjih, da sta ustrezna izobrazba in strokovno izpopolnjevanje vzgojiteljev pomembna za prepoznavanje potencialno nadarjenih otrok v vrtcih;
- v podpori svetovalne službe, vodstva vrtca in staršev pri odkrivanju potencialno nadarjenih predšolskih otrok in delu z njimi

Ocena in razlike v samooceni kompetenc pri odkrivanju potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delu z njimi pri vzgojiteljih v Sloveniji in na Hrvaškem

Trditve, ki opredeljujejo kompetence pri odkrivanju potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delu z njimi, vsebujejo strokovno usposobljenost, pripravljenost za raziskovalne projekte, strokovno usposobljenost za samorefleksijo, sodelovanje pri timskem delu in skrb za osebni in strokovni razvoj na tem področju. Predvidevali smo, da se samoocene kompetenc za odkrivanje potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delo z njimi med vzgojitelji v Sloveniji in na Hrvaškem razlikujejo, zato smo obstoj morebitnih razlik preverili.

Na podlagi rezultatov, prikazanih v preglednici 2, ugotavljamo, da se vzgojitelji v Sloveniji ($M = 4,23$; $SD = 0,78$) in na Hrvaškem ($M = 3,99$; $SD = 0,86$) v povprečju najbolj strinjajo, da skrbijo za osebni in strokovni razvoj. Rezultati Mann-Whitneyjevih preizkusov kažejo, da med vzgojitelji v Sloveniji in na Hrvaškem obstaja statistično pomembna razlika pri oceni pripravljenosti za raziskovalne projekte na področju potencialno nadarjenih otrok ($U = 26858,500$; $2P = 0,000$), oceni strokovne usposobljenosti za samorefleksijo ($U = 27846,500$; $2P = 0,003$), oceni sodelovanja pri timskem delu ($U = 26321,000$; $2P = 0,000$) in skrbi za osebni in strokovni razvoj ($U = 27238,000$; $2P = 0,003$) na tem področju. Ugotavljamo, da v vseh štirih primerih vzgojitelji v Sloveniji statistično značilno više ocenjujejo svoje kompetence za odkrivanje potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delu z njimi.

Razvidno je tudi, da se vzgojitelji v Sloveniji ($M = 3,30$; $SD = 0,91$) in na Hrvaškem ($M = 3,17$; $SD = 0,90$) v povprečju najmanj strinjajo, da so na področju odkrivanja potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delu z njimi ustrezno strokovno usposobljeni. Tu statistično pomembnih razlik ni ($U = 29700,500$; $2P = 0,079$).

Tabela 2: Opisna statistika in rezultati Mann-Whitneyjevih preizkusov razlik pri oceni kompetenc za odkrivanje potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delo z njimi med vzgojitelji v Sloveniji in na Hrvaškem.

Trditvev		N	M	SD	Povprečni rang	U	2P
Na tem področju sem ustrezno strokovno usposobljen.	Slovenija	248	3,30	0,91	266,78	29700,500	0,079
	Hrvaška	294	3,17	0,90	245,24		
Na tem področju sem pripravljen za raziskovalne projekte.	Slovenija	248	3,85	0,92	278,47	26858,500	0,000
	Hrvaška	294	3,58	0,92	234,59		
Na tem področju sem ustrezno usposobljen za samorefleksijo.	Slovenija	248	3,67	0,82	274,41	27846,500	0,003
	Hrvaška	294	3,49	0,86	238,29		
Na tem področju sem sodelovalen pri timskem delu.	Slovenija	248	4,20	0,97	280,68	26321,000	0,000
	Hrvaška	294	3,93	0,92	232,58		
Skrbim za osebni in strokovni razvoj.	Slovenija	248	4,23	0,78	276,91	27238,000	0,001
	Hrvaška	294	3,99	0,86	236,01		

H 1: Med vzgojitelji v slovenskih in hrvaških vrtcih obstaja statistično pomembna razlika pri samooceni kompetenc za odkrivanje potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delo z njimi.

Upoštevali smo odgovore na vprašanje Q 10, ki se je glasilo: "Z oceno od 1 (nezadostno usposobljen) do 5 (odlično usposobljen) ocenite posamezne kompetence na področju odkrivanja in dela s potencialno nadarjenimi otroki v vrtcu." Hipotezo smo preverili z Mann-Whitneyjevim U-preizkusom.

Iz preglednice je razvidno, da med anketiranimi vzgojitelji v slovenskih in hrvaških vrtcih obstaja statistično pomembna razlika pri štirih trditvah s področja samoocene kompetenc za odkrivanje potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delo z njimi.

Anketirani iz Slovenije menijo, da so v povprečju bolj pripravljeni na raziskovalne projekte ($U = 26858,500$; $Sig = 0,000$), bolj usposobljeni za samorefleksijo ($U = 27846,500$; $Sig = 0,003$), bolj sodelovalni pri timskem delu ($U = 26321,000$; $Sig = 0,000$), in v povprečju bolj ustrezno skrbijo za osebni in strokovni razvoj ($U = 27238,000$; $Sig = 0,001$) kot anketirani iz Hrvaške.

Iz preglednice je razvidno tudi, da med vzgojitelji v slovenskih in hrvaških vrtcih ne obstaja statistično pomembna razlika pri samooceni strokovne usposobljenosti na tem področju ($U = 29700,500$; $Sig = 0,079$). Hipotezo H 1 sprejememo.

H 2: Med vzgojitelji v slovenskih in hrvaških vrtcih ni statistično pomembnih razlik v prepričanjih, da sta ustrezna izobrazba in strokovno izpopolnjevanje vzgojiteljev pomembna za prepoznavanje potencialno nadarjenih otrok v vrtcih.

Upoštevali smo odgovore na vprašanje Q 12, ki se je glasilo: "Koliko sta po vašem mnenju pomembna dejavnika za prepoznavanje in razvoj potencialno nadarjenih otrok v vrtcih ustrezna izobrazba in strokovno izpopolnjevanje vzgojiteljev?"

Hipotezo smo preverili z Mann-Whitneyjevim U-preizkusom.

Iz preglednice je razvidno, da med anketiranimi vzgojitelji v slovenskih in hrvaških vrtcih ni statistično pomembnih razlik v mnenjih in stališčih, da sta ustrezna izobrazba in strokovno izpopolnjevanje vzgojiteljev pomembna za prepoznavanje potencialno nadarjenih otrok v vrtcih ($U = 32095,000$; $Sig = 0,817$).

Tabela 3: Opisna statistika in rezultati Mann-Whitneyjevega preizkusa razlik v oceni pomembnosti ustrezne izobrazbe in strokovnega izpopolnjevanja vzgojiteljev za prepoznavanje potencialno nadarjenih otrok v vrtcih pri vzgojiteljih v Sloveniji in na Hrvaškem

Trditve		N	M	SD	Povprečni rang	U	2P
Na tem področju sem ustrezno strokovno usposobljen.	Slovenija	248	4,35	0,69	254,08	32095,000	0,817
	Hrvaška	294	4,38	0,65	256,79		

Tako v slovenskih kot v hrvaških vrtcih se vzgojitelji v povprečju strinjajo, da sta ustrezna izobrazba in strokovno izpopolnjevanje vzgojiteljev pomembna za prepoznavanje potencialno nadarjenih otrok v vrtcih.

Med vzgojitelji v slovenskih in hrvaških vrtcih ni statistično pomembne razlike v mnenjih in stališčih, da sta ustrezna izobrazba in nadaljevanje strokovnega usposabljanja pomembna za prepoznavanje in delo s potencialno nadarjenimi otroki v vrtcu ($t = 0,38$; $p > 0,05$). Povprečna ocena za pomen izobraževanja in stalnega strokovnega usposabljanja je za slovenske in hrvaške vzgojitelje visoka: AS Slo = 4,39 (SD = 0,66), AS Hrv = 4,38 (SD = 0,64). Hipotezo H 2 sprejmemo.

H 3: Med vzgojitelji v slovenskih in hrvaških javnih vrtcih obstaja statistično pomembna razlika v podpori svetovalne službe, vodstva vrtca in staršev pri odkrivanju potencialno nadarjenih predšolskih otrok in delu z njimi.

Upoštevali smo odgovore na vprašanje Q 16, ki se je glasilo: "Ocenite, prosim, kako pogosto ste pri prepoznavanju potencialno nadarjenih predšolskih otrok deležni pomoči drugih." Hipotezo smo preverili z Mann-Whitneyjevim U-preizkusom.

Iz preglednice (Preglednica 4) je razvidno, da med anketiranimi vzgojitelji v slovenskih in hrvaških vrtcih ne obstaja statistično pomembna razlika v podpori svetovalne službe ($U = 29447,500$; Sig = 0,064), vodstva vrtca ($U = 29724,500$; Sig = 0,090) in staršev ($U = 29872,500$; Sig = 0,100) pri odkrivanju potencialno nadarjenih predšolskih otrok in delu z njimi. Hipoteze H 3 ne sprejmemo.

Tabela 4: Opisna statistika in rezultati Mann-Whitneyjevih preizkusov razlik v oceni kompetenc pri odkrivanju potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delu z njimi pri vzgojiteljih v Sloveniji in na Hrvaškem

Trditev		N	M	SD	Povprečni rang	U	2P
Pomoč mi nudi svetovalna služba v vrtcu.	Slovenija	248	3,07	1,30	267,82	29447,500	0,064
	Hrvaška	294	2,87	1,32	244,29		
Pomoč mi nudi vodstvo vrtca.	Slovenija	248	3,08	1,24	266,68	29724,500	0,090
	Hrvaška	294	2,92	1,12	245,33		
Pomoč mi nudijo starši potencialno nadarjenih predšolskih otrok.	Slovenija	248	2,90	1,02	266,07	29872,500	0,100
	Hrvaška	294	2,76	0,97	245,88		

Tabela 5: Prikaz zadovoljstva s splošnim socialnim statusom vzgojiteljev in zakonodajo v Sloveniji in na Hrvaškem v povezavi s starostjo in delovno dobo

Splošno zadovoljstvo s statusom vzgojitelja v družbi		
	Slovenija	Hrvaška
Starost	$r = 0,031$; $p = 0,640$	$r = 0,16$; $p = 0,011$
Delovna doba	$r = 0,037$; $p = 0,572$	$r = 0,15$; $p = 0,017$
Zadovoljstvo vzgojitelja z zakonodajo, ki ureja področje predšolske vzgoje, statuse vrtcev in strokovni kader.		
	Slovenija	Hrvaška
Delovna doba	$r = 0,129$; $p = 0,037$	$r = -0,088$; $p = 0,172$

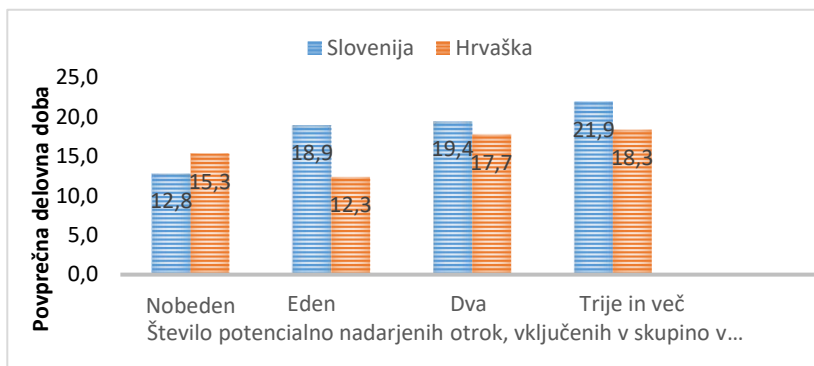
Slovenski in hrvaški vzgojitelji imajo statistično pomembno različno mnenje o svojem splošnem statusu v družbi ($t = 12,5$; $p < 0,05$). Slovenski vzgojitelji svoj status v družbi ocenjujejo s povprečno oceno $AS = 3,74$ ($SD = 0,96$), medtem ko je povprečna ocena njihovih hrvaških kolegov $AS = 2,86$ ($SD = 0,84$).

Stopnja zadovoljstva s splošnim socialnim statusom hrvaških vzgojiteljev je v povezavi s starostjo pomembno pozitivno korelirana ($r = 0,16$; $p < 0,05$), pri vzgojiteljih v Sloveniji te povezanosti ni ($r = 0,03$; $p > 0,05$). Starejši vzgojitelji na Hrvaškem so zadovoljnejši s svojim splošnim statusom v družbi, medtem ko pri slovenskih vzgojiteljih te povezave nismo ugotovili.

Podoben vzorec smo opazili pri letih delovne dobe. Obstaja povezava med zadovoljstvom s splošnim statusom vzgojiteljev v družbi in dolgoletnimi delovnimi izkušnjami med hrvaškimi udeleženci raziskave ($r = 0,14$; $p < 0,05$). Hrvaški vzgojitelji z večletnimi izkušnjami so zadovoljnejši s svojim statusom v družbi, medtem ko pri njihovih slovenskih kolegih te povezave nismo našli.

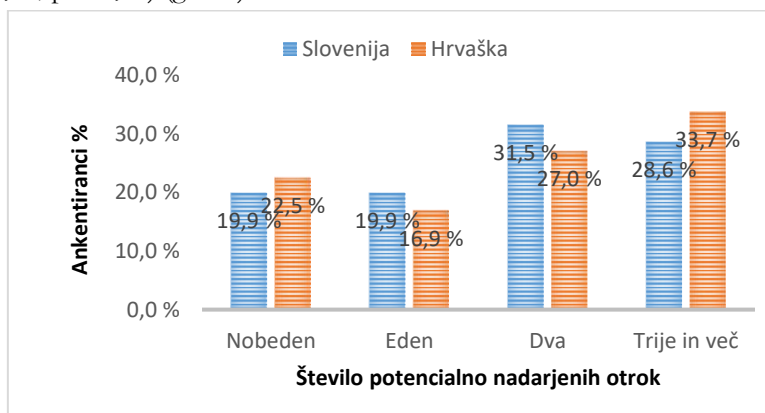
Hrvaški in slovenski vzgojitelji imajo bistveno različna mnenja in stališča v zvezi z zakonodajnimi okviri, ki urejajo predšolsko vzgojo, statuse vrtcev in strokovni kader ($t = 7,27$; $p < 0,05$). Slovenski vzgojitelji zakonodajo ocenjujejo s povprečno oceno $AS = 3,26$ ($SD = 0,81$), medtem ko je povprečna ocena njihovih hrvaških kolegov $AS = 2,73$ ($SD = 0,85$).

Raven zadovoljstva z zakonodajo, ki ureja predšolsko vzgojo, statute vrtcev in poklic vzgojitelja, je zelo pozitivno povezana z dolgoletnimi delovnimi izkušnjami pri hrvaških vzgojiteljih ($r = 0,13$; $p < 0,05$), ne pa tudi pri slovenskih ($r = -0,088$; $p > 0,05$). Hrvaški vzgojitelji z več delovnimi izkušnjami so zadovoljnejši z zakonodajo, ki ureja predšolsko vzgojo, statute vrtcev in strokovni kader, med slovenskimi vzgojitelji te povezave nismo opazili (tabela 5).



Graf 1: Število potencialno nadarjenih otrok, vključenih v katero koli skupino v zadnjih petih letih dela vzgojitelja v vrtcu.

V zadnjih petih letih dela v vrtcu tudi ni razlik med slovenskimi in hrvaškimi vzgojitelji po številu potencialno nadarjenih otrok, vključenih v katero koli skupino ($\chi^2 = 2,99$; $p > 0,05$) (graf 1).



Graf 1: Število potencialno nadarjenih otrok, vključenih v skupino v zadnjih petih letih, glede na delovno dobo vzgojitelja

Ugotovili smo statistično pomembno pozitivno povezavo med delovno dobo vzgojiteljev in številom odkritih potencialno nadarjenih otrok ($r = 0,20$; $p < 0,05$). V zadnjih 5 letih so vzgojitelji z daljšo delovno dobo v Sloveniji in na Hrvaškem odkrili več potencialno nadarjenih otrok v skupini (graf 2).

Razprava

S kvantitativno raziskavo smo raziskali prepričanja vzgojiteljic, zaposlenih v slovenskih in hrvaških vrtcih, v zvezi s samooceno kompetenc za odkrivanje potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delo z njimi, strokovno usposobljenostjo in izobrazbo za odkrivanje potencialne nadarjenosti otrok v vrtcu, pomenom svetovalne službe, vodstva vrtca in sodelovanja s starši pri odkrivanju potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delu z njimi. V raziskavi je sodelovalo 542 anketirancev, od tega 505 vzgojiteljic (93 %), 9 vzgojiteljev (1,7 %) in 28 udeležencev (5,3 %), ki se niso opredelili po spolu. 248 (45,8 %) sodelujočih je bilo iz Republike Slovenije in 294 (54,2 %) iz Republike Hrvaške. Na podlagi z raziskavo pridobljenih rezultatov smo ugotovili, da se vzgojitelji v Sloveniji in na Hrvaškem v povprečju najbolj strinjajo o skrbi za osebni in strokovni razvoj. Rezultati kažejo, da med vzgojitelji v Sloveniji in na Hrvaškem obstaja statistično pomembna razlika v oceni pripravljenosti za raziskovalne projekte na področju potencialno nadarjenih otrok, oceni strokovne usposobljenosti za samorefleksijo, oceni sodelovanja pri timskem delu ter skrbi za osebni in strokovni razvoj na tem področju. Ugotovili smo, da v vseh štirih primerih vzgojitelji v Sloveniji statistično značilno više ocenjujejo svoje kompetence pri odkrivanju potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delu z njimi. Iz raziskave je tudi razvidno, da se vzgojitelji v Sloveniji in na Hrvaškem v povprečju najmanj strinjajo, da so pri odkrivanju potencialno nadarjenih otrok in delu z njimi ustrezno strokovno usposobljeni. Tu statistično pomembnih razlik ni, kar pomeni, da potrebujejo dodatna strokovna usposabljanja za odkrivanje in delo s potencialno nadarjenimi predšolskimi otroki. Tako v slovenskih kot v hrvaških vrtcih se v povprečju strinjajo, da sta ustrezna izobrazba in strokovno izpopolnjevanje vzgojiteljev pomembna za prepoznavanje potencialno nadarjenih otrok v vrtcih. Med vzgojitelji v slovenskih in hrvaških vrtcih ni statistično pomembne razlike v mnenjih in stališčih, da sta ustrezna izobrazba in nadaljevanje strokovnega usposabljanja pomembna za prepoznavanje in delo s potencialno nadarjenimi otroki v vrtcu.

Čeprav med anketiranimi vzgojitelji v slovenskih in hrvaških vrtcih ni statistično pomembne razlike v podpori svetovalne službe, vodstva vrtca in staršev pri odkrivanju potencialno nadarjenih predšolskih otrok in delu z njimi, slovenski vzgojitelji nekoliko više kot hrvaški ocenjujejo podporo vodstva vrtca in svetovalne službe. Pri odgovorih na vprašanje, ali so imeli v zadnjih petih letih potencialno nadarjene otroke vključene v katero koli skupino, ni bilo statistično pomembnih razlik. Ugotovili smo statistično pomembno pozitivno povezavo med delovno dobo vzgojiteljev in številom odkritih potencialno nadarjenih otrok. V zadnjih petih letih so vzgojitelji z daljšo delovno dobo – v obeh državah – odkrili več potencialno nadarjenih otrok v skupini, kar lahko razložimo z bogatejšimi delovnimi izkušnjami oz. prakso. Z raziskavo smo želeli pridobiti tudi mnenje sodelujočih o splošnem statusu vzgojitelja v družbi in o zakonodaji, ki ureja področje predšolske vzgoje. Ta podatek nam pokaže status celotnega sistema predšolske vzgoje in izobraževanja predšolskih otrok, zlasti ker je zadovoljstvo zaposlenih vzgojiteljev ključen dejavnik za uspešno vzgojo in poučevanje predšolskih otrok. Mnenje slovenskih in hrvaških vzgojiteljev o svojem splošnem statusu v družbi se statistično pomembno razlikuje. Slovenski vzgojitelji svoj status v družbi ocenjujejo s povprečno oceno 3,74, medtem ko je povprečna ocena njihovih hrvaških kolegov 2,86. Predvidevamo, da je ocena hrvaških vzgojiteljev nižja zaradi slabših ekonomskih in socialnih razmer na Hrvaškem. Starejši vzgojitelji na Hrvaškem so zadovoljnejši s svojim splošnim statusom v družbi, medtem ko pri slovenskih vzgojiteljih te povezave nismo ugotovili, enako je pri tistih z daljšo delovno dobo. Mnenje slovenskih in hrvaških vzgojiteljev se bistveno razlikuje tudi v zvezi z zakonodajnimi okviri, ki urejajo predšolsko vzgojo, statute vrtcev in strokovni kader. Slovenski vzgojitelji zakonodajo ocenjujejo s povprečno oceno 3,26, medtem ko je povprečna ocena njihovih hrvaških kolegov 2,73.

Zaključek

Z raziskavo smo opravili primerjalno mednarodno analizo stanja, ki je trenutno aktualno na območju Republike Slovenije in Republike Hrvaške, na področju odkrivanja in dela s potencialno nadarjenimi predšolskimi otroki v institucionalni vzgoji in izobraževanju.

Raziskavo med slovenskimi in hrvaškimi vzgojitelji smo izvedli, da bi primerjalno pridobili podatke o samooceni usposobljenosti vzgojiteljev za odkrivanje in delo s potencialno nadarjenimi predšolskimi otroki in pridobili odgovore na zastavljena raziskovalna vprašanja, ki so večinoma potrdili naše predpostavke in ugotovitve. Med vzgojitelji v slovenskih in hrvaških vrtcih ni statistično pomembne razlike v mnenjih in stališčih, da sta ustrezna izobrazba in nadaljevanje strokovnega usposabljanja pomembna za prepoznavanje in delo s potencialno nadarjenimi otroki v vrtcu. Rezultati raziskave kažejo, da tako slovenski kot hrvaški vzgojitelji menijo, da potrebujejo dodatna strokovna usposabljanja na tem področju. V smislu odpiranja novih pogledov v predšolski vzgoji in razvijanja strokovnosti na tem področju, rezultati raziskave odpirajo vprašanje o potrebi uvajanja novega predmeta na študiju za vzgojitelje predšolskih otrok.

Summary

A quantitative survey investigated the beliefs of preschool teachers from Slovenian and Croatian kindergartens regarding self-assessment of their competence to identify potentially gifted children and to work with them, their professional qualification and education in this field, and the role of school counseling service, kindergarten leadership and cooperation with parents in identifying and working with potentially gifted children. The study sample comprised 542 preschool teachers, 505 of them female (93%), 9 male (1.7%) and 28 of unspecified gender (5.3%). Two hundred and forty-eight (45.8%) participants were from the Republic of Slovenia and 294 (54.2%) from the Republic of Croatia. Based on the research results, Slovenian and Croatian teachers agree most on the importance of personal and professional development. There are statistically significant differences between Slovenian and Croatian teachers in how they assess their readiness for research projects in the field of potentially gifted children, their professional competence for self-reflection, their team cooperation, and their personal and professional development in this field. In all four cases, Slovenian teachers rate their competences for identification of and work with potentially gifted children statistically significantly higher. The research also shows that both Slovenian and Croatian teachers feel insufficiently qualified for the identification of potentially gifted children. There are no statistically significant differences between the two groups, which shows that they all need additional professional development for identification of and work with potentially gifted children. Both Slovenian and Croatian preschool teachers, on average, agree that

adequate education and further professional development are important for successful identification of potentially gifted children. There are no statistically significant differences between teachers in Slovenian and Croatian kindergartens in their opinions and views on the importance of adequate education and further professional development for the identification of and work with potentially gifted children in kindergarten. Although there is no statistically significant difference in how they perceive support from the school counseling service, kindergarten leadership, and parents in the identification of and work with potentially gifted preschool children, Slovenian teachers rate the leadership and counseling service support slightly higher than Croatian teachers do.

There were no statistically significant differences between teachers in their responses to the question of whether they had identified any potentially gifted children in any of their groups in the last five years. There was however a statistically significant positive correlation between career length and the number of potentially gifted children identified. The teachers with longer careers from both countries had identified more potentially gifted children over five years than their colleagues, which can be attributed to their more extensive work experience. Our research also tried to identify participants' opinions about the general social status of preschool teachers and the legislation on early childhood education and care. These data are indicative of the general status of the whole system of early childhood education and care, especially considering that teacher satisfaction is the key factor in successful early childhood education and care. There is a statistically significant difference in opinion on the general social status between Slovenian and Croatian teachers. Slovenian teachers rated their perceived social status with an average grade of 3.74, while their Croatian colleagues rated it with 2.86. We presume the lower grade to be the result of the worse economic and social situation in Croatia. Older teachers in Croatia are more satisfied with their general social status, which does not hold true for older or more experienced Slovenian teachers. There is also a considerable difference in Slovenian and Croatian teachers' opinions about the legislative framework governing early childhood education and care, kindergarten status and professional staff. Slovenian teachers rated their legislation with an average grade of 3.26, while their Croatian colleagues rated it with 2.73.

We conducted this study among Slovenian and Croatian teachers to obtain comparative data about their self-assessment of their ability to identify potentially gifted children and to work with them. The research results indicate that both

Slovenian and Croatian preschool teachers believe they need additional professional training in this field. In terms of opening new horizons in early childhood education and developing new professional standards in this field, our research raises the issue of the need to introduce a new subject into early education study programs.

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NAVODILA AVTORJEM

Osnovni namen revije je povezati širok spekter teoretičnih izhodišč in praktičnih rešitev v izobraževanju ter tako spodbujati različne metodološke in vsebinske razprave. Uredniški odbor združuje strokovnjake in raziskovalce iz več evropskih držav in s tem želi ustvariti možnosti za živahen dialog med raznovrstnimi disciplinami in različnimi evropskimi praksami, povezanimi z izobraževanjem.

Revija za elementarno izobraževanje torej objavlja prispevke, ki obravnavajo pomembna, sodobna vprašanja na področju vzgoje in izobraževanja, uporabljajo primerno znanstveno metodologijo ter so slogovno in jezikovno ustrezni. Odražati morajo pomemben prispevek k znanosti oziroma spodbudo za raziskovanje na področju vzgoje in izobraževanja z vidika drugih povezanih ved, kot so kognitivna psihologija, razvoj otroka, uporabno jezikoslovje in druge discipline. Revija sprejema še neobjavljene članke, ki niso bili istočasno poslani v objavo drugim revijam. Prispevki so lahko v slovenskem, angleškem ali nemškem jeziku.

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Prejete prispevke najprej pregleda urednik/založniški odbor in ugotovi, ali vsebinsko ustrezajo konceptu in kriterijem revije.

1. Če prispevek ustreza konceptu in kriterijem revije, ga uredniški odbor pošlje dvema anonimnima recenzentoma. Članek, ki je vsebinsko skladen s konceptom revije, vendar ne ustreza drugim kriterijem, lahko uredništvo vrne avtorju, da ga popravi.
2. O sprejemu ali zavrnitvi članka je avtor obveščen približno tri mesece po njegovem prejemu.
3. Avtor dobi recenzirani prispevek vključno z morebitnimi priporočili za izboljšave/popravke, v primeru zavrnitve pa z navedenimi razlogi zanj.
4. Končno odločitev o objavi članka sprejme urednik na temelju priporočil recenzentov. Pri tem utemeljitve za svojo odločitev ni dolžan navesti.
5. Besedilo prispevka mora biti pripravljeno v skladu z Navodili avtorjem.
6. Avtor jamči, da so v prispevku predstavljeni podatki natančni, verodostojni in izvirni. Ko je članek sprejet v objavo, avtor podpiše Izjavo o etičnosti raziskovanja in Izjavo avtorja o izviranosti prispevka. Vsi prispevki gredo skozi postopek za ugotavljanje plagiatorstva.

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Pri pripravi besedila prispevka upoštevajte naslednja navodila:

1. Tipkopis oddajte kot dokument v programu Microsoft Windows. Nabor pisave je Times New Roman, velikost črk 12 za osnovno besedilo in 10 za povzetka v slovenskem in angleškem jeziku, literaturo in citate, če so daljši od treh vrstic, razmik med vrsticami pa je 1,5. Velikost pisave v tabelah in naslovih tabel ter grafov je 10; razmik med vrsticami pa enojni. Širina tabele naj ne presega 12,5 cm. Besedilo naj bo obojestransko poravnano. Vodilni naslovi naj bodo zapisani krepko, prvi podnaslovi ležeče, drugi podnaslovi pa navadno. Naslovov in strani ne številčite in ne uporabljajte velikih tiskanih črk.
2. Besedilo prispevka naj ne presega 38.000 znakov s presledki, vključno s povzetki, literaturo in ključnimi besedami.
3. Naslov prispevka naj ne presega 15 besed in naj bo v slovenskem in angleškem jeziku.
4. Prispevek naj ima na začetku povzetek v slovenskem jeziku ter njegov prevod v angleškem jeziku (oziroma obratno) in naj ne presega 100 besed. Za povzetkom naj bo 5 ključnih besed. Poleg povzetkov naj prispevek na koncu prispevka, pred literaturo, vsebuje daljši povzetek (500-700 besed) v angleščini, če je članek napisan v slovenščini.
5. V prispevku ne uporabljajte ne sprotnih ne končnih opomb.
6. Vire navajajte v skladu s standardom APA (American Psychological Association). V seznam literature vključite samo v tekočem besedilu navedene vire, ki jih uredite po abecednem vrstnem redu.

7. V posebnem dokumentu pošljite naslednje podatke: ime in priimek avtorja, akademski naziv, organizacijo, kjer je avtor zaposlen, elektronski naslov, naslov bivališča in naslov prispevka.

Primeri:

Knjige: priimek, začetnica imena avtorja, leto izida, naslov, kraj, založba.

Duh, M. (2004). *Vrednotenje kot didaktični problem pri likovni vzgoji*. Maribor: Pedagoška fakulteta.

Članki v revijah: priimek, začetnica imena avtorja, leto izida, naslov prispevka, ime revije, letnik, številka, strani.

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

Prispevki v zbornikih: priimek, začetnica imena avtorja, leto izida, naslov prispevka, podatki o knjigi ali zborniku, strani, kraj, založba.

Fošnarič, S. (2002). Obremenitve šolskega delovnega okolja in otrokova uspešnost. V M. Juričič (ur.), *Šolska higiena: zbornik prispevkov* (str. 27–34). Ljubljana: Sekcija za šolsko in visokošolsko medicino SZD.

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Fošnarič, S. (2002). Obremenitve šolskega delovnega okolja in otrokova uspešnost. V M. Juričič (ur.), *Šolska higiena: zbornik prispevkov* (str. 27–34). Ljubljana: Sekcija za šolsko in visokošolsko medicino SZD.

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