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Vsebina Contents

*Barbara Brec,
dr. Majda Schmidt,
dr. Franc Smole*

- 3 **Odkrivanje govorno-jezikovnih motenj pri petletnikih**
Identifying speech and language disorders in 5-year-old children

*Dr. Andrej Kovačič,
Barbara Mavri,
dr. Mateja Rek*

- 20 **Predšolski otroci in vpliv medijev**
Pre-school children and media influence

*Karmen Ulaga,
dr. Marija Javornik Krečič*

- 36 **Mnenja učiteljev o izbiri in rabi učbenikov za pouk slovenščine**
Teachers' opinion regarding the choice and use of textbooks for teaching Slovene

*Urška Smole,
dr. Branka Čagran,
dr. Vlasta Hus*

- 52 **Preživljanje prostega časa četrtošolcev**
How fourth-grade pupils spend their free time

*Dr. Snježana Dubovicki,
dr. Anđelka Peko*

- 69 **Obremenitev učencev s šolskim delom z vidika učencev in staršev**
The students' school workload from the perspective of students and parents

*Dr. Irena Klasnić,
dr. Marina Đuranović,
dr. Zdenko Braičić*

- 86 **Ocena sodelovanja učencev in podpore učiteljev – perspektiva učencev**
The assessment of students' cooperation and teachers' support – the students' perspective

*Dr. Blerim Saqipi,
dr. Janez Vogrinc*

- 101 **Razvijanje raziskovalne kompetence v izobraževanju prihodnjih učiteljev**
Developing research competence in pre-service teacher education

- Dr. Vesna Buljubašić
Kuzmanović,
mag. Senka Gazibara*
- Dr. Domen Kušar,
Mateja Volgemut*
- Dr. Andreja Sinjur*
- 118 **Evalvacija aktivnega učenja v visokošolskem poučevanju**
Evaluation of active learning in higher education teaching
- 134 **Pomen in spremljanje prostorske predstave študentov arhitekture**
Significance and monitoring of spatial perception in students of architecture
- 150 **Državlјanska vzgoja v Veliki Britaniji**
Citizenship education in Great Britain

Odkrivanje govorno-jezikovnih motenj pri petletnikih

Znanstveni članek

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KLJUČNE BESEDE: govorno-jezikovne motnje, govorno-jezikovni razvoj, dejavniki govornega razvoja, govorna vsebina, petletniki

POVZETEK – V zadnjih letih govorimo o porastu govorno-jezikovnih motenj. Prav zato smo v naši raziskavi želeli ugotoviti, kateri primanjkljaji in motnje na področju govora in jezika se pojavljajo pri petletnikih in predvsem vzroke za te. Zanimalo nas je tudi, kateri so dejavniki govornega razvoja, saj so tudi ti velikokrat vzrok za govorne in jezikovne težave. Petletnike smo izbrali zato, ker so v teh letih otroci že precej samostojni, zaključeni so tudi že vsi kognitivni procesi razvoja, otrokov govor bi prav tako moral biti tekoč, usvojil naj bi že kar nekaj slovničnih oblik in imel bogat besedni zaklad, kljub temu pa sta otrokov govor in jezik še v razvoju, zato pri otrocih na teh področjih prihaja do težav. Tako kažejo tudi rezultati raziskave, s katerimi ne moremo biti preveč zadovoljni, saj je k logopedu napoteno veliko število otrok zajetih v raziskavi – kar 45 odstotkov. Posebno pozornost bo tako v bodoče treba posvetiti opozarjanju na škodljivost predolgo obdržanih sesalnih razvad pri otrocih, predvsem glede dolge rabe stekleničke.

Scientific paper

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KEYWORDS: speech and language disorders, speech and language development, speech development factors, speech content, five-year-old children

ABSTRACT – In recent years there has been an increase in speech and language disorders. Due to the mentioned fact, with our study we wanted to determine which speech and language deficiencies and disorders are present in five-year-old children and what the causes are. We also wanted to find out what are the speech development factors, as they are very frequently the cause of the speech and language issues. The five-year-olds were chosen because children at this age are quite independent, all their cognitive development processes are completed, and the children's speech should be fluent enough – mastering a number of grammatical forms and having quite a substantial vocabulary. However, the speech and language skills are still developing, thus the speech and language issues can occur in this area. Our research results, which are not satisfying, actually show that a large number of children included in the study, as much as 45%, were referred to speech and language therapists. In the future, a special attention will have to be devoted to informing people about the dangers of children's long-term sucking habits, particularly regarding the prolonged use of the baby bottle.

1. Uvod

Govor je osnovno sredstvo komunikacije, z njim izražamo svoje mnenje, prenašamo znanje in zadovoljujemo socialne potrebe. Tako govor kot tudi jezik se od družbe do družbe razlikujeta zaradi različne zgodovine, kulture in navad. Prav tako pravimo, da sta “živa organizma”, saj se prilagajata družbenim in kulturnim spremembam.

Govor in jezik se v zgodnjem otroštvu razvijata izjemno hitro, zato je prav predšolsko obdobje zelo pomembno za njun razvoj. Otrok v tem času posnema govor okolice in usvaja jezikovna pravila. Odrasli, predvsem starši, so tisti prvi, ki otroku omogočijo spodbudno okolje, mu predstavijo govor in jezikovne prvine ter so njegov vzgled.

Kljub nekaterim pozitivnim rezultatom in rahlemu upadu petletnikov, ki potrebujejo logopedsko obravnavo, je odstotek teh še vedno precej visok. Porast so v Zdravstvenem domu Maribor beležili med leti 2005–2011 (z 31 % na 44 %), z rahlim upadom na 38 odstotkov v letu 2013 (Smole idr., 2015).

Govorno-jezikovni razvoj in dejavniki razvoja

Obdobje prvega leta v govornem razvoju imenujemo tudi predjezikovno obdobje. Otrokov prvi glas, ko se rodi, je jok oziroma krik, ki nastane zaradi spremembe toplote in okolja ter je refleksnega značaja (Žnidarič, 1992).

Obdobje govora, ki ga imenujemo tudi jezikovno obdobje, se po navadi začne po prvem letu starosti. Nekateri otroci prvo besedo povedo že pri osmih ali devetih mesecih, največje število pa pri enajstih oziroma pri dvanajstih mesecih (prav tam). Prva beseda je skupina glasov, ki imajo pomen. Največkrat so sestavljene iz enega ali dveh zlogov, ki pomeni zaporedje samoglasnikov in soglasnikov (Marjanovič Umek, 1990). Izgovor besed po drugem letu starosti postaja razumljivejši in jasnejši (Posokhova, 1990). Pri petem letu starosti otrok že začne govoriti večbesedne izjave, obvladuje smiselno zvezo stavkov in besed ter oblikuje nikalne in vprašalne izjave. Narašča tudi število glagolov, zaimkov in veznikov, besednjak obsega 2000 besed ali več (Žnidarič, 1992).

Razvoj govora je izjemno odvisen od otrokovega duševnega stanja, od duševnega in telesnega razvoja ter od vplivov iz okolja (Grilc, 2013). Strokovnjaki s področja logopedije prav tako opozarjajo, da na otrokov govor najbolj vpliva okolje, v katerem otrok odrašča (družinski člani, širše družbeno okolje, vrtec in vrstniška skupina), socialno-ekonomski dejavniki družine in izobrazba staršev. D. Žnidarič (1992) kot vzroke za individualne razlike v govoru zraven inteligentnosti in okolja navaja še predporodne, obporodne in poporodne težave ter bolezni, ki jih nekateri otroci prebolijo. Ob tem pa se je treba tudi zavedati, da je govorni razvoj vsaj v zgodnjem otroštvu pri deklicah praviloma hitrejši kot pri fantih (Marjanovič Umek idr., 2006).

Govorno-jezikovne motnje

Dejavniki govorno-jezikovnega razvoja so tisti, ki privedejo do govorno-jezikovnih motenj in zastojev v razvoju govora. Najpogostejše govorne motnje so težave v izgovoru, ki jim pravimo tudi artikulacijske motnje. Velikokrat so vzroki za te motnje ortodontske nepravilnosti: razcepljena ustnica, mehko nebo, izrazite progenije,

navzkrižni in odprti griz ali manjkajoči zobje (Škarić, 1988). Te nepravilnosti se pojavljajo predvsem zaradi podaljšanega sesanja oziroma razvad (duda, steklenička), ki pogosto poškodujejo otrokov griz in motoriko jezika. Artikulacijske motnje, ki pa spadajo k dislaliji, se lahko kažejo kot izostanek nekaterih glasov, zamenjava z nekim drugim glasom iz istega izgovornega sestava ali izkrivljen izgovor.

Druga pogosta skupina govornih motenj so motnje glasu oziroma disfonija, te se nanašajo na višino, glasnost, melodijo, barvo, kakovost in hitrost (Jarc idr., 2011). V Sloveniji so vzroki za le-te predvsem okužba zgornjih dihal, saj so otroci že s prvim letom starosti velikokrat poslani v skupna varstva (vrtce) (Jarc idr., 2011).

Najbolj znana, čeprav ne tako pogosta, govorna motenja je jecljanje. Jecljanje imenujemo tudi motnja ritma oziroma tempa govora. Med govorne motnje umeščamo tudi prehiter ali pretirano upočasnjjen govor, ki sta prav tako posledica jecljanja in obratno (Grilc, 2013).

Jezikovne motnje označujemo z naslednjimi termini: upočasnjjeni razvoj govora, nerazviti govor in posebne govorne težave. Če se večina teh težav pojavlja tudi po otrokovem četrtem letu, govorimo o nezadostno razvitem govoru, kar je najtežja oblika motnje govorno-jezikovnega razvoja (prav tam). Ker pa sta govor in jezik povezana z duševnim razvojem otroka, so govorne motnje lahko tudi posledice zaostajanja v duševnem razvoju.

2. Metodologija

2.1. Namen raziskave

Zaradi porasta govorno-jezikovnih motenj v zadnjih letih smo želeli ugotoviti, katere motnje se pojavljajo pri petletnikih in zakaj do njih sploh prihaja. Pri tem nas je zanimalo, ali spol otroka, izobrazba staršev in jezik družin vplivajo na artikulacijske in glasovne motnje, na neprimeren ritem, na metatezo, na neustreznost govoril in na otrokovo napotitev k logopedu. Hkrati smo preverili vpliv neustreznih navodil na artikulacijske motnje in koliko neodvisne spremenljivke, spol, izobrazba in jezik družine, vplivajo na uspešnost pri opisovanju slike, ponavljanju in dopolnjevanju povedi.

Želeli smo ugotoviti tudi korelacije artikulacijskih motenj, glasovnih motenj, ritma, metateze, neustreznosti govoril, opisovanja slike, ponavljanja in dopolnjevanja povedi ter otrokove napotitve k logopedu s tem, kdaj je otrok shodil, s katerimi meseci je povedal prvo besedo, ali so se pojavile težave ob porodu, kako dolgo je bil dojen, kako dolgo je uporabljal stekleničko, koliko mesecev je sesal prst ali dudo, kdaj je postal čist in od katerega leta je v vrtcu.

2.2. Raziskovalna metoda

Raziskava temelji na deskriptivni in kavzalno-neeksperimentalni metodi empiričnega pedagoškega raziskovanja.

2.3. Raziskovalni vzorec

Vzorec otrok je bil neslučajnost in je zajemal sto otrok, starih pet let, med katerimi je bilo 45 dečkov in 55 deklic.

V raziskavo je bilo vključenih več otrok (95%), ki izhajajo iz enojezične družine, le majhen odstotek (5%) prihaja iz dvo- oziroma večjezične družine.

Največ staršev (41%) ima štiriletno univerzitetno izobrazbo, sledijo starši, ki imajo 6. stopnjo izobrazbe (28%) in nato tisti s 5. stopnjo (16%) oziroma srednjo poklicno stopnjo izobrazbe (15%). V slednjo, 4. stopnjo, smo že pred izračunom rezultatov vključili starše z osnovnošolsko in nižjo poklicno izobrazbo, saj je bil odstotek teh zelo nizek (3%).

Najvišji delež otrok je shodil med 11. in 14. mesecem. Največ jih je shodilo z 12. meseci (22%), sledi 13. mesec (20%), nato 11. (18%) oziroma 14. mesec (17%). Delež otrok, ki so shodili s 15. (9%) oziroma 10. mescem (8%), je manjši. Najmanj otrok je shodilo v obdobju 16. mesecev (4%) in v zgodnjem obdobju 9. mesecev (2%).

Več kot tretjina otrok (37%) je začela govoriti z 12. meseci. Sledijo 11. (30%) in 10. (13%) oziroma 13. mesec (11%). Od 14. do 18. meseca je delež otrok, ki so takrat prvič fluentno izgovorili prvo besedo, precej nizek. V 14. in 15. mesecu so prvo besedo izgovorili 3 otroci, v 17. mesecu le 1 otrok in v 18. mesecu 2 otroka.

Analiza je pokazala, da se je velika večina otrok (76%) morala spopasti s težavami ob rojstvu (rizičnimi faktorji). Ob tem pa je treba poudariti, da se pri 59 otrocih pojavi ena težava, pri 11 dve težavi ob porodu in pri 6 kar tri težave ob porodu. Od tega se največkrat pojavlja kombinacija predčasnega poroda in carskega reza ter predčasnega poroda ali dolgotrajnega poroda z zlatenico. Težave ob porodu ni imel le manjši odstotek otrok (24%). Najpogostejša težava ob porodu je pojav zlatenice (21%). Sledi predčasni porod (17%) in druge težave (15%), ki niso podane na vprašalniku in so jih starši dopisali sami. Druge težave, ki so se pojavljale in so jih navedli starši, so: napaka ledvice (hidronefroza), prehitro utrip srca, predolga popkovnica, nepravilna lega otroka in nezmožnost dihanja ob rojstvu. Težave, ki so podane na vprašalniku, a so se pojavljale v manjši meri, so ovita popkovnica (12%), dolgotrajni porod (5%) oziroma nezmožnost sesanja (ni imel sesalnega refleksa) (5%) in ob rojstvu ni bilo prisotnega krika ali joka (1%). Obporodni krči in pomodrelost ob rojstvu se na našem vzorcu otrok kot težava ob porodu niso pojavili.

12 odstotkov otrok ni bilo dojenih, ostalih 88 odstotkov se razporedi pod naslednje mesece. Tako po najvišjem številu odstotkov (9%) sledita 3. oziroma 11. mesec dojenja. 7 otrok je bilo dojenih do 1., 2. in 8. meseca. 6 jih je bilo dojenih do 7. in

9. meseca. Do 4., 6. in 12. meseca je bilo dojenih 5 otrok. Sledijo 4 otroci, ki so bili dojeni do 10. meseca. 3 otroci so bili dojeni do 14. in 24. meseca, 2 do 13., 15., 18. meseca ter 1 otrok do 5., 16., 26., 30., 38. in 42. meseca.

V analizi se je pokazalo, da skoraj tretjina otrok (30%) ni uporabljala stekleničke, do 24. meseca je stekleničko uporabljalo 14 odstotkov otrok, do 12. meseca pa 13 odstotkov otrok. Sledi uporaba stekleničke do 18. meseca 11 odstotkov, do 36. meseca 7 odstotkov in do 15. meseca 5 odstotkov otrok. Do 10., 11., 30., 42. meseca sta stekleničko uporabljala 2 otroka. 1 otrok je stekleničko uporabljal do naslednjih mesecev: 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 13, 14, 26 in 48.

Analiza je pokazala, da kar 32 odstotkov otrok ni sesalo dode ali prsta. Najvišji odstotek (17%) jih je sesalo prst ali dudo do 24. meseca, sledi 14 odstotkov otrok, ki je sesalo prst ali dudo do 36. meseca. 7 otrok je dudo ali prst sesalo do 12. meseca oziroma do 18. meseca. Do 30. meseca so 4 otroci sesali dudo ali prst. Do 2., 3., 11. oziroma 16. meseca sta prst ali dudo sesala 2 otroka in do 1., 4., 5., 6., 8., 9., 10., 15., 20., 48., 60. meseca 1 otrok.

Največ otrok (32%) je tako postalo čistih pri 24. mesecih in pri 36. mesecih 20 odstotkov. Pri 30. mesecih je postalo čistih 15 odstotkov otrok. Pri 26. mesecih 6 odstotkov in pri 18. mesecih 5 odstotkov otrok. 3 otroci so postali čisti pri 28. mesecih in pri 48. mesecih, medtem ko sta 2 otroka postala čista pri 19., 22., 33. oziroma 60. mesecih. 1 otrok je postal čist pri 12., 15., 20., 23., 29., 37., 45. oziroma 54. mesecih.

Med vzorcem sto otrok jih je skoraj polovica vrtec začela obiskovati s prvim letom (47%), sledi drugo leto s 25 odstotki in tretje leto s 24 odstotki otrok. S četrtem letom je v vrtec začel hoditi le 1 otrok. 3 otroci od celotnega vzorca ne obiskujejo vrta.

Analiza je prav tako pokazala, da večina otrok (95%) piše z desno roko, le 5 odstotkov otrok z levo. Zaradi majhnega odstotka levoročnih otrok tega podatka nismo uporabili pri kasnejši analizi podatkov.

2.4. Merski instrument

Uporabili smo naslednje merske instrumente: vprašalnik o otroku (generalije), test artikulacije in ugotavljanje prisotnosti metateze, test kvalitete glasu, test ritma govora, test ustreznosti govoril ter test govora in jezika. Test govora in jezika je bil razdeljen na tri dele: dokončanje povedi (12 postavk), ponavljanje povedi (12 postavk) in opis slike. Z ocenjevanjem otrokove razvojne ravni govora in jezika smo tako preverjali predvsem njegovo komunikativnost, besedni zaklad in gramatično pravilnost.

Vsi merski instrumenti so bili sestavljeni na osnovi dosedanjih spoznanj (Globačnik, 1999).

2.5. Postopek zbiranja podatkov

Podatke smo zbirali s snemanjem, vprašalniki za starše in z neposrednim poslušanjem otrokovega govora. V raziskavo so bili zajeti otroci, ki so obiskali logopeda v sklopu sistematičnega preventivnega pregleda v Zdravstvenem domu dr. Adolfa Drolca Maribor.

2.6. Statistična obdelava podatkov

Podatke raziskave, ki so prikazani tabelarično, smo analizirali s pomočjo programa SPSS. Uporabili smo naslednje statistične tehnike:

- frekvenčne distribucije (f, f%),
- inferenčna statistika: neparametrični preizkusi (χ^2 -preizkus) in parametrični statistični preizkus (t-test),
- Pearsonov koeficient korelacije (r) in biserialni koeficient korelacije (r_{pb}).

Pri statističnem sklepanju je bila stopnja tveganja 0,05.

3. Rezultati in interpretacija

3.1. Analiza rezultatov testa artikulacije, kvalitete glasu, ritma govora in ustreznosti govoril

Raziskava je pokazala, da se artikulacijske težave pojavljajo pri 51 odstotkih otrok.

Največ težav pri izgovoru povzročajo šumniki (30%), sledijo težave z izgovarjavo sičnikov (26%) oziroma glasu /r/ in /l/ (26%), pri tem prevladujejo težave z glasom /r/ (23%). V manjši meri se kot težava pojavlja izgovor glasov /k/, /g/ in /h/ (1%).

Kakovost glasu je pri danem vzorcu otrok precej visoka, saj ima težavo le 6 otrok.

Pri glasovnih motnjah se je prav tako pojavila ena težava pri enem otroku in ne več težav kot v primeru artikulacijskih motenj. Glasovne motnje, ki se pojavljajo, so: hripav glas pri 3, visok glas pri 1 in nazalen glas pri 2 otrocih.

Tudi težave z ritmom govora ima le majhen odstotek otrok (3%), metateza glasov se pri obravnavanem vzorcu otrok ne pojavi.

Neustrezna govorila (oziroma njihova okvara) se pojavijo pri 21 otrocih (21%), vseh težav, ki se pojavljajo pri govorilih je 27. Pri treh otrocih se namreč pojavita dve težavi in pri enem celo tri, in sicer ima največ otrok težave s prognatijo (7%), togim

jezikom (5%), progenijo (4%), malokluzijo (3%), z jezikom med zobmi in ustnicami (2%). Odprti griz kot težava se ne pojavi (0%).

Pod rubriko drugo smo ugotovili, da se pojavljajo naslednje težave: kratka podjezična vez (3%), kariozen zgornji zobni lok (1%), manjkajoči zgornji zobni niz (1%) in shiza (1%).

Rezultati t-preizkusa razlik v rezultatu na testu artikulacije in glasovnih motenj glede na spol otroka in jezik v družini kažejo, da statistično značilne razlike med temi spremenljivkami ne obstajajo. Analiza rezultatov F-preizkusa analize varianc v rezultatu na testu artikulacije in testu glasovnih motenj glede na izobrazbo staršev kaže tendenco le pri artikulacijskih motnjah glede na stopnjo izobrazbe staršev ($P = 0,099$), kar pomeni, da se pri otrocih staršev z višjo izobrazbo pojavlja manj artikulacijskih težav in obratno. Pri drugih spremenljivkah razlike niso statistično značilne.

Izid χ^2 -preizkusa razlik ritma, metateze, ustreznosti govoril in obiska pri logopedu glede na otrokov spol, jezik v družini ter stopnjo izobrazbe staršev kaže, da statistično značilne razlike med spremenljivkami ne obstajajo.

S Pearsonovim koeficientom korelacije (r) smo preverili, ali obstajajo statistično značilne razlike med izbranimi dejavniki govornega razvoja (kdaj je otrok shodil, povedal prvo besedo, ali so se pojavile težave ob porodu, do katerega meseca je bil dojen, uporabljal stekleničko, sesal dudo ali prst, kdaj je postal čist, kdaj je začel obiskovati vrtec) glede na artikulacijske in glasovne motnje. Rezultati so v nadaljevanju prikazani tabelarično.

Tabela 1: Pearsonov koeficient korelacije (r) med artikulacijskimi motnjami (vsota točk) in posameznimi izbranimi dejavniki govornega razvoja (v mesecih)

Izbrani dejavniki govornega razvoja	Artikulacijske motnje	
	r	P
Shodil	0,147	0,143
Prva beseda	-0,130	0,197
Težave ob porodu	0,012	0,908
Dojen	-0,156	0,121
Steklenička	0,274	0,006
Sesal prst/dudo	0,125	0,214
Čist	0,007	0,948
Vrtec	-0,018	0,858

Kot je razvidno iz tabele, se je statistično pomembna razlika pokazala le v enem primeru, in sicer med artikulacijskimi motnjami in stekleničko ($P = 0,006$). To pomeni, da dlje kot otrok uporablja stekleničko, višja je možnost za artikulacijske motnje.

Tabela 2: Pearsonov koeficient korelacije (r) med glasovnimi motnjami (vsota točk) in posameznimi izbranimi dejavniki govornega razvoja (v mesecih)

Izbrani dejavniki govornega razvoja	Glasovne motnje	
	r	P
Shodil	-0,088	0,385
Prva beseda	-0,034	0,736
Težave ob porodu	0,076	0,454
Dojen	0,061	0,546
Steklenička	0,049	0,628
Sesal prst/dudo	0,173	0,085
Čist	-0,054	0,596
Vrtec	-0,065	0,520

Med glasovnimi motnjami in izbranimi dejavniki govornega razvoja ne obstaja statistično značilna razlika. Se pa pri sesanju prst ali dude glede na glasovne motnje kaže tendenca ($P = 0,085$), da dlje kot otrok sesa prsta ali dudo, višja je možnost za motnje glasu.

Za preverjanje zveze med dejavniki govornega razvoja in motnjo ritma, ustreznostjo govoril ter obiska pri logopedu smo uporabili biserialni koeficienta korelacije (r_{pb}). Prav tako smo biserialni koeficient korelacije uporabili za ugotavljanje, ali neustreznost govoril vpliva na artikulacijske in glasovne motnje.

Tabela 3: Biserialni koeficient korelacije (r_{pb}) ritma (izraženo kot “primeren”, “neprimeren” ritem) s posameznimi izbranimi dejavniki govornega razvoja (v mesecih)

Izbrani dejavniki govornega razvoja	Ritem	
	r_{pb}	P
Shodil	-0,168	0,094
Prva beseda	-0,063	0,536
Težave ob porodu	-0,094	0,354
Dojen	0,065	0,519
Steklenička	-0,043	0,673
Sesal prst/dudo	0,038	0,706
Čist	-0,085	0,399
Vrtec	-0,078	0,440

Koeficienti kažejo, da med ritmom in izbranimi dejavniki govornega razvoja ne obstaja statistično značilna korelacija. Se pa pri spremenljivki, kdaj je otrok shodil, kaže tendenca ($P = 0,094$), da imajo otroci, ki shodijo kasneje, več težav z ritmom v govoru.

Tabela 4: Biserialni koeficient korelacije (r_{pb}) govoril (“ustrezna”, “neustrezna” govorila) s posameznimi izbranimi dejavniki govornega razvoja (v mesecih)

Izbrani dejavniki govornega razvoja	Govorila	
	r_{pb}	P
Shodil	0,030	0,764
Prva beseda	0,012	0,907
Težave ob porodu	0,001	0,990
Dojen	-0,150	0,136
Steklenička	0,185	0,066
Sesal prst/dudo	0,126	0,213
Čist	0,192	0,056
Vrtec	0,046	0,650

Med govorili in izbranimi dejavniki govornega razvoja ne obstaja statistično značilna korelacija. Tendenca se kaže le v primeru stekleničke ($P = 0,066$) in kdaj je otrok postal čist ($P = 0,056$). In sicer pri otrocih, ki dlje časa pijejo iz stekleničke, in pri tistih, ki kasneje postanejo čisti (podnevi in ponoči), zasledimo več neustreznih govoril.

Tabela 5: Izid biserialni koeficient korelacije (r_{pb}) napatitve otroka k logopedu (izraženo dihotomno kot “da”, “ne”) s posameznimi izbranimi dejavniki govornega razvoja (v mes.)

Izbrani dejavniki govornega razvoja	Logoped	
	r_{pb}	P
Shodil	0,176	0,080
Prva beseda	-0,082	0,417
Težave ob porodu	0,020	0,843
Dojen	-0,123	0,224
Steklenička	0,215	0,031
Sesal prst/dudo	0,007	0,949
Čist	0,17	0,867
Vrtec	0,026	0,798

Statistično značilna korelacija obstaja med obiskom logopeda in stekleničko ($P = 0,031$). Otroci, ki so dlje časa pili iz stekleničke, imajo pogosteje govorne težave in zaradi tega hodijo na logopedsko obravnavo. Izpostavimo še to, da se pri spremenljivki, kdaj je otrok shodil, kaže tendenca ($P = 0,080$), da so otroci, ki shodijo kasneje, v večji meri napoteni k logopedu.

Tabela 6: Biserialni koeficient korelacije (r_{pb}) artikulacijskih in glasovnih motenj (izračun v točkah) z govorili (izraženo kot “ustrezna”, “neustrezna” govorila)

Motnje	Govorila	
	r_{pb}	P
Artikulacijske motnje	0,265	0,008
Glasovne motnje	-0,027	0,791

Kakor je razvidno iz tabele, obstaja statistično značilna korelacija med artikulacijskimi motnjami in govorili ($P = 0,008$). Otroci, pri katerih se pojavijo težave z govorili, imajo več težav pri izgovoru določenih glasov.

3.2. Analiza rezultatov dopolnjevanja, ponavljanja in opisovanja slike

Analiza je pokazala, da je največ otrok (28%) pravilno ponovilo deset povedi, 24 otrok je imelo pravilnih devet oziroma enajst povedi. Torej je kar tri četrtine vseh otrok v vzorcu doseglo zelo dober rezultat. Sedem povedi je imelo pravilnih 10 odstotkov otrok, sledi dvanajst stavkov z 8 odstotkov in osem stavkov, ki jih je pravilno dopolnilo 6 odstotkov otrok.

5-letniki so imeli veliko več težav s ponavljanjem povedi kot z dopolnjevanjem teh. Največ težav se je pojavilo pri dvo- oziroma večstavčnih povedih. Največ otrok (39%) je pravilno ponovilo osem povedi, sledi sedem povedi, ki jih je pravilno ponovilo 20 odstotkov otrok oziroma devet pravilno ponovljenih povedi (17%). Enajst povedi je pravilno ponovilo 9 otrok, deset povedi pa 7 otrok. 5 otrok je pravilno ponovilo šest povedi, 2 otroka pet in le en otrok je pravilno ponovil vseh dvanajst povedi. Največ težav je otrokom povzročala zadnja, dvanajsta poved, saj so si jo težko zapomnili.

Opisovanje slike smo točkovali od 0 točk do 4 točk, in sicer je največ otrok (42%) dobilo dve točki, sledijo tri točke, ki jih je dobilo 31 otrok, in ena točka, ki jo je dobilo 16 otrok. Najvišje število točk, štiri, je dobilo le 6 otrok. 5 otrok je dobilo nič točk, kar pomeni, da njihovo pripovedovanje ali govor ni bil razumljiv, da so težko začeli stavek in niso poznali izrazov za živali ter stvari, ki so se pojavile na sliki.

V nadaljevanju predstavljamo rezultate preverjanja razlik glede na to, kako možni dejavniki govornega razvoja vplivajo na otrokovo sposobnost dopolnjevanja, pona-

vljanja povedi, opisovanja slike, za katere smo uporabili Pearsonov koeficient korelacije (r).

Tabela 7: Pearsonov koeficient korelacije med dopolnjenimi stavki (število pravih povedi) in posameznimi izbranimi dejavniki govornega razvoja (meseči)

<i>Izbrani dejavniki govornega razvoja</i>	<i>Dopolni povedi</i>	
	<i>r</i>	<i>P</i>
Shodil	0,071	0,485
Prva beseda	-0,259	0,009
Težave ob porodu	0,116	0,249
Dojen	0,158	0,116
Steklenička	-0,208	0,038
Sesal prst/dudo	-0,114	0,260
Čist	-0,231	0,021
Vrtec	0,114	0,257

Statistično značilna korelacija se pojavlja le pri otrokovi prvi besedi ($P = 0,009$), steklenički ($P = 0,038$) in kdaj je otrok postal čist ($P = 0,021$). To pomeni, da ima otrok, ki kasneje spregovori, uporablja stekleničko dlje časa in kasneje postane čist, več težav z dopolnjevanjem povedi.

Tabela 8: Pearsonov koeficient korelacije med ponovljenimi povedmi (število) in posameznimi izbranimi dejavniki govornega razvoja (meseči)

<i>Izbrani dejavniki govornega razvoja</i>	<i>Ponovi povedi</i>	
	<i>r</i>	<i>P</i>
Shodil	0,080	0,430
Prva beseda	-0,146	0,147
Težave ob porodu	-0,061	0,549
Dojen	0,055	0,590
Steklenička	-0,152	0,130
Sesal prst/dudo	-0,093	0,359
Čist	-0,102	0,311
Vrtec	0,234	0,019

Pozitivna statistično značilna korelacija se kaže le med vrtcem (s katerim letom ga je otrok začel obiskovati in ali ga sploh obiskuje) in ponovljenimi povedmi

($P = 0,019$). Otroci, ki so kasneje začeli hoditi v vrtec ali ga sploh ne obiskujejo, imajo več težav s ponovitvijo večstavčnih povedi.

Tabela 9: Pearsonov koeficient korelacije med opisom slike (točke) in posameznimi izbranimi dejavniki govornega razvoja (meseci)

Izbrani dejavniki govornega razvoja	Opis slike	
	<i>r</i>	<i>P</i>
Shodil	-0,102	0,313
Prva beseda	-0,267	0,007
Težave ob porodu	-0,052	0,607
Dojen	0,188	0,061
Steklenička	-0,099	0,326
Sesal prst/dudo	-0,107	0,289
Čist	-0,147	0,143
Vrtec	0,150	0,136

Statistično značilna korelacija je med prvo izgovorjeno besedo in opisom slike ($P = 0,007$). Otroci, ki so začeli govoriti kasneje, imajo več težav z opisovanjem slike oziroma pripovedovanjem o njej. Težava je lahko povezana z razvojem celotne govorne ravni otroka. Se pa kaže tudi tendenca med tem, kako dolgo je otrok dojen in opisom slike ($P = 0,061$). Pomeni, da če je otrok bil dojen daljši čas, ima zaradi tega več težav pri opisovanju slike.

4. Sklep

Pri razvoju podatkov se naš vzorec otrok ujema s siceršnjimi kazalci razvoja: otroci najpogosteje shodijo pri enem letu in takrat se pojavijo tudi prve besede. Največ otrok je postalo čistih med drugim in tretjim letom, to so pokazale tudi tuje raziskave, kar kaže na trend osamosvajanja v čistoči. Večina otrok prav tako obiskuje vrtec in kar 95 odstotkov je desnoročnih. Presenetljivo je veliko število obporodnih težav (76%). Na srečo te niso v večini usodne (zlatenica, predčasni in dolgotrajni porod), kažejo pa na veliko ranljivost novorojenčkov. V raziskavi *Govorna razvitost petletnih otrok* avtorji Smole, Holnthaner in Gosar navajajo, da je obporodne tvegane dejavnike imelo visoko število otrok (66,5%) (Smole idr., 2015). V naši raziskavi je teh dejavnikov torej še več, in sicer za dobrih 10 odstotkov. Posledice obporodnih težav se torej lahko pokažejo na govorni in jezikovni ravni, ki je zaključek otrokovega telesnega in duševnega dozorevanja.

Izjemno zaskrbljujoč je vpliv stekleničke pri dobljenih rezultatih. Predvidevamo, da so zaradi velikega poudarjanja slabosti dude, sesanja prsta s strani psihologov, logopedov, zobozdravnikov idr. začeli starši otrokom odtegovati dudo. Na slabosti predolge uporabe stekleničke pa ne opozarja veliko strokovnjakov. Pri otrocih, ki so po dopolnjenem prvem letu še naprej uporabljali dudo in stekleničke, kar se je pokazalo za vzrok govornih težav zaradi poškodbe govoril (21 %), so se v veliki meri pojavljale artikulacijske motnje (51 %) in zaradi tega tudi napotitev k logopedu (45 %). Nepravilnosti zaradi razvad se lahko pojavijo že pri mlečnih zobeh. Duda, prst in steklenička je v otrokovih ustih pasivno, otrok je včasih niti ne sesa, zato se jezik mora umakniti navzdol in naprej. To nato vrši lateralni pritisk na spodnje podočnike in prav tako kočnike, posledično se spodnji zobni niz razširi in zoži zgornji. Posledica tega je premik zgornje ali spodnje čeljusti (Lajh, 2008).

Positiven vpliv pa se kaže predvsem pri višji izobrazbi staršev glede na otrokov govor, otroci staršev z višjo izobrazbo imajo manj artikulacijskih težav. Pri raziskavi Smole, Holnthaner in Gosar so prav tako ugotovili pozitiven vpliv izobrazbe na govor (Smole idr., 2015). Pojav prve besede in vključevanje otrok v vrtec prav tako pomembno vpliva na otrokov jezikovni razvoj in njegovo komunikacijsko zmožnost. V vrtcu namreč otrok dobi ustrezne spodbude pri govorjenju.

Otroci ob pozitivni spodbudi staršev hitreje usvajajo pravilen govor, razvijajo motorične spretnosti in usvajajo socialne veščine ter si pridobijo nova znanja in veščine. Premagovanje govornih težav in razvoj govora je za otroka manj stresen, če starši v njem budijo njegovo inovativnost in radovednost z zabavnimi, prijetnimi in zanimivimi nalogami, kot če mu "naložijo" izredno težke in nepremagljive naloge (Bregant, 2012). Otrok tako pri starših in vzgojiteljih ne sme zaznati neugodja ob njegovih govorno-jezikovnih nepravilnostih, saj to vpliva na njegov čustveni razvoj in možno kasnejšo šolsko neuspešnost. Prav tako pa morajo biti ti pri svojem govoru izredno pazljivi, saj otrok svoj govor prilagaja tistemu, ki ga sliši v bližnji okolici (prav tam). Govor otroka je torej odvisen od mnogih vplivov, vendar jih bo otrok lažje premagoval, če bo imel ob sebi ljubeče odrasle osebe, ki mu bodo v prizadevanjih pomagale, mu stale ob strani tudi, če mu spodleti in takrat nad njim ne bodo obupale.

Barbara Brec, Majda Schmidt, PhD, Franc Smole, PhD

Identifying speech and language disorders in 5-year-old children

Speech and language develop incredibly quickly during early childhood, therefore the pre-school period is very important for their evolvement. In this period, children imitate the speech of their environment and begin to grasp the rules governing the language. Despite some positive results and a slight decline in five-year-olds that need speech therapy, the percentage of those who do is still quite high (Smole, Holnthaner and Gosar, 2015). Speech development greatly depends on the children's mental state,

their mental and physical development and influences from their environment (Grilc, 2013). Speech and language therapy experts furthermore warn that the environment, where children are growing up, has the greatest effect on their speech (family members, the wider social environment, kindergarten and peer group), as well as the socio-economic factors of the family and parents' education.

The study showed that articulation issues occurred in 51% of the children. The majority of problems was with the articulation of palato-alveolar sibilants (30%), followed by problems with articulating alveolar sibilants (26%) and the /r/ and /l/ sound (26%), of which there were more issues pronouncing the /r/ sound (23%). To a lesser degree, the problem of articulating /k/, /g/ and /h/ (1%) occurred. The voice quality of the given sample of children was quite high, with only 6 children having some issues. Voice disorders which occurred were: a hoarse voice in 3, a high voice in 1, and a nasal voice in 2 children. Moreover, only a small percentage of children (3%) had problems with speech rhythm, and no voice metathesis occurred in the children. Unsuitable vocal organs (their malfunction) occurred in 21 children (21%), while 27 had some type of a vocal organ problem. Three children experienced two problems and one child experienced as much as three, with the greatest number experiencing prognathism (7%), stiff tongue (5%), progenism (4%), malocclusion (3%), and tongue between teeth and lips (2%). Open bite problems did not occur (0%). In addition, the following problems occurred: short sublingual frenulum (3%), caries-affected upper dental arch (1%), missing teeth in upper jaw (1%) and a cleft (1%).

The results of the *t*-test of differences in the results of the articulation, and voice disorder test according to the child's gender and the family language showed that there are no statistically significant differences between these variables. The analysis of the *F*-test variance analysis results of the articulation test and the voice disorder test according to the parents' education show a tendency only in articulation disorders regarding the education level of the parents ($P = 0.099$), which means that children of parents with a higher education have fewer articulation problems and vice versa. The differences occurring with the other variables are not statistically significant.

The outcome of the χ^2 -test of differences in rhythm, metathesis, vocal organ suitability and speech and language therapist visits, depending on the child's gender, language spoken in their family, and parents' education level showed that there are no statistically significant differences among the variables.

We used the Pearson correlation coefficient (*r*) to verify whether a statistically significant difference exists between the selected speech development factors (started walking, pronouncing the first word, problems during the labour, up to which month the child was breastfed, up to which month the child was bottle-fed, sucking a dummy or thumb, becoming dry, started attending kindergarten) according to the articulation and voice disorders. The results showed that only one example indicated a statistically significant difference, namely the difference between the articulation disorders and the bottle-fed category ($P = 0.006$), meaning that the longer a child uses a bottle, the higher the chance of articulation disorders. No statistically significant difference was found

between the voice disorders and the selected speech development factors. Although, regarding voice disorders, there is a tendency ($P = 0.085$) where children who suck their thumb or dummy longer have a greater possibility for also having a voice disorder.

To verify the correlation between speech development factors and rhythm disorders, vocal organ suitability, and visits to a speech and language therapist, we used the biserial correlation coefficient (r_{pb}). We likewise used the biserial correlation coefficient to determine whether the vocal organ unsuitability affects articulation and voice disorders. The coefficients indicated that there is no statistically significant correlation between rhythm and the selected speech development factors. However, with the variable started walking a tendency emerged ($P = 0.094$), implying that children who start walking later, have more problems with speech rhythm in the future. The coefficients indicated that there is no statistically significant correlation between the vocal organs and the selected speech development factors. A tendency only emerged in the case of up to which month the child was bottle-fed ($P = 0.066$) and becoming dry ($P = 0.056$). Namely, children that were bottle-fed longer, and those that became dry later, exhibited more unsuitable vocal organs. A statistically significant correlation was also shown between visits to the speech and language therapist and being bottle-fed ($P = 0.031$). Children that were bottle-fed longer, have more frequent speech problems and have to visit the speech and language therapist. It should also be noted that the variable started walking indicates a tendency ($P = 0.080$), implying that the children who start walking later are more likely to be referred to a speech and language therapist. Additionally, we found a statistically significant correlation between articulation disorders and vocal organs ($P = 0.008$), meaning that children who have problems with their vocal organs, have more trouble with articulation of certain sounds.

The analysis showed that the majority of children (28%) correctly repeated ten sentences, 24% of children correctly repeated nine or eleven sentences. Therefore, three quarters of all children in the sample achieved a very good result. 10% of children correctly repeated seven sentences, followed by 8% of children with twelve correct sentences, and 6% of children who correctly repeated eight sentences.

The five-year-olds found it much more difficult to repeat than to complete the sentences. The majority of problems occurred with two- or multi-clause sentences. The most children (39%) correctly repeated eight sentences, followed by seven sentences, which were correctly repeated by 20% of the children, and nine correctly repeated sentences by 17% of children. 9 children correctly repeated eleven, while 7 children correctly repeated ten sentences. 5 children correctly repeated six sentences, 2 children repeated five and only one child correctly repeated all twelve sentences. Children had the most problems with the twelfth sentence, as they found it difficult to remember.

The picture description task was marked with 0 to 4 points; the most children (42%) got two points, 31 children got three points, and 16 children got one point. Only 6 children got four points, the highest number of points. 5 children got zero points, which means that their narration or speech was incomprehensible.

Next, the results of verifying the differences according to how the possible speech development factors affect the children's ability to complete, repeat the sentences, and describe the picture, for which we used the Pearson correlation coefficient (r), were presented. A statistically significant correlation only occurred with the variables pronouncing the first word ($P = 0.009$), up to which month the child was bottle-fed ($P = 0.038$) and becoming dry ($P = 0.021$). This means that a child who starts speaking later, is bottle-fed longer and becomes dry later as well, has more difficulties with completing sentences. A positive statistically significant correlation was only found between the kindergarten (started attending kindergarten) and the number of repeated sentences ($P = 0.019$). Children that started attending kindergarten later or do not even attend one, have more difficulties with repeating multi-clause sentences. There was also a statistically significant correlation between the pronouncing the first word and picture description ($P = 0.007$). Children who started speaking later, have more difficulties with describing the picture or talking about it. The problem may be connected with the development of the child's entire level of speech. A tendency was also indicated between up to which month the child was breastfed and describing the picture ($P = 0.061$), implying that if children were breastfed for a longer period of time, they find it more difficult to describe a picture.

Our sample of children matches the otherwise available development indicators: children most commonly begin walking at the age of one and that is also when they begin to speak. Most of the children became dry between the ages of two and three, which was validated by international studies, indicating a trend in becoming independent regarding dryness. The majority of children also attend kindergarten and as many as 95% are right-handed. There was a surprising number of labour and childbirth problems (76%). Luckily, the problems are mostly not fatal, however, they do indicate the high level of vulnerability of the newborn babies. The study *Govorna razvitost petletnih otrok (Speech Development of Five-Year-Old Children)*, by the authors Smole, Holnthaner and Gosar, shows that a large number of children experienced problems during their birth (66.5%) (Smole et al., 2015). In our study we found a good 10% of more factors. The consequences of problems during labour can therefore manifest on the speech and linguistic level, being the conclusion of children's physical and mental maturation.

The impact of bottle-feeding, visible in the obtained results, is extremely worrying. In children, who were still using dummies after the age of one and were bottle-fed (which was shown to be the cause of speech problems due to the damaged vocal organs (21%)), the articulation disorders were very common (51%), and consequently also the number of referrals to the speech and language therapist (45%) (Lajh, 2008). A positive impact on the child's speech can be seen primarily in connection with the (higher) level of parents' education; children of parents with a higher education have fewer articulation problems. Children's first words and their kindergarten attendance also have an important effect on their language development and communication skills. This is because children receive suitable encouragement to speak in the kindergarten. Children's speech therefore depends on many factors and influences, however, they overcome problems much more easily if loving adults stand by their side, helping them in their efforts, and, even if they fail, the adults do not give up on them.

LITERATURA

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Predšolski otroci in vpliv medijev

Znanstveni članek

UDK 173.5-053.4:659.3

KLJUČNE BESEDE: medijska pismenost, predšolski otroci, medijska izpostavljenost, poučevanje

POVZETEK – Z večanjem vpliva množičnih medijev na potrošnike se povečuje tudi medijska izpostavljenost najmlajših članov občinstva. Raziskali smo nekatere medijske navade predšolskih otrok in pri tem ločevali med dvema starostnima skupinama – otroci, starimi 0–3 let in 3–6 let. Ugotavljali smo povezavo med medijsko izpostavljenostjo staršev in otrok ter pogostost nadzora, medijskih navad in interpretiranja medijskih vsebin s strani staršev. Iz raziskave je razvidno, da starejši predšolski otroci gledajo televizijo skoraj eno uro na dan – medtem ko mlajši otroci (do treh let) v povprečju gledajo televizijo malo manj kot 45 minut dnevno. Starši sicer v večini postavljajo merila glede medijev, a hkrati priznavajo, da imajo le-ti velik vpliv na njihove otroke. Zaradi odsotnosti medijske vzgoje v okviru formalnega izobraževanja vse do zadnje triade desetletke pa morajo predvsem starši prevzeti aktivno vlogo zgodnjega izobraževalca na področju medijske pismenosti. Ta naloga ni lahka, saj starši sami velikokrat nimajo znanj in sposobnosti medijsko pismene osebe.

Scientific paper

UDC 173.5-053.4:659.3

KEYWORDS: media literacy, pre-school children, media exposure, teaching

ABSTRACT – With the increased media influence on consumers, media exposure of the youngest members of the audience is also increasing. In our research, we focused on some of the media habits of two pre-school children groups: 1–3 and 3–6 years old children. The research was aimed at examining the relationship between the media exposure of parents and their children. We observed the frequency of parental supervision of children's media habits, and the frequency of interpreting the media content to children. The results showed that older pre-school children (3–6 years old) watch TV almost an hour a day, while younger (1–3 years old) a little less than 45 minutes a day. Parents mostly set the rules regarding media exposure, however, they admit that media have a great influence on their children. Since the implementation of media education in the scope of formal education is inconsistent, parents have to take an active part in early media literacy education. This task is not easy as parents themselves often lack the knowledge and skills of media literacy.

1. Uvod

Z izrazom “mediji” najpogosteje opisujemo množične medije, kot so tisk, radio, televizija ali internet. Njihova raba je postala dnevna stalnica v življenju ljudi in pomemben vzvod širjenja idej, formiranja predstav o svetu, življenjskih stilov ter vedenjskih vzorcev.

Zaradi stalne prisotnosti množičnih medijev v našem vsakdanjiku postajajo sposobnosti, znanja in razumevanja, ki uporabnikom medijskih storitev in produktov omogoča koristno, učinkovito in varno rabo medijev, definirana kot ključne kompetence vseživljenjskega učenja. Gre za sposobnosti posameznikov, da uporabljajo ter hkrati tudi avtonomno in kritično interpretirajo tok, vsebino, vrednote in učinke

raznovrstnih medijev in tudi sami sodelujejo pri ustvarjanju medijskih sporočil. Te kompetence je treba neprestano razvijati in nadgrajevati skladno s hitrim razvojem in spreminjanjem tako tehnologij kot načinov uporabe tehnologij medijske krajine. Zato vedno bolj relevantna pedagoška tematika postaja tudi vzgoja in izobraževanje za medije, katere namen je medijsko opismenjevanje posameznikov vse od zgodnjega otroštva pa do pozne starosti.

Vzgoja in izobraževanje na področju medijev sicer ni namenjena samo otrokom in mladostnikom, ampak v sodobnih družbah predstavlja vseživljenjski projekt. Vendar se bomo v članku omejili na raziskovanje medijskih navad predšolskih otrok. Raziskave s tega področja, opravljene v tujini, namreč kažejo na presenetljiv obseg medijske aktivnosti najmlajših članov občinstva. Raziskave pri do dveh let starih otrocih v ZDA kažejo, da 40 odstotkov otrok pod enim letom redno gleda televizijo. Do 24 meseca starosti se odstotek dvigne na 90 odstotkov. Pred letom starosti so otroci povprečno televiziji izpostavljeni 1 uro dnevno, med 1 in 2 leti pa že 1,5 ure dnevno. V ZDA ima TV v svoji spalni sobi skoraj petina dojenčkov, skoraj tretjina 2- do 3-letnikov, skoraj polovica 4- do 6-letnikov in več kot dve tretjini otrok, starih več kot 8 let (Zimmerman idr., 2007a,b; Rideout, 2014; Ofcom, 2013).

Povečanje izpostavljenosti medijem se širi tudi v države Evropske unije in Sloveniji (Rek idr., 2013). V slovenskem kontekstu lahko kot zanimiv primer povečane izpostavljenosti medijev omenimo izpostavljenost zunanjemu oglaševanju. Tako smo od osamosvojitve Slovenije naprej, ko zunanjega oglaševanja praktično nismo poznali, že do leta 2006 dobili preko 12.000 legalno postavljenih "jumbo" in "city-light" plakatnih mest (Prepeluh, 2006), ki so jim neizbežno izpostavljeni tudi majhni otroci. Ker je pri tem narava sodobnih medijev takšna, da omogoča nezavedno sugestibilno komuniciranje tudi z uporabo nevarnih strategij (na primer neresnične obljube, erotični motivi, golota in oglaševanje otrokom), je medijska pismenost nedvomno tema, ki lahko vsakodnevno vpliva na razpoloženje, način razmišljanja in na vrednote tako staršev kot otrok, s tem pa na kakovost njihovega življenja.

Ker imajo v predšolskem obdobju najvidnejšo vlogo v vzgojnih procesih starši, smo poleg merjenja izpostavljenosti otrok medijem pridobivali tudi podatke o izpostavljenosti staršev in ugotavljali, ali medijske navade staršev vplivajo na medijsko izpostavljenost otrok. Ugotavljali smo, ali starši predšolskih otrok, ki preživijo več časa v stiku s televizijo, računalnikom, radiom ali tiskanimi mediji, vplivajo na otroke tako, da to počnejo tudi njihovi otroci. Ugotavljali smo, ali starši predšolskih otrok otrokom omejujejo rabo medijskih vsebin, in tudi, v kolikšni meri so starši prisotni, ko otroci spremljajo medije (in ali prevzamejo vlogo interpretatorja medijskih sporočil), ali pa otroke preprosto prepustijo samostojni rabi medijev in vplivu medijskega sporočanja. Končno nas je zanimalo, kako mediji vplivajo na nakupno vedenje predšolskih otrok in njihovih staršev.

2. Medijske navade predšolskih otrok

Številni avtorji (Holloway idr., 2013; Hesketh idr., 2013; Duch idr., 2013; Anand in Kroznik, 2005; Edgar in Edgar, 2008) ugotavljajo, da se zaradi pomembnosti teme kot tudi zaradi zaskrbljujočih rezultatov dosedanjih raziskav, ki kažejo na velik obseg spremljanja medijskih vsebin s strani predšolskih otrok, število raziskav na področju mladih otrok in posledic njihove medijske izpostavljenosti povečuje. Given idr. (2014) izpostavljajo tudi zaskrbljujoče dejstvo, da so mladi otroci (3–5 let) ob uporabi informacijskih tehnologij skoraj polovico časa brez nadzora staršev. Zimmerman idr. (2007a) pri do dveh let starih otrocih ugotavljajo, da 40 odstotkov otrok pod enim letom redno gleda televizijo. Do 24 meseca starosti se odstotek dvigne na 90 odstotkov. Pred letom starosti so otroci povprečno izpostavljeni 1 uri dnevno med 1 in 2 leti pa 1,5 ure dnevno. Podobne rezultate glede izpostavljenosti so pridobili tudi Rideout (2014), Vittrup (2009), Genc (2014), Ofcomova raziskava v Angliji (2013), Wartella idr. (2013a,b) ter Walczak-Niewiadomska in Makowska (2013) na Poljskem.

Rideout in Hamel (2006) ugotavljajo demografsko pogojenost medijske izpostavljenosti predšolskih otrok. Dokazujeta statistično večjo izpostavljenost za otroke, katerih starši imajo nižje prihodke in so manj izobraženi. Wartella idr. (2013a) poleg tega opazita povezanost med medijskimi navadami staršev in otrok. Ugotavljajo, da večja izpostavljenost vseh članov družine množičnim medijem v medijsko intenzivnih družinah posledično povzroči tudi precej večjo izpostavljenost otroka ekranu, in sicer pet ur v primerjavi z eno uro in pol za medijsko neintenzivne družine (Wartella idr., 2013a).

Skoraj petina dojenčkov, skoraj tretjina 2- do 3-letnikov, skoraj polovica 4- do 6-letnikov in več kot dve tretjini otrok, starih več kot 8 let, ima v svoji spalni sobi televizijski ekran (Anderson idr., 2009). Podobno ugotavljajo tudi Vandewater idr. (2007), ki dodajajo, da je po navedbah staršev glavni razlog za prisotnost televizije v sobi otroka, da se s tem sprosti televizija, ki jo gledajo drugi (58%). Če navedemo izjavo udeleženke, ki so jo v kvalitativni raziskavi izpostavili (Rideout idr., 2003): “TV je vseskozi prižgan. Imamo najmanj pet televizij in navadno so vsaj tri vedno prižgane. V njeni (otroški) sobi, spalnici in dnevni sobi (mati 4–6 letnika iz Ohia)”. Glede lastništva računalnika so raziskovalci v okviru referenčne raziskave *Kaiser fundacije Zero to 6* že leta 2003 ugotovili, da ima skoraj polovica otrok, starih do šest let, v ZDA svoj računalnik (Rideout idr., 2003).

V sodobnem svetu se je močno povečala tudi uporaba pametnih telefonov in tablic pri predšolskih otrocih (Formby, 2014; Baek idr., 2013). Med pozitivnimi učinki starši največkrat izpostavljajo, da je telefon učni pripomoček in zabava. Med negativnimi učinki pa navajajo, da uporaba ustvari pasivnost starševskega odnosa in strah pred poškodbo telefona ali izpraznitev baterije. Boddum (2013), Teuwen idr. (2013) na primer izpostavljajo, da začnejo nizozemski otroci uporabljati internet povprečno s 3 do 4 leti (2012), pri čemer se starost longitudinalno zmanjšuje. Avtorji opozarjajo, da je le 20 odstotkov staršev prisotnih, medtem ko otrok brska po spletu, pri čemer

le dobrih 10 odstotkov staršev hkrati pojasnjuje informacije, ki jim je otrok izpostavljen. Glede drugih medijev je Gutnick idr. (2010) ugotovil, da skoraj polovica šestletnih otrok igra video igre na običajen dan, medtem ko se pri osmih letih ta odstotek poveša na več kot 70 odstotkov.

Baek idr. (2013) so staršem postavili vprašanje, kakšne vsebine njihovi predšolski otroci spremljajo na mobilnem telefonu oziroma zakaj otroci uporabljajo mobilni telefon. Dve tretjini staršev navaja, da mobilni telefon otroci uporabljajo za ogled risank, polovica za igranje iger, tretjina za poslušanje pesmic in zgodb ter petina za izobraževalne spletne strani. Avstralski predšolski otroci (Zevenbergen, 2008) večino časa uporabljajo računalnike za zabavo, zlasti za igranje iger (80%), brskanje po internetu (40%) in pisanje (20%).

Povečuje se tudi število raziskav, ki kažejo na posledice velike izpostavljenosti predšolskih otrok medijskim vsebinam. V raziskavi *Kaiser fundacije Zero to 6* (Rideout idr., 2003), ki se posveča analizi vpliva elektronskih medijev na življenje dojenčkov in predšolskih otrok, je jasno izražen pomen posnemanja vedenja, ki ga otroci vidijo na TV. V raziskava je na primer ugotovljeno, da je skoraj polovica staršev mnenja, da otrok posnema agresivno vedenje iz medijev. Ostrov idr. (2006) so v ZDA analizirali korelacijo med gledanjem televizije (v povprečju 12 ur na teden) in agresijo v šoli, merjeno s strani učiteljev. Več gledanja televizije so avtorji povezali z bolj agresivnim vedenjem pri fantih (tako verbalno kot fizično) in pri dekletih (le verbalno). Duch idr. (2013) so ugotovili izrazito poslabšanje komunikacijskih sposobnosti tako trenutno kot longitudinalno med otroki (do dveh let), ki so več kot 2 uri izpostavljeni televiziji. Povezavo z dolžino in kvaliteto spanja so v ekperimentalni raziskavi dokazali Garrison in Christakis (2012). Avtorji so preučevali kvaliteto spanja otrok (čas, potreben da zaspijo, število zbujanj, strahovi) in ugotovili močno povezanost z večjo izpostavljenostjo medijem. Christakis (2008) podobno izpostavlja, da večja izpostavljenost medijem zlasti v zgodnjem obdobju statistično značilno povišuje verjetnost nastanka motnje pozornosti pri starejših otrocih. Kljub vedno večji bazi znanja, ki kaže na povezanost medijskih navad z zdravstvenim stanjem otrok, pa Formby (2014) v svoji v ZDA izvedeni raziskavi ugotavlja, da s tremi četrtinami staršev njihov pediater nikoli ni govoril o posledicah izpostavljenosti mlajših otrok medijem.

V slovenskem prostoru ni veliko ažurnih raziskav na področju vplivov medijev na predšolske otroke. Primerljivo raziskavo je v svojem diplomskem delu pod mentorstvom Lepičnik Vodopivec leta 2012 izvedla Pušnik Breznik. V raziskavo je bilo vključenih 30 staršev predšolskih otrok drugega starostnega obdobja, katerih otroci so vključeni v vrtec v Mariboru. Vodopivec Lepičnik (2011, 2013) je v slovenskih vrtcih preučevala poglede 39 staršev in 22 vzgojiteljev predšolskih otrok ter ugotovila, da obstaja velik delež tako staršev kot vzgojiteljev, ki menijo, da so predšolski otroci preveč izpostavljeni medijem. Na drugi strani pa le malo več kot polovica vzgojiteljev (54%) spodbuja uvajanje vzgoje za medije in medijske pismenosti v vrtece. Starejše raziskave pa vključujejo dela Erjavec in Volčič iz leta 1999 (1999a, 1999b,

1999c), ki pa je čas pred splošno množično prisotnostjo spleta, mobilnih telefonov, aplikacij in tablic v našem življenju.

3. Raziskava medijskih navad predšolskih otrok in njihovih staršev

Jeseni 2014 smo izvedli kvantitativno raziskavo, katere namen je bilo ugotavljanje v uvodu opisanih kategorij medijskih navad predšolskih otrok in njihovih staršev. Podatki so se zbirali v vrtcu Nova Gorica, kjer smo od skupno 747 vpisanih otrok pridobili 99 izpolnjenih vprašalnikov o medijskih navadah otrok, ki so jih izpolnili njihovi starši. Vprašalnik je zajemal 41 spremenljivk (vprašanj) zaprtega tipa. Zanimalo nas je, koliko ur in minut starši v povprečju dnevno (v službi in doma) gledajo televizijo, poslušajo radio, uporabljajo računalnik, se pogovarjajo po telefonu ali berejo revije ali časopis. Podobno vprašanje smo zastavili tudi za otroke – torej koliko ur in minut dnevno njihov otrok gleda televizijo, poslušajo radio, uporablja računalnik, internet, se pogovarja po telefonu, igra igrice (bodisi na računalniku, tablici ali pametnem telefonu) ali gleda oziroma bere revije ali časopise. Ugotavljali smo, katere izmed tehničnih pripomočkov ima otrok v svoji sobi (televizijo, radio, računalnik) in ali ima otrok svoj mobilni telefon (če da, ali ima mobilni telefon povezavo z internetom). Prisotnost starša ob otroku pri spremljanju različnih medijev (gledanje televizije, poslušanje radia, uporabi računalnika, igranju igrice, listanju revij ali časopisov) smo preverjali s petstopenjsko lestvico, kjer je ena pomenilo nikoli, pet pa vedno, dodana pa je bila še opcija odgovora ne vem. Petstopenjsko lestvico smo uporabili tudi za ocenjevanje pogostosti naslednjih situacij:

- Ali postavite omejitve ali pravila o tem, katere vsebine sme otrok gledati?
- Ali se z otrokom pogovarjate o medijskih vsebinah?
- Otroci so včasih nehote priče prizorom, ki jih ne razumejo ali za njih niso primereni. Ali jim take prizore pojasnite?
- Si vaš otrok želi izdelkov, ki jih vidi v oglasih?
- Ali otroku kupite izdelke, ki jih je videl v oglasih?
- Ste kdaj kupili izdelke, ki so jih ponujali mediji, ker vam je bil oglas všeč?
- Je otrok užaljen, ker ne dobi izdelka, ki ga je videl v oglasu?

Nadalje smo ob uporabi petstopenjske lestvice merili strinjanje oziroma nestrinjanje z naslednjimi trditvami:

- Oglaševanje ima velik vpliv na otroka.
- Ste mnenja, da oglasi zavajajo.

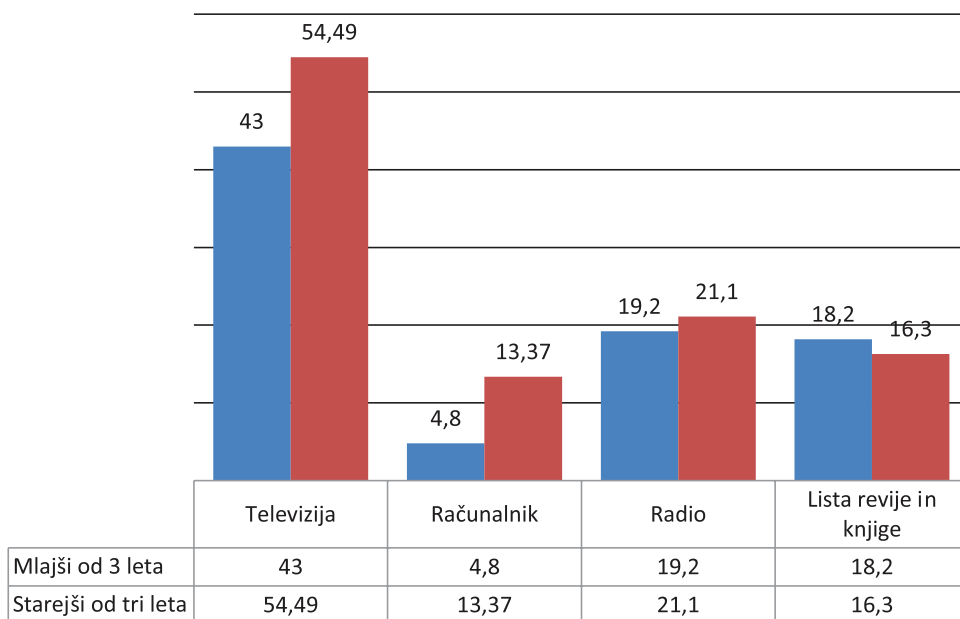
Anketni vprašalnik se je zaključil s pridobivanjem demografskih podatkov starša in njegovih otrok. Iz prvega starostnega obdobja (od 1 do 3 let) je bilo izpolnjenih 50 anket, iz drugega starostnega obdobja (4 do 6 let) pa je bilo oddanih 49 anket. Vse ankete so izpolnjevali starši predšolskih otrok. Anketiranje je potekalo jeseni 2014 v obdobju 14 dni. Anketo je izpolnilo 90 odstotkov žensk in 10 odstotkov moških. Pov-

prečna starost vseh anketiranih je bila 34,5 leta, pri čemer v mestu prebiva 86,9 odstotka družin. Zelo nizek odstotek je otrok, ki živijo v deljenem varstvu staršev, in sicer 9,1 odstotka. 28,3 odstotka vseh anketiranih staršev je odgovarjalo za otroka, ki je edinec.

Analiza je pokazala, da so otroci med vsemi navedenimi mediji (televizija, radio, računalnik, telefonu, revija ali časopis) časovno najbolj izpostavljeni televiziji, in sicer v povprečju do 48,69 minute dnevno, 22,42 minute v povprečju na dan poslušajo radio, 20,70 minute v povprečju na dan gledajo revije in knjige, medtem ko uporabljajo računalnik oziroma igrajo igre na računalniku ali telefonu v povprečju 9,14 minute na dan.

Samo eden od 99 predšolskih otrok ima v posesti telefon, ki pa ni priključen na internet. 21 otrok ima v sobi radio, na drugem mestu je televizija (6 otrok) in 5 otrok ima v svoji sobi računalnik. Prisotnost medijev je v primerjavi z mednarodnimi raziskavami tako manjša.

Slika 1: Izpostavljenost v minutah dnevno in razlike med starostnima skupinama otrok



Vir: Lastna raziskava, 2014.

S slike 1 je razvidno, da starejši otroci (nad tri leta) gledajo več televizije – in sicer v povprečju 54,49 minute na dan – kot mlajši otroci do treh let, ki pa v povprečju gledajo televizijo 43,00 minut na dan. Vendar kljub navedenim razlikam statistična

obdelava podatkov za vprašanje: “otrok gleda televizijo v minutah dnevno” ni pokazala statistično značilne razlike med starostno skupino do treh let starosti in nad tremi leti starosti ($t(df = 97) = -1,72, p > 0,05$). Zaradi tega kljub navedenim razlikam ne moremo dokazati, da prihaja do razlik v dolžini gledanja televizije glede na starost otrok. V vsakem primeru pa lahko ugotovimo, da je povprečna dnevna izpostavljenost otrok televiziji precejšnja.

Razlika se kaže tudi pri uporabi računalnika: otroci starejši od treh let ga uporabljajo v povprečju 13,37 minute dnevno, medtem ko mlajši od treh let v povprečju 4,80 minute dnevno. Pri poslušanju radia je med starostnima skupinama v povprečju razlika samo 2 minuti dnevno; podobno pri listanju revij in knjig.

Na podlagi pridobljenih podatkih o medijski izpostavljenosti otrok in staršev smo izračunali korelacijski koeficient in ugotovili, da je korelacija med dnevnim obsegom gledanja televizije staršev in otrok sicer pozitivna in statistično značilna ($r = 0,330, p = 0,01$), a zelo šibka. Zato na podlagi naše raziskave ne moremo, kljub temu da podatki govorijo temu v prid, dokazati, da otroci, katerih starši preživijo več časa v stiku s televizijo, tudi sami preživijo sorazmerno več časa v stiku s televizijo. Testi korelacije za druge medije kažejo podobno.

V spodnji tabeli so prikazani rezultati ankete, ki zadevajo prisotnost staršev, medtem ko so njihovi otroci izpostavljeni medijem.

Tabela 1: Prisotnost staršev pri izpostavljenosti medijem

<i>Vprašanje</i>	<i>Povprečna vrednost odgovorov (na lestvici 1–5)*</i>
Ste prisotni ob otroku, kadar gleda televizijo	3.89
Ste prisotni ob otroku, kadar posluša radio	3.73
Ste prisotni ob otroku, kadar uporablja računalnik	4.13
Ste prisotni ob otroku, kadar igra igre	3.83
Ste prisotni ob otroku, ko pregleduje revije	3.86

Opomba: * stopnja značilnosti $p < 0,05$

Zanimivo podatki izkazujejo, da so starši predšolskih otrok prisotni pomemben čas njihovega spremljanja medijev. Prisotnost je najpogosteje izražena ob otrokovi uporabi računalnika.

V raziskavi smo ugotavljali tudi, ali starši postavljajo omejitve ali pravila o tem, katere vsebine sme otrok gledati ter v koliki meri se z njimi pogovarjajo in jim vsebino pojasnjujejo. Rezultati so prikazani v tabeli 2.

Tabela 2: Postavljanje omejitev, pogovor z otroki in pojasnila staršev

Vprašanje	Povprečna vrednost odgovorov (na lestvici 1-5)*
Ali postavite omejitve ali pravila o tem, katere vsebine sme otrok gledati?	4,81
Ali se z otrokom pogovarjate o medijskih vsebinah?	3,73
Ali jim prizore, ki jih ne razumejo ali za njih niso primerni, pojasnite?	4,31

Opomba: * stopnja značilnosti $p < 0,05$

Spodbudni so tudi rezultati glede omejevanja oziroma postavljanja pravil o tem, katere vsebine sme otrok gledati, kjer je na lestvici od 1–5 (pri čemer 1 pomeni nikoli in 5 vedno) končno povprečje doseglo zelo visoko raven 4,8. Starši pogosto otrokom pojasnjujejo prizore, ki jih ne razumejo, medtem ko splošen pogovor o medijskih vsebinah ni primerljivo pogost.

Presenečajo tudi pridobljeni podatki glede vpliva medijev na nakupne navade otrok, saj starši ne pripišejo izrazito visokega pomena vplivu oglasov na nakupne želje mlajših otrok (tabela 3).

Tabela 3: Vpliv oglaševanja na nakupno vedenje staršev in otrok

Vprašanje	Povprečna vrednost odgovorov (na lestvici 1-5)*
Si vaš otrok želi izdelke, ki jih vidi v oglasih?	3,02
Ali otroku kupite izdelke, ki jih je videl v oglasih?	2,05
Ste kdaj kupili izdelke, ki so jih ponujali mediji, ker vam je bil oglas všeč?	1,75
Je otrok užaljen, ker ne dobi izdelka, ki ga je videl v oglasu?	2,05
Oglaševanje ima velik vpliv na otroka	3,94
Ste mnenja, da oglasi zavajajo	4,28

Opomba: * stopnja značilnosti $p < 0,05$

Zanimivo pa je podatek, da je ocena izražene želje s strani otrok (povprečje 3,02) vendarle bistveno višja kot pogostost nakupnega dejanja, ki temu lahko sledi (povprečje 2,05), iz česar lahko sklepamo, da imajo otroci več želja po izdelkih, ki jih vidijo v oglasih, kot jih starši realizirajo skozi dejanski nakup teh izdelkov.

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mlajših otrok. Zanimiv pa je podatek, da je ocena izražene želje s strani otrok (povprečje 3,02) vendarle bistveno višja kot pogostost nakupnega dejanja, ki temu lahko sledi (povprečje 2,05), iz česar lahko sklepamo, da imajo otroci več želja po izdelkih, ki jih vidijo v oglasih, kot jih starši realizirajo skozi dejanski nakup teh izdelkov.

4. Povzetek rezultatov in refleksija raziskovanja

Zbrani podatki glede izpostavljenosti predšolskih otrok medijem, kažejo na to, da je izpostavljenost ekranom mlajših otrok v Sloveniji nekoliko nižja kot v raziskavah, izvedenih v ZDA, ki so bile predstavljene v prvem poglavju. Kljub vsemu povprečno gledanje televizije nekoliko manj kot eno uro vsak dan pri tako majhnih otrocih ni zanemarljiva količina časa. Sicer navedene količine časa rabe različnih medijev ne gre preprosto seštevati, da bi ugotovili povprečno dnevno izpostavljenost medijem (torej tako televiziji, radiu, računalniku, knjigam in revijam), ki so bili vključeni v našo raziskavo, saj lahko uporabnik tudi simultano uporablja več različnih medijev hkrati (na primer igra igrice na pametnem telefonu in poleg posluša radio ali – opozoriti pa velja tudi na fenomen stalno prižgane televizije), tako da lahko na podlagi naše raziskave trdimo predvsem, da so mlajši otroci medijev v povprečju izpostavljeni nekaj več kot uro dnevno. Zelo pozitivni so sicer pridobljeni podatki, da so predšolski otroci v pomembnem deležu izpostavljenosti medijem pod nadzorom staršev oziroma so starši prisotni, ko so otroci izpostavljeni medijem. Podobno so ugotovile tudi Pušnik Breznik (2012) in Erjavec in Volčič (1999a,b,c). Starši glede spremljanja medijskih vsebin postavljajo pravila in se o medijskih vsebinah, ki jih otroci ne razumejo, z njimi pogovarjajo. Primerljiva raziskava, ki je bila izvedena leta 2012 (Pušnik Breznik, 2012) na vzorcu 30 staršev drugega starostnega obdobja v vrtcu v Mariboru, je pokazala, da se 26 odstotkov anketiranih staršev pogosto pogovarja o medijskih vsebinah, 70 odstotkov včasih, medtem ko le 4 odstotke nikoli. Z vidika boljšega razumevanja tega procesa in razumevanja vsebine medijske vzgoje, ki jo starši nudijo svojim otrokom, bi bilo smiselno v prihodnjih raziskavah uvesti tudi kvalitativne intervjuje ali fokusne skupine, da bi lažje opredelili vsebinsko naravo pogovorov o medijskih vsebinah.

Slovenski otroci, stari od 1 do 6 let, so, podobno kot prikazujejo raziskave v sve-tu izmed vseh medijev največ izpostavljeni TV. Stanje izpostavljenosti prvenstveno televizijskemu ekranu se torej od leta 1999, ko sta otroško izpostavljenost medijem ugotavljali Erjavec in Volčič (1999a, 1999b), ni spremenilo. Pri analizi so se sicer pokazale razlike v izpostavljenosti medijem med starostnima skupinam otrok, ki pa jih statistično nismo uspeli dokazati. Zanimiva je tudi povezanost med časovno uporabo medijev pri starših in njihovih otrocih. Šibka pozitivna povezanost obstaja pri gledanju televizije in poslušanju radia, korelacije pri časovni uporabi računalnika in branju revij in časopisov pa nismo mogli dokazati. Medtem ko se starši deloma strinjajo s trditvijo, da mediji vplivajo na nakupne želje otrok, pa te nekoliko manj vplivajo na

njihovo izražanje dejanskih nakupnih navad. Rezultati, pridobljeni v raziskavi v Mariboru (Pušnik Breznik, 2012), so primerljivi. Kar 78 odstotkov staršev je izjavilo, da otrokom redko kupujejo izdelkov, ki jih vidijo v oglasih, 11 odstotkov staršev nikoli ne kupuje izdelkov, ki jih vidijo v oglasih, medtem ko jih le 11 odstotkov pogosto kupuje takšne izdelke.

Raziskavo smo izvedli na podoben način, kot so bile izvedene primerljive raziskave v tujini, saj smo na ta način želeli omogočiti komparativnost rezultatov. Kljub skrbnem načrtovanju in izvedbi nam je raziskava dala le okvirne odgovore na zastavljena vprašanja, zato so potrebne nadaljnje še bolj konkretno v določeno področje usmerjene raziskave. Zaradi narave samo-refleksivnega vprašalnika priznavamo tudi racionalno in raziskovalno pristranskost. Ta se lahko kaže zlasti v potrebi refleksije staršev na čas izpostavljenosti medijem. V prihodnosti bi bilo zaželeno raziskave opraviti tudi z vodenjem dnevnikov porabljenega časa otrok, s čimer bi omilili omejen vpliv.

Glede na tematiko in podobo "dobrega" starša kljub prošnji po iskrenosti pri izpolnjevanju vprašalnika priznavamo tudi možno raziskovalno pristranskost, saj verjamemo, da so starši, kljub temu da je bila anketa anonimna, odgovarjali v določeni meri v smislu zmanjševanja vpliva, ki ga mediji imajo, da bi izgledali boljši starši. S tem je mogoče, da je vpliv medijev še veliko večji, zlasti na nakupne vedenje tako njih kot tudi otrok. V prihodnjih raziskavah bi bilo smiselno razširili raziskovalno metodologijo tudi s tehnikami opazovanja (zanimivo bi bilo meriti prisotnost oglaševanih otroških blagovnih znamk, kot so na primer Hello Kitty, Spiderman, Winnx, Disney in mnogi drugi na stvareh, pripomočkih in oblačilih, ki jih otroci imajo in uporabljajo, ter ugotavljati razloge, zakaj so jih starši kupili), intervjujev, fokusnih skupin in ekonometričnih študij.

5. Sklep

Vzgoja za medije se kot samostojen predmet v formalni izobraževalni sistem vključuje šele zelo pozno in v omejenem obsegu kot izbirni predmet osnovnošolskega družboslovnega izobraževanja v 7., 8. in 9. razredu (Košir idr., 2006), kar pomeni, da tovrstnega izobraževanja ni deležna celotna populacija otrok. Iz učnega načrta predmeta *vzgoja za medije* je razvidno, da je predmet *vzgoja za medije* sestavljen iz treh zaokroženih tematskih vsebin, pri čemer se vsaka obravnava kot enoletni sklop, in sicer: tisk, radio in televizija. Vsebine enoletnih sklopov se sicer vsebinsko dopolnjujejo, možno pa je, da se učenci seznanijo samo z enoletnim sklopom ali pa katerega preskočijo. Le učenci, ki si izberejo predmet *vzgoja za medije* vsa tri leta si pridobijo bolj poglobljeno znanje o delovanju in učinkih omenjenih medijev. Bistvena pomanjkljivost tega učnega načrta je, da ne vključuje vseh elektronskih medijev – predvsem je moteče dejstvo, da učni načrt ne vključuje seznanjanja s spletom in mobilnim telefonom, kar je danes postal stalnica v življenju otrok, sistem vključeva-

nja pouka o medijih na osnovnih šolah pa ne omogoča, da celotna populacija otrok v okviru formalnega izobraževanja pridobi znanja in kompetence, ki so danes potrebna za medijsko pismenega človeka. Na predšolski ravni je medijska vzgoja formalno sicer vključena v Kurikulum za vrtce, a študije (glej na primer Vodopivec Lepičnik, 2011) kažejo, da je izvedba medijske vzgoje fragmentirana, implementacija pa odvisna predvsem od motivacije in interesa vzgojitelja za področje medijev.

Na podlagi raziskave, ki smo jo predstavili v tem prispevku, v kateri pokažemo, da so že najmlajši otroci (0–6 let) medijem redno izpostavljeni več kot uro na dan, kar ni zanemarljiv čas, pa kaže na potrebo po razmisleku, da bi več pozornosti namenili tudi vprašanju izvajanja medijske vzgoje v vrtcih. Vodopivec Lepičnik (2011) je v svoji raziskavi ugotovila, da idejo uvajanja medijske vzgoje v vrtce podpira kar 94,9 odstotka staršev, vključenih v njeno raziskavo. Glede na to, da je medijsko izobraževanje predšolskih otrok v Sloveniji v pomembnem delu prepuščeno staršem, so rezultati, ki smo jih pridobili – torej, da starši nadzirajo medijske navade otrok in jim do določene mere tudi pojasnjujejo in interpretirajo konzumirano medijsko vsebino – spodbudni.

Slovenski vrtci redno izvajajo raznovrstna predavanja za starše. Med ta predavanja bi bilo smiselno vključiti tudi izobraževanja v smeri pridobivanja kompetenc in znanj, ki bodo staršem omogočila bolj informirano medijsko opisovanje svojih otrok, saj bodo le tako lahko mediji tudi kasneje uporabljeni pozitivno (na primer pri pouku – Kalin, 2004). Medijska pismenost otrok v Sloveniji je namreč v tem trenutku pomembno odvisna ravno od neformalnih oblik izobraževanja in kompetenc, ki jih na tem področju imajo bodisi starši ali širša sredina, vključena v otrokov razvoj (družina, vrstniki, dostop do izobraževanja s strani civilnodružbenih organizacij ipd.), medtem ko formalni šolski sistem te redne, vsakodnevne aktivnosti medijskega dela življenja otrok ne naslavlja v zadostni meri.

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Pre-school children and media influence

With the increased media influence on consumers, media exposure of the youngest members of the audience is also increasing. In autumn 2014, we conducted a quantitative survey, with an aim to explore some media habits of pre-school children (age groups 1–3 and 3–6) and their parents. In particular, we were interested in gathering data on media exposure of both children and their parents, the habits that parents have when teaching their children about the use of media and the interpretation of media messages and some other parents' opinions regarding the impact of media on various aspects of their children's lives.

The data were collected in a kindergarten in Nova Gorica, where a total of 747 children were enrolled in 2014. 99 parents completed the questionnaire. 50 questionnaires completed referred to the younger age group (1–3 years old), and 49 referred to

the older age group of children (3–6 years old). 90% of the respondents (parents) were women and only 10% were men.

Slovenian children aged 1 to 6 years are, similarly to their peers in the Western Europe and the USA, among all types of media mostly exposed to television. Considering TV, radio, computer, mobile phone, magazines or newspaper, the analysis showed that, on average, pre-school children are exposed to TV 48.69 minutes per day; 22.42 minutes they dedicate to listening to the radio; 20.70 minutes per day is spent watching magazines and newspapers; 9.14 minutes per day they use a computer or play games on a computer or mobile phone. Only one of the 99 pre-school children included into our survey owns a mobile phone, which is, however, only used for conversation and is not connected to the Internet. 21 children have a radio device placed in their room. 6 children have a TV set in their room, and 5 children have a computer in their room. We can see that the presence of media devices in children's rooms in Slovenia is small compared to the research conducted abroad (e.g. Rideout, 2014; Vittrup, 2009; Wartella et al., 2013).

Children from the older age group watch more TV (on average, 54.49 minutes per day) compared to children from the younger age group (on average, 43.00 minutes per day). The difference in screen exposure among the two age groups was also observed in the case of the computer use. On average, children from the older age group use computer 13.37 minutes per day, and children from the younger age group use it 4.80 minutes a day.

There are almost no differences in the exposure to the radio, magazines or newspapers among the two analysed age groups of pre-school children. Interestingly, the data gathered show that parents, when their children are exposed to the media, are present with them for a considerable amount of time. They are most commonly present when their child uses the computer. The results showing a high level of parents' awareness of setting the rules regarding the media content their child can watch or listen to, are also encouraging. On a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 signifies never and 5 signifies always, the average parents' response regarding their habits of setting the media rules reached a very high level of 4.81. The parents also often explain and interpret the media content children do not understand, however, the general discussion on the media content is not comparably frequent.

Considering the impact of the media on children's purchasing habits, surprisingly enough, parents do not attribute a high importance to the advertising and other marketing content their children are exposed to.

Even though the data collected in our survey regarding the exposure of pre-school children to various types of the media suggests that both the media and the screen exposure of Slovene children is lower compared to the surveys conducted in the USA or the Western Europe, watching TV for a little less than an hour daily is still not a negligible amount of time for such young children, who are still developing. Positive is the information that a significant proportion of the pre-school children media exposure takes place under control of their parents (parents are present when their children are

exposed to the media). On a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 signifies never and 5 signifies always, the average parents' response regarding their presence when their children are exposed to different media reached quite high levels, between 3.73 (radio exposure) and 4.13 (computer exposure). Moreover, Slovene parents set the rules regarding the media use of their children (4.81), they talk to children regarding the media content (3.73) and they also interpret the scenes to them (4.31).

Similar results were also found in a survey conducted by Pušnik Breznik (2012) and Erjavec and Volčič (1999). The survey performed by Pušnik Breznik (2012) on a sample of 30 parents of pre-school children in the second age group (3–6 years old) in a kindergarten in Maribor showed that 26% of the parents often talk to their children regarding the media content, 70% of them talk about it sometimes and only 4% never have conversations about the media content with their children. In order to better understand these talks and conversations between parents and children, it would make sense to introduce qualitative in-depth interviews or focus groups into the research design, as these conversations actually represent the most important pillars of educating very young children about the media.

Likewise, interesting is the positive correlation between the time parents use or are exposed to media and the extent of the media exposure of their children, even though the correlation is weak. It would be useful to explore this issue further on a bigger sample and possibly with additional survey questions, as we know that children learn a lot about the world by imitating their parents. It would be interesting to see whether we can more firmly confirm that parents, who use media intensively, influence a similar behaviour and patterns of "normal" daily activities (including the activities where the media are being used) of their children as role models.

Noteworthy is also the issue that connects the media and consumerism. In theory we know that, on the one hand, the media play a crucial role in fostering consumerism, but on the other hand, most media are commercial in their nature, meaning that their existence mainly depends on ratings and the size of specific features of their target audience. They sell the time the audience listens or watches to advertisers. Thus, even small children are a very interesting target audience for numerous industries and brands, and special programs, ads, brands and products are being developed for them on a daily basis. Starting from theoretical baselines, we assumed that the media do affect children's purchase desires. While some parents agree with the statement that the media affect the purchase desires of children (3.94), they seem to think that media have less impact on the expression of the actual purchasing habits (1.75).

Results obtained in the study in Maribor (Pušnik Breznik, 2012) are comparable. 78% of the parents said that they rarely buy the products they see in advertisements to their children, 11% of parents never buy the products they see in advertisements while only 11% often buy such products to their children.

Despite careful planning and execution, our research gave us indicative answers to the questions and therefore a further, more specific subject area oriented research is needed. Using the survey design to obtain information regarding media habits can also

lead to rational or research biases (for instance, even though the survey was anonymous, the responses may be misled by the image of a “good parent” that parents should have regarding the media, and may differ from their actual behaviour). Further qualitative methodology can provide us with more insights in these issues and perceptions.

To conclude, the research results showed that even the youngest children (1-6 years old) are regularly exposed to the media for more than an hour per day in their home environment, which is not a negligible time. These results highlight the necessity to pay more attention to media education within the formal pre-school education. Lepičnik Vodopivec (2011) found that the idea of implementing media education in kindergartens was supported by 94.9% involved in her research. As the media education of pre-school children to a significant extent depends on their parents teaching them how to use the media, how to set the rules, how to create the media content and how to reflect on the media content with them, it is encouraging that the share of parents, who do not consider media a “handy babysitter”, and have only a passive role when it comes to their children’s media education, is not very high.

Slovenian kindergartens regularly carry out diverse lectures intended for parents. Lectures raising awareness about the issue of the media exposure (and its possible consequences) of pre-school children and offering additional knowledge and competences on media landscape, could influence the way media habits and attitudes of children in their early age are shaped.

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Mnenja učiteljev o izbiri in rabi učbenikov za pouk slovenščine

Strokovni članek

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KLJUČNE BESEDE: učbenik, učiteljeva izbira učbenikov, pouk slovenščine

POVZETEK – V prispevku predstavljamo rezultate raziskave o mnenjih učiteljev o izbiri in rabi učbenikov za pouk slovenščine. V prvem delu prispevka opredelimo pojem učbenika, se osredotočamo na učiteljevo avtonomijo pri izbiri učbenikov in odgovarjamo na vprašanje, kaj je kvaliteten učbenik. V drugem delu prispevka je predstavljenih del rezultatov empirične raziskave, izvedene v maju in juniju 2014. Rezultati kažejo razlike med učitelji glede na delovno mesto (učitelji razrednega pouka in učitelji slovenščine) v njihovih mnenjih glede rabe učbenikov pri slovenščini.

Professional paper

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KEYWORDS: textbook, teacher's choice of textbooks, teaching Slovene

ABSTRACT – The article presents the results of an empirical study that wanted to determine the opinion of teachers regarding the choice and use of textbooks for teaching Slovene. In the first part of the article, a definition of the textbook is provided. It focuses on the teachers' autonomy in choosing textbooks and answers the question of what a good textbook is. The second part of the article presents some of the results of an empirical study that took place in May and June of 2014. The results show differences among teachers according to their position (class teachers vs. subject teachers of Slovene) in terms of their opinion regarding the use of textbooks in Slovene lessons.

1. Uvod

Učbenik je pomembno učno sredstvo, saj ima pomembno vlogo pri posredovanju učnih vsebin. Učencem pomaga pri usvanju vsebin, učitelju pa pri načrtovanju in izvajanju pouka. Seveda le v primerih, če so učbeniki primerni in kvalitetni. Ker učbenike izbirajo učitelji, imajo možnost izbrati sebi primerne učbenike. Učbenik ima v šolskem sistemu pomembno vlogo, zato je prav, da se učitelji zavedajo pomembnosti izbire kvalitetnega učbenika.

Pri opredeljevanju učbenika bomo najprej predstavili različne opredelitve učbenika.

Kovač idr. (2005) piše o tem, da avtorji temeljnih didaktičnih del opredeljujejo učbenik v kontekstu učnih sredstev ali pa v zvezi z učnimi metodami. Umestitev učbenika je tako povezana z njegovo funkcijo pri procesu učenja in poučevanja, ki pa ni nujno vedno enaka.

Omenjeni avtorji tako opredelijo učbenik bolj okvirno: “*učbenik kot učno sredstvo oz. učni vir je tekstovni učni medij, ki kot del izobraževalne tehnologije pripomore k učinkovitosti pouka in samostojnega učenja*” (Kovač, 2005, str. 20).

Poljak (1983, str. 18) opredeli učbenik z opisom njegovih značilnosti:

- učbenik je osnovna šolska knjiga (v nasprotju z drugimi, ki so dopolnilna ali pomočna literatura),
- učbenik je napisan v skladu z učnim načrtom in predmetnikom,
- učenci ga za izobraževanje uporabljajo skoraj vsak dan,
- po svojem osnovnem namenu mora biti učbenik didaktično oblikovan (zaradi racionalnejšega, boljšega, bolj ekonomičnega in učinkovitega izobraževanja).

Turk Škraba (2006, str. 31) pa navaja, da “*učbenik lahko opredelimo kot posebno zvrst strokovne literature, ki jo določa vsebina in ciljna publika, širše pa ga definira šolski sistem, saj njegovo vsebino določa država z učnimi načrti, tj. z vsebinskimi in operativnimi cilji predmeta oz. predmetnega področja*”. S pomočjo učbenika lahko tako učitelj kot učenec te cilje iz učnega načrta dosežeta (Turk Škraba, 2006, str. 31).

Učbenike uporabljajo tako učitelji kot učenci, vendar so namenjeni predvsem učencem, zato je pri pisanju učbenikov nujno upoštevati predvsem razvojno stopnjo učencev. Razlagalno besedilo v učbenikih mora biti opremljeno z raznolikimi in sodobnimi ilustracijami (šale, fotografije, stripi ...), učenca pa naj učbenik navaja tudi na uporabo drugih virov (leksikoni, slovarji, spletne strani, časniki, televizija ...) (Turk Škraba, 2006, str. 31).

Različni avtorji torej na zelo različne načine opisujejo učbenik. Nekateri ga opisujejo zelo splošno z oblikovanjem definicije, drugi povzemajo splošne naloge učbenika, njegov pomen v vzgojno-izobraževalnem procesu, širši družbeni kontekst nastanka učbenika in podobno. V nadaljevanju je predstavljena še ena širša opredelitev učbenika avtorja Skele, ki združi različne definicije (npr. iz Pedagoške enciklopedije, definicijo Poljaka) v eno.

Skela zapiše glavne poudarke učbenika v naslednjih točkah. Učbenik je:

- “*standardna knjiga, ki predstavlja vsebino predmeta izobraževanja in določa oblike aktivnosti,*
- *vsebuje podatke o določenem področju in uporabljajo jo učenci oziroma študenti, ki se ta predmet učijo,*
- *knjiga, ki je bila napisana z namenom, da bi jo uporabljali učenci v šolah in je v skladu z njihovo psihofizično zrelostjo,*
- *knjiga, v kateri je strokovna vsebina učencu podana s pomočjo didaktičnega instrumentarija,*
- *množična, osnovna in obvezna šolska knjiga,*
- *(predvsem) besedilno učno sredstvo,*
- *pomoč učencu pri njegovem intelektualnem razvoju,*

- knjiga, ki jo učenci skoraj vsakodnevno uporabljajo za izobraževanje in samoizobraževanje,
- učno sredstvo, ki ga najpogosteje uporabljamo” (Skela, 1993, str. 201–202).

Učbenik pa opredeli tudi *Pravilnik o potrjevanju učbenikov* (2006) v svojem 2. členu:

“Učbenik je osnovno učno gradivo za doseganje vzgojno-izobraževalnih ciljev in standardov znanja, opredeljenih v učnem načrtu oziroma katalogu znanja. Z didaktično-metodično organizacijo vsebin in prirejeno likovno ter grafično opremo podpira poučevanje in učenje. Vsebina in struktura učbenika omogočata samostojno učenje udeležencev izobraževanja in pridobivanje različnih ravni ter vrst znanja. Učbenik za doseganje vzgojno-izobraževalnih ciljev ne zahteva neposrednega vpisovanja in vrisovanja rešitev ter odgovorov na vprašanja, razen v primeru učbenika, namenjenega uporabi v elektronski obliki (v nadaljnjem besedilu: e-učbenik), ki neposredno vpisovanje lahko dopušča. Učbenik je vezan na šolski predmet oziroma vsebinsko-didaktični sklop, razred in določeno stopnjo izobraževanja. Učbenik je tudi berilo kot zbirka besedil, izbranih skladno s cilji učnega načrta.”

Strokovnjaki v literaturi predstavljajo tudi pozitivna in negativna stališča o učbenikih. Tako Skela našteva bistveno več prednosti učbenikov kot slabosti. Učbenik:

- podrobno določa vsebino (poleg učnega načrta),
- kaže, kaj naj se poučuje in po kakšnem vrstnem redu,
- nakazuje učne metode,
- na ekonomičen in privlačen način nudi večino potrebnega gradiva za pouk,
- je vir novih idej in je v veliko podporo in pomoč predvsem neizkušnim učiteljem,
- učiteljem prihrani veliko časa, ker že imajo pripravljeno osnovno gradivo,
- je v veliko pomoč tudi učencem (za delo v šoli in doma),
- pomaga nadoknaditi snov učencem, ko izostanejo od pouka,
- omogoča učencem, da se vnaprej pripravijo na pouk,
- pomaga učencu ovrednotiti svoje znanje, saj mu da približen vpogled v snov, ki jo mora usvojiti,
- pomaga določati vloge učenca in učitelja pri pouku,
- je lahko zelo pomembno sredstvo za učiteljev profesionalni razvoj,
- je nekakšna odskočna deska za pedagoško delo v razredu,
- je s finančnega vidika cenejši kot fotokopije gradiv, pa tudi sicer je ustrežnejši z vidika celostne grafične podobe (Skela, 1993, str. 204).

Kot navaja Turk Škraba (2006, str. 33), učbenik ne velja več za knjigo, ki bi ji učitelji strogo sledili, saj se sami odločajo, katera didaktična sredstva bodo uporabili za uresničevanje vzgojno-izobraževalnih ciljev. Zaradi večje izbire učbenikov lahko učitelji prosto izberejo tistega, ki najbolj ustreza njim samim in tudi učencem.

Kovač idr. (2005, str. 47) pa izpostavlja, da je svoboda učiteljeve izbire učbenikov opredeljena na dva načina. Na eni strani imajo lahko učitelji oziroma šole popolno avtonomijo pri izbiri, lahko pa je ta izbira omejena s seznamom potrjenih učbenikov. Praksa s seznamom potrjenih učbenikov je uveljavljena tudi v Sloveniji.

Kot navaja Filipčič (2003, str. 55), je pri večini predmetov v devetletnem osnovnošolskem izobraževanju na voljo več učbenikov in delovnih zvezkov različnih založb za isti predmet in razred. Na prvi pogled se zdi, da velika ponudba učbenikov ustvarja nasičenost, ki vodi v zmedo pri izbiranju. Zaradi tega mnogi menijo, da je učbenikov preveč in da jih je treba omejiti.

Učbenik je – kot že večkrat rečeno – eno od osnovnih sredstev za doseganje vzgojno-izobraževalnih ciljev in standardov znanja. Vsebina učbenikov je opredeljena z učnimi načrti, podoba in organizacija vsebin pa temelji na dosedanjih spoznanjih didaktike učenja in poučevanja. Ker se torej učbenik in učni načrt konstantno pojavljata v paru, nas to lahko privede do prepričanja, da učitelj potrebuje en učbenik in en učni načrt. Vendar s tem, kot opozarja Filipčič (2003, str. 55) zanemarimo načela o avtonomiji in uvajanju raznolikih metod dela. Izbor učbenika je namreč učiteljeva avtonomija in izraz zaupanja v njegovo strokovnost (prav tam).

Pomembno je namreč upoštevati možnost prilagajanja načina dela in možnost izbire primernih učnih gradiv. Želena posledica kurikularne preнове je prisotnost več učbenikov, ki omogočajo različne načine pouka in učenja (prav tam).

Težko je odgovoriti na vprašanje, na kaj naj bo učitelj nujno pozoren pri izbiri učbenika. V pomoč nam je opredelitev učbenika pri Strokovnem svetu Republike Slovenije za splošno izobraževanje. Tako učitelj izbira učbenik, ki je v skladu z:

- *“z osnovnimi cilji sistema vzgoje in izobraževanja,*
- *s cilji, standardi znanja in z vsebinami učnih načrtov oziroma s katalogi znanja,*
- *s sodobnimi spoznanji stroke oziroma strok, ki opredeljujejo predmet ali področje,*
- *z metodično-didaktičnimi načeli*
- *in dajejo ustrezno ter uspešno podporo za pripravo in izvajanje pouka”* (po Filipčič, 2003, str. 55).

Vsi učbeniki niso kvalitetni. Pomembno je, da to uzavestijo učitelji, saj je njihova avtonomna izbira, katere učbenike bodo pri pouku uporabljali.

Galonja (2001) v svojem prispevku razpravlja o tem, kaj je dober učbenik. Pri tem opozori na različna merila, ki jih je pri definiranju dobrega učbenika treba upoštevati. Opozarja namreč na to, da učitelji dober učbenik definirajo drugače kot učenci in kot na primer starši. Učitelji upoštevajo predvsem pedagoška merila, npr. ali se učbenik ujema z učiteljevim načinom poučevanja, se bodo učenci lahko učili iz tega učbenika in podobno. Učenci pa imajo spet drugačna merila, kot je npr., ali je učbenik razumljiv ali je dolgočasen in podobno, starše pa skrbi predvsem cena učbenika.

Vseeno pa naj bi imel dober učbenik po mnenju Galonje (2001, str. 59) naslednje lastnosti:

- mnenja in interpretacije v učbeniku se morajo ujemati z dosegljivimi dokazi,
- vsebina, besedila in slikovno gradivo ne smejo spodbujati predsodkov, rasizma, stereotipov,
- slikovno gradivo mora služiti kot izhodišče za razpravo ali kot dopolnilo k besedilu,
- med temeljnim besedilom, nalogami in vprašanji mora biti primerno ravnovesje,
- jezik v učbeniku mora biti primeren razvojni stopnji in starosti učencev,
- učbenik mora spodbujati pravilno rabo jezika in dober literarni slog,
- učbenik mora spodbujati in pomagati razvijati globlje razumevanje in kritično mišljenje in naj ne zadosti le učnemu načrtu.

2. Metodologija

Namen

Z empirično raziskavo smo ugotavljali mnenja učiteljev o:

- prioritetah pri načrtovanju pouka slovenščine,
- načinu izbiranja učbenikov za pouk slovenščine,
- izbiri učbenikov,
- ustreznosti učbenika, ki ga trenutno uporabljajo,
- pestrosti učbenikov na trgu,
- kvalitetnem učbeniku.

Pri navedenih delnih problemih smo preverjali obstoj razlik glede na delovno mesto (učitelji razrednega pouka in učitelji slovenščine).

Pri raziskavi smo uporabili deskriptivno in kavzalno-eksperimentalno metodo empiričnega pedagoškega raziskovanja. Raziskava je temeljila na neslučajnostnem priložnostnem vzorcu učiteljev razrednega pouka in učiteljev slovenščine izbranih osnovnih šol. Sodelovalo je 68 učiteljev iz 9 osnovnih šol iz Maribora in Celja z okolico.

Instrument za zbiranje podatkov

Učitelji so pisno izpolnjevali vprašalnik, ki je bil anonimen. V prvem delu vprašalnika smo učitelje spraševali po splošnih podatkih (delovno mesto), nato pa so sledila vprašanja o prioritetah pri načrtovanju pouka slovenščine. Sledili sta dve zaprti vprašanji o načinu izbiranja učbenikov za pouk slovenščine. Vprašalnik je bil sestavljen iz dveh sklopov ocenjevalnih lestvic, v prvem delu so učitelji ocenjevali svojo

izbiri učbenikov, v drugem delu pa zadovoljstvo z učbenikom, ki ga trenutno uporabljajo. Vprašalnik je zajemal tudi splošno oceno učbenika, ki ga uporabljajo, in dve dihotomni vprašanji s polodprtim vprašanjem o ponovni izbiri istega učbenika in o pestrosti gradiv na trgu. V zadnjem delu vprašalnika je bilo odprto vprašanje o tem, kaj je zanje dober učbenik.

Obdelava podatkov

Pri analizi smo uporabili frekvenčne porazdelitve (f , $f\%$). Odgovore na odprto vprašanje smo kategorizirali (kategorije bodo predstavljene tabelarično). Za preverjanje razlik glede na delovno mesto pa smo uporabili neparametrične preizkuse (χ^2 -preizkus in Mann-Whitneyjev preizkus).

3. Rezultati in interpretacija

Mnenja učiteljev o prioritetah pri načrtovanju pouka slovenščine

Tabela 1: Izid Mann-Whitneyjevega U-preizkusa razlik v prioritetah pri načrtovanju pouka slovenščine glede na delovno mesto učiteljev

<i>Prioriteta</i>	<i>Delovno mesto</i>	\bar{R}	<i>U</i>	<i>P</i>
Učni načrt	učitelj razrednega pouka	31,43	473,5	0,084
	učitelj slovenščine	37,57		
Učbeniško gradivo	učitelj razrednega pouka	35,99	493,5	0,380
	učitelj slovenščine	31,95		
Izkušnje preteklih let	učitelj razrednega pouka	34,85	532,0	0,701
	učitelj slovenščine	33,12		
Nasveti kolegov	učitelj razrednega pouka	32,37	505,5	0,466
	učitelj slovenščine	35,68		
Intuicija	učitelj razrednega pouka	29,57	410,5	0,043
	učitelj slovenščine	38,56		

V prvem delu smo učitelje spraševali po prioriteti pri načrtovanju pouka slovenščine. 52 učiteljev (76,5 %) na prvo mesto postavlja učni načrt, kar je bil pričakovan odgovor. Na prvo mesto postavi učbenik 8 učiteljev (11,9%), na drugo 21 (31,3 %) in na tretjem mestu je učbenik najpogostejši odgovor 22 učiteljev (32,8 %).

Razliko glede na delovno mesto smo preverjali z Mann-Whitneyevim U-preizkusom, ki nam je pokazal, da je razlika statistično značilna med učitelji slovenščine in učitelji razrednega pouka pri uporabi intuicije pri načrtovanju pouka slovenščine

($P = 0,043$). Učiteljem razrednega pouka predstavlja intuicija pomembno vlogo, saj jo postavljajo na lestvici od 1 do 5 precej višje kot učitelji slovenščine.

V območju tendence ($P = 0,084$) je razlika v prioriteti učnega načrta pri načrtovanju pouka slovenščine. Tudi učni načrt, tako kot intuicija, predstavlja učiteljem razrednega pouka pomembnejšo vlogo pri načrtovanju pouka kot učiteljem slovenščine.

V ostalih treh primerih (učbeniško gradivo, izkušnje preteklih let in nasveti kolegov) med učitelji slovenščine in učitelji razrednega pouka ni statistično značilne razlike.

Učbeniško gradivo vseeno predstavlja nekoliko višjo prioriteto učiteljem slovenščine kot učiteljem razrednega pouka.

Mnenja učiteljev o načinu izbiranja učbenikov za pouk slovenščine

Tabela 2: Izid χ^2 -preizkusa razlik v vplivu na izbor učbenika za pouk slovenščine glede na delovno mesto

Vpliv na izbiro učbenika	Frekvence	Delovno mesto		Skupaj	Izid χ^2 -preizkusa
		učitelj razrednega pouka	učitelj slovenščine		
Strokovni aktiv	f	30	25	55	$\chi^2 = 2,727$ $P = 0,099$
	f%	90,9	75,8	83,3	
Jaz	f	3	8	11	
	f%	9,1	24,2	16,7	
Skupaj	f	33	33	66	
	f%	100,0	100,0	100,0	

V nadaljevanju smo raziskovali mnenja učiteljev o izbiri učbenikov za pouk slovenščine. Način izbire lahko vpliva tudi na uporabo učbenika, zadovoljstvo z njim in posledično na uspešno izvedbo pouka. Zato smo jih najprej spraševali, kdo je na šoli najbolj vplival na izbiro učbenika. Kar 55 učiteljev (80,9%) je odgovorilo, da so učbenik izbrali znotraj strokovnega aktiva, 11 učiteljev (16,2%) pa odgovarja, da so učbenik izbrali sami.

S pomočjo χ^2 -preizkusa smo raziskovali, kakšen je vpliv na izbor učbenika za pouk slovenščine glede na delovno mesto. Med učitelji razrednega pouka in učitelji slovenščine ni statistično značilne razlike, obstaja pa tendenca ($P = 0,099$). Učitelji razrednega pouka so pogosteje izbirali učbenik znotraj strokovnega aktiva, če primerjamo z učitelji slovenščine. Učitelji slovenščine pa so večkrat sami vplivali na izbiro učbenika.

V tem sklopu smo učitelje spraševali tudi o tem, kdo jim je predstavil učbenike, ki jih uporabljajo za pouk slovenščine. 38 učiteljev (55,9%) je odgovorilo, da jim je

učbenik predstavila založba, 15 učiteljem (22,1 %) je učbenik predstavil vodja strokovnega aktiva in 10 učiteljem sodelavec ter enemu (1,5 %) učitelj iz druge šole.

Pri tem vprašanju se statistično značilna razlika glede na delovno mesto ni pokazala.

Mnenja učiteljev o izbiri učbenikov

Zanimalo nas je, po katerih kriterijih učitelji izbirajo učbenik. Iz teh odgovorov smo izvedeli tudi, kaj učiteljem predstavlja dober učbenik.

Tabela 3: Števila (f) in strukturni odstotki (f%) učiteljev po ocenah izbire učbenika za pouk slovenščine

<i>Lastnost</i>	<i>Frekvence</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>Skupaj</i>
Vsebina	f	0	0	1	7	60	68
	f%	0,0	0,0	1,5	10,3	88,2	100,0
Učni načrt	f	0	0	0	12	56	68
	f%	0,0	0,0	0,0	17,6	82,4	100,0
Didaktična ustreznost	f	0	0	1	23	44	68
	f%	0,0	0,0	1,5	33,8	64,7	100,0
Izkušnje z založbo	f	6	12	25	14	10	67
	f%	9,0	17,9	37,3	20,9	14,9	100,0
Izkušnje z učbenikom	f	1	2	11	23	31	68
	f%	1,5	2,9	16,2	33,8	45,6	100,0
Ugodnosti založbe	f	17	18	17	10	5	67
	f%	25,4	26,9	25,4	14,9	7,5	100,0
Prijeten videz	f	12	13	20	13	10	68
	f%	17,6	19,1	29,4	19,1	14,7	100,0
Naslovnica	f	22	17	15	9	4	67
	f%	32,8	25,4	22,4	13,4	6,0	100,0
Všečnost učencem	f	6	8	21	21	10	66
	f%	9,1	12,1	31,8	31,8	15,2	100,0
Drugo gradivo	f	4	6	25	24	9	68
	f%	5,9	8,8	36,8	35,3	13,2	100,0
Povzetki	f	1	2	11	28	26	68
	f%	1,5	2,9	16,2	41,2	38,2	100,0
Avtorji	f	8	10	18	20	12	68
	f%	11,8	14,7	26,5	29,4	17,6	100,0

Večina učiteljev (88,2%) je mnenja, da je pri izbiranju učbenika pomembna ustrežna vsebina, ki jo ostali učitelji ocenjujejo s 4 (10,3%), le en učitelj (1,5%) jo je ocenil s 3, nižje ocene pa sploh ni dobila.

Pomembno vlogo učitelji pripisujejo tudi skladnosti učbenika z učnim načrtom, saj so to kategorijo ocenjevali le z ocenama 5 (82,4%) in 4 (17,6%).

Da mora biti učbenik didaktično ustrezen, kaže visok odstotek ocene 5 tudi pri tej kategoriji (64,7%).

Nekoliko višji odstotek ocene 5 se pokaže še pri ocenah povzetkov v učbeniku, ki učencem olajšajo učenje (38,2%), prav tako se pomembnost tega kaže tudi pri oceni 4 (41,2%).

Manj pomembne so učiteljem izkušnje, ki jih imajo morebiti z določeno založbo ali z učbenikom, pomembna jim ni tudi ugodnost založbe, prav tako posebej ne poudarjajo videza učbenika ali všečnosti učbenika učencem.

Mann-Whitneyjev U-preizkus razlik v izbiri učbenika za pouk slovenščine glede na delovno mesto učiteljev nam pokaže, da med učitelji razrednega pouka in učitelji slovenščine ni statistično značilnih razlik.

Mnenja učiteljev o ustreznosti učbenika, ki ga uporabljajo

Tabela 4: Števila (f) in strukturni odstotki (f%) učiteljev po oceni ustreznosti učbenika za pouk slovenščine, ki ga trenutno uporabljajo

<i>Lastnost</i>	<i>Frekvence</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>Skupaj</i>
Vsebina	f	0	0	6	29	33	68
	f%	0,0	0,0	8,8	42,6	48,5	100,0
Jezik, slog	f	0	0	1	26	41	68
	f%	0,0	0,0	1,5	38,2	60,3	100,0
Skladnost z učnim načrtom	f	0	0	6	22	40	68
	f%	0,0	0,0	8,8	32,4	58,8	100,0
Ponazorjalno gradivo	f	0	1	9	34	24	68
	f%	0,0	1,5	13,2	50,0	35,3	100,0
Videz	f	0	6	15	37	9	67
	f%	0,0	9,0	22,4	55,2	13,4	100,0
Učbeniški komplet	f	1	3	14	35	15	68
	f%	1,5	4,4	20,6	51,5	22,1	100,0
Primernost razvojni stopnji	f	0	0	3	32	31	66
	f%	0,0	0,0	4,5	48,5	47,0	100,0
Didaktična ustreznost	f	0	0	8	36	24	68
	f%	0,0	0,0	11,8	52,9	35,3	100,0
Spodbujanje aktivnost	f	0	4	16	28	20	68
	f%	0,0	5,9	23,5	41,2	29,4	100,0

Izkazalo se je, da so učitelji dokaj zadovoljni z učbeniki, saj se zelo redko pojavijo nizke ocene. Le en učitelj je negativno ocenil celotni učbeniški komplet (1,5%). Podobno pa je z oceno 2. Le en učitelj tako oceni ponazorjalno gradivo v učbeniku (1,5%), šest učiteljev videz učbenika (9,0%), celotni učbeniški komplet trije učitelji (4,4%), in štirje učitelji z oceno 2 označijo spodbujanje aktivnosti pri učencih (5,9%).

Odlične ocene se v pomembno visokih odstotkih pojavljajo pri zadovoljstvu z vsebino v učbeniku (48,5%), z jezikom in slogom (60,3%), kar je za učbenike za slovenščino zelo pričakovano, učitelji so zadovoljni tudi s skladnostjo učbenika z učnim načrtom (58,8%), v veliki meri pa so učitelji zadovoljni tudi s primernostjo učbenika razvojni stopnji učencev (47,0%).

Učitelji so zelo pogosto izbirali tudi oceno 4, kar kaže na to, da so z učbeniki precej zadovoljni. Polovica učiteljev ali več je z oceno 4 ocenila ponazorjalno gradivo (50,0%), privlačnost učbenika na prvi pogled (55,2%), zadovoljni so tudi z učbeniškim kompletom v celoti (51,5%), učbenik pa se jim zdi tudi didaktično ustrezen (52,9%).

Veliko učiteljev je lastnosti učbenika ocenilo z najboljšima ocenama, zato lahko sklepamo, da so učitelji v veliki meri zadovoljni z učbeniki, ki jih uporabljajo za pouk slovenščine.

S pomočjo Mann-Whitneyjevega U-preizkusa smo raziskovali razlike v ustreznosti učbenika med učitelji razrednega pouka in učitelji slovenščine.

Pri kategoriji didaktične ustreznosti obstaja statistično značilna razlika glede na delovno mesto ($P = 0,019$). Izkazalo se je, da so učitelji razrednega pouka bolj zadovoljni z didaktično ustreznostjo učbenika za pouk slovenščine kot učitelji slovenščine. Očitno avtorji več pozornosti posvečajo didaktičnosti učbenikov za mlajše učence, na predmetni stopnji pa učbeniki niso več didaktično tako dobro pripravljani.

Pri drugih kategorijah Mann-Whitneyjev U-preizkus ni pokazal statistično značilnih razlik v ustreznosti učbenika glede na delovno mesto.

Za vzorec pa lahko razberemo, da učitelji razrednega pouka v vseh kategorijah višje vrednotijo učbenik kot učitelji slovenščine.

Učitelje smo spraševali tudi po splošni oceni učbenika za pouk slovenščine. Pričakovali smo podobne rezultate kot pri prejšnjem vprašanju, saj gre za dokaj podobno vprašanje. Da obstaja zveza med odgovori, smo potrdili tudi s Spearmanovim koeficientom korelacije.

Učitelji so učbenike kot celoto ocenili precej visoko. Nihče ni ocenil učbenika z ocenama 1 in 2. Tudi z oceno 3 so učbenike ocenili le štirje učitelji (5,9%), najbolj zastopana pa je bila ocena 4 (64,7%) in na drugem mestu ocena 5 (29,4%), kar kaže na dobro zadovoljstvo učiteljev z učbeniki, ki jih uporabljajo za pouk slovenščine.

Mann-Whitneyjev U-preizkus je pokazal, da ni statistično značilne razlike v splošni oceni učbenika med učitelji razrednega pouka in učitelji slovenščine ($P = 0,640$).

Za vzorec pa lahko rečemo, da je tudi splošna ocena učbenika (kot pri posameznih kategorijah) višja pri učiteljih razrednega pouka kot pri učiteljih slovenščine.

Zanimala nas je tudi učiteljeva ponovna izbira učbenika za pouk slovenščine, ki ga trenutno uporabljajo.

Večina učiteljev (86,4 %) je odgovorila, da bi ponovno izbrala isti učbenik. Glede na zadovoljstvo z učbeniki je bil to pričakovan odgovor. Le devet učiteljev (13,6 %) ne bi ponovno izbralo istega učbenika.

S χ^2 -preizkusom smo preverjali, kakšna je razlika pri ponovni izbiri učbenika glede na delovno mesto. Izkazalo se je, da razlika ni statistično značilna ($P = 0,720$).

Ker se statistično značilna razlika glede na delovno mesto ni pokazala pri splošni oceni, je tudi tu nismo pričakovali. Učitelji torej ne glede na delovno mesto ocenjujejo učbenike, ki jih trenutno uporabljajo, zato je bilo pričakovano, da se bodo neodvisno od delovnega mesta odločali tudi o ponovni izbiri učbenika.

Mnenja učiteljev o pestrosti učbenikov na trgu

Danes je na trgu veliko učbeniških gradiv. To lahko pomeni prednost izbire, po drugi strani pa lahko učbeniki zaradi preveč gradiva in konkurence izgubijo svoj pravi smisel. Učitelje smo vprašali, kaj menijo o pestrosti učbeniških gradiv.

Tabela 5: Števila (f) in strukturni odstotki (f%) učiteljev po oceni pestrosti učbeniških gradiv na trgu

<i>Pestrost</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>f%</i>
Pestrost mi je všeč	40	59,7
Pestrost mi ni všeč	27	40,3
Skupaj	67	100,0

Več kot polovici učiteljev (59,7 %) je pestrost učbeniških gradiv na trgu všeč, 27 učiteljev (40,3 %) pa meni, da je učbeniškega gradiva na trgu preveč.

χ^2 -preizkus razlik mnenj o pestrosti učbeniških gradiv glede na delovno mesto nam je pokazal, da med učitelji razrednega pouka in učitelji slovenščine ni statistično značilne razlike.

Učitelji razrednega pouka in učitelji slovenščine torej dokaj podobno razmišljajo o stanju učbeniških gradiv na slovenskem trgu.

Zanimala so nas tudi mnenja učiteljev o tem, kdo bi moral izbirati učbenike. Svoje odgovore so v nadaljevanju vprašanja tudi utemeljili.

Velika večina (97,0 %) jih je odgovorila, da je prav, da učbenike izbirajo učitelji.

Le en učitelj razrednega pouka je menil, da bi učbenike morala izbrati država, saj bi bili tako učbeniki enotni po vsej državi, en učitelj pa meni, da bi moral učbenike določiti ravnatelj.

Mnenja učiteljev o kvalitetnem učbeniku

Učiteljem smo postavili tudi odprto vprašanje o tem, kaj je po njihovem mnenju dober, kvaliteten učbenik. Od učiteljev smo pričakovali, da naštejejo pet lastnosti dobrega učbenika in jih razvrstijo od najpomembnejše do manj pomembne.

Tabela 6: Števila (f) najpogostejših odgovorov učiteljev razrednega pouka o tem, kaj je zanje kvaliteten učbenik

<i>Lastnost učbenika</i>	<i>f (na 1. mestu)</i>	<i>f (na 2. mestu)</i>	<i>Skupaj</i>
Skladnost z učnim načrtom	16	12	28
Didaktična ustreznost	4	8	12
Strokovnost	4	1	5

Tabela 7: Števila (f) najpogostejših odgovorov učiteljev slovenščine o tem, kaj je zanje kvaliteten učbenik

<i>Lastnost učbenika</i>	<i>f (na 1. mestu)</i>	<i>f (na 2. mestu)</i>	<i>Skupaj</i>
Strokovnost	10	7	17
Didaktična ustreznost	7	7	14
Skladnost z učnim načrtom	6	4	10
Zanimiva, aktualna besedila	3	3	6

V tabelah so prikazane kategorije lastnosti dobrega učbenika, ki so jih učitelji razvrstili na prvo in drugo mesto. Učiteljem slovenščine in učiteljem razrednega pouka so pomembne enake lastnosti, ki naj bi jih imel kvaliteten učbenik. Učiteljem slovenščine se zdi najpomembnejša strokovnost učbenika, medtem ko učiteljem razrednega pouka skladnost z učnim načrtom. Vsem je torej pomembna vsebina, ki je predstavljena v učbeniku. Učiteljem je pomembno, katera vsebina je vključena v učbenik, želijo učbenike, ki so v skladu z učnim načrtom, da si lahko z učbenikom pomagajo tudi pri načrtovanju pouka.

Vsi poudarjajo tudi didaktično ustreznost, ki je povezana tudi z vsebino. Učitelji želijo učbenike, ki učencem predstavljajo vsebino, primerno njihovi razvojni stopnji, jih motivirajo, so praktični, pregledni in razumljivi, saj učenci raje posegajo po takšnih učbenikih.

Učitelji slovenščine omenjajo tudi besedila, ki morajo biti aktualna in zanimiva, da s tem pritegnejo učence. Veliko učbenikov za pouk slovenščine izhaja iz besedil, na podlagi katerih učenci spoznavajo določene vsebine. Prav je, da jih pritegnejo že uvodna besedila, saj se tako tudi lažje spopadajo z novimi vsebinami in nalogami. Odgovore smo predstavili ločeno glede na delovno mesto.

4. Sklep

Ugotovili smo, da se pri več odgovorih kažejo statistično značilne razlike med učitelji razrednega pouka in učitelji slovenščine. Učitelji razrednega pouka načrtujejo pouk slovenščine na podlagi intuicije in učnega načrta v večji meri kot učitelji slovenščine, učiteljem slovenščine pa vseeno nekoliko višjo prioriteto predstavljajo učbeniška gradiva. Učitelji razrednega pouka pogosteje izberejo učbenik znotraj aktivna, medtem ko učitelji slovenščine učbenik izberejo sami, kar kaže na večjo povezanost med aktivni učiteljev razrednega pouka. Učitelji razrednega pouka so tudi bolj zadovoljni z didaktično ustreznostjo učbenika kot učitelji slovenščine. Očitno avtorji učbeniških gradiv več pozornosti posvečajo didaktičnosti učbenikov za mlajše učence na razredni stopnji. Nekaj razlik se pokaže tudi pri opredeljevanju kvalitetnega učbenika, in sicer so učiteljem slovenščine pomembnejša strokovnost učbenika in aktualna besedila, učiteljem razrednega pouka pa skladnost učbenikov z učnim načrtom. Vsi pa poudarjajo ustrezno vsebino in didaktično ustreznost učbeniških gradiv, ki sta očitno temeljni komponenti učbeniških gradiv za pouk slovenščine in verjetno lahko rečemo, da tudi za pouk nasploh. Razlike med učitelji lahko razložimo tudi z načinom dodiplomskega izobraževanja: učitelji razrednega pouka pri svojem dodiplomskem izobraževanju prejmejo več pedagoško-didaktično-psiholoških vsebin, njihov študij je bolj usmerjen v praktično usposabljanje, zato že med študijem razvijajo nekatere kompetence, kot je na primer timsko delo.

Rezultati raziskave sicer niso reprezentativni, dajejo pa pomemben vpogled v vzgojno-izobraževalno prakso in bodo služili za nadaljnje (bolj poglobljene in obširne empirične raziskave).

Karmen Ulaga, Marija Javornik Krečič, PhD

Teachers' opinion regarding the choice and use of textbooks for teaching Slovene

The article presents the results of an empirical study that wanted to determine the opinion of teachers regarding the choice and use of textbooks for teaching Slovene. In the first part of the article, a definition of the textbook is provided. It also focuses on

the teachers' autonomy in choosing textbooks and answers the question of what a good textbook is.

Textbook is an important teaching aid. It helps students in acquiring new knowledge and teachers in planning and teaching. Article 2 of the Textbook Certification Rules (2006) stipulates the following: "Textbook is the basic teaching aid for achieving the learning objectives and standards of knowledge as set out by the teaching plan or the catalogue of knowledge. The didactic-methodological organization of the content and adapted visual and graphic layout support the teaching and learning. The content and structure of the textbook allow the students to learn independently and acquire various levels and types of knowledge. The textbook teaching objectives do not require the answers to be entered immediately in the textbook; the exception is the textbook designed for electronic use (hereafter: e-textbook) that allows the answers to be entered immediately. The textbook is bound to a course or a cluster of topics, the class and level of education. The textbook is also a reader with texts that were selected on the basis of the course description."

The next part of the article focuses on the teachers' autonomy in choosing textbook materials and the situation in the textbook market. Kovač et al. (2005, p. 47) point out that the teachers' freedom of textbook choice can be defined in two ways. On the one hand, teachers and schools are completely autonomous in choosing textbooks; on the other hand, the choice is limited to the list of approved textbooks. The list of approved textbooks is common in Slovenia as well. Considering the situation in the textbook market, Filipčič (2003, p. 55) states that in primary education, several textbooks and workbooks from different publishers are available for the same subjects and grades.

Based on the first impression, it may seem that a large selection of textbooks results in too many options which cause confusion. For this reason, many teachers believe that there are too many textbooks available and that the selection should be narrowed. Therefore, we pointed out the characteristics that Galonja (2001, p. 59) lists as the characteristics of a quality textbook.

- Opinions and interpretations in the textbook must be in line with available evidence.*
- The content, text and pictures must not cause prejudice, racism and stereotypes.*
- Pictures must serve as a starting point for discussion or as a text supplement.*
- A balance must exist between the basic text, the exercises and the questions.*
- The language in the textbook must be adapted to the development stage and age of students.*
- The textbook must encourage students to use the correct language and good literary style.*
- The textbook must encourage and help the students develop a deeper understanding and critical reasoning and not only meet the course description.*

The second part of the article focuses on an empirical study that shows some aspects of using textbooks in real life in school.

The study, which took place in May and June 2014, focused on the following:

- *teachers' opinion regarding the method of choosing textbooks for teaching Slovene,*
- *teachers' opinion regarding the choice of textbooks,*
- *teachers' opinion regarding the appropriateness of the textbook that they were currently using,*
- *teachers' opinion regarding the large selection of textbooks in the market,*
- *teachers' opinion regarding a quality textbook.*

Considering the listed partial problems, differences among teachers according to teaching position, i.e. class teachers and subject teachers of Slovene, were analysed. Descriptive and causal non-experimental method of empirical pedagogical research were used in the survey.

The study was based on a random probability sample of class teachers and subject teachers of Slovene from selected primary schools. 68 teachers from 9 primary schools in Maribor and Celje with surroundings participated in the study at the end of the 2013/2014 school year. Data collection with the questionnaire took place between 30 May 2014 and 27 June 2014.

The results show that statistically significant differences appear between class teachers and subject teachers of Slovene in several answers.

Class teachers plan Slovene lessons on the basis of intuition and the subject description to a greater extent than the subject teachers of Slovene; however, textbook materials are of a higher priority to the subject teachers of Slovene. Class teachers more frequently choose textbooks with the help of their colleagues, while subject teachers of Slovene choose them by themselves, which indicates stronger ties among the class teachers. They are also more satisfied with the didactic appropriateness of the textbook compared to the subject teachers of Slovene. Evidently, authors of textbook materials pay more attention to the didactic value of textbooks for younger pupils at the class level (i.e. grades 1–5). Some differences were also shown in the definition of a quality textbook.

Subject teachers of Slovene value the professional character of the textbook and modern texts, while class teachers are more concerned with the coherence of the textbooks with the subject description. However, they all emphasise the content and didactic appropriateness of textbook materials, which are the key components of textbook materials for Slovene lessons and, we could say, for teaching in general. The differences between the class and subject teachers might be explained with differences in the teachers' education: class teachers undergo more pedagogical, didactic and psychological training. Their study programmes are more practically oriented, which is why they develop some competencies during their studies, such as teamwork.

The results of the study are not representative; however, they offer an important insight into the teaching practice and may serve as a starting point for more profound and extensive empirical studies.

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Preživljanje prostega časa četrtošolcev

Znanstveni članek

UDK 379.82-053.9

KLJUČNE BESEDE: prosti čas, interesne dejavnosti v šoli, interesne dejavnosti izven šole, učenci četrtega razreda

POVZETEK – Prosti čas je čas, ki ni zapolnjen z nobenimi obveznostmi. Vsak posameznik v svojem prostem času počne to, kar si sam želi. V tem času se spočijemo, zabavamo, umirimo in razvedrimo. Potrebujemo ga tako otroci kot odrasli. Je način za doseganje kakovostnega načina življenja. Zato je pomembno, kaj v tem času počnemo. V prispevku je najprej predstavljen pomen prostega časa, pristočasne dejavnosti in dejavniki, ki vplivajo na izbiro le-teh. V drugem delu prispevka predstavljamo rezultate raziskave o preživljanju prostega časa učencev 4. razredov iz izbranih šol savinjske in posavske regije. Predstavljamo obseg prostega časa, kakšne so vsebine le-tega in ali so učenci zadovoljni s preživljanjem svojega prostega časa. Preverjali smo razlike glede na spol učencev, kraj bivanja in izobrazbo staršev. Rezultati so pokazali, da učenci dokaj kvalitativno preživljajo prosti čas in ga v največji meri preživljajo z družino. Pokazale so se razlike v preživljanju prostega časa med spoloma, razlike med mestnimi in podeželskimi učenci in razlike med učenci staršev z višjo izobrazbo ter učenci staršev z nižjo izobrazbo.

Scientific paper

UDC 379.82-053.9

KEYWORDS: free time, extra-curricular activities in school, extra-curricular activities outside school, fourth-grade pupils

ABSTRACT – Free time is defined as time without any obligations. Each individual is free to choose their free time activities according to their demands, either to relax, have fun, calm down or cheer up. It is needed by children and adults alike. Free time is a means of achieving quality lifestyle, therefore the choice of free time activities is very important. This article introduces the meaning and role of free time activities and factors which influence the choice of the activities. In the second part of the article we present the results of a research which was aimed at finding out how the fourth-grade pupils of selected schools from Savinja and Lower Sava regions spend their free time. We wanted to establish the amount of free time, its content and whether the pupils are satisfied with how they spend it, while keeping in mind the pupils' gender, location and parents' education. The results showed that pupils spend their free time in a beneficial manner and mostly with their families. Our research also showed that the results differed according to gender, location and parents' education.

1. Uvod

Prosti čas je čas, ko vsak posameznik počne to, kar si sam želi, ko se spočijemo, zabavamo, umirimo in razvedrimo. Potrebuje ga vsak posameznik predvsem zato, da si "napolni baterije" za novo delo.

Prosti čas je pojav, ki se je razvijal in nastajal skozi celotno zgodovino. Prve omembe prostega časa lahko zasledimo v stari antiki. Za stare Grke in Rimljane je bil smisel prostega časa pridobivanje vrlin in individualni razvoj. Vendar je bil prosti čas privilegij vladajočega razreda. Vsebine prostega časa so bile predvsem kulturne, umetniške, športne in zabavno-razvedrilne dejavnosti (Kristančič, 2007).

Prosti čas v sodobni družbi postaja sredstvo za življenje, potrebo za počitek in osvežitev ter smoter, kjer človek najde sebe in svojo srečo. Današnja služba zahteva od človeka veliko energije in časa, in prosti čas je tisti, ki ljudem povrne energijo za nadaljnje delo. Ta se lahko doseže s počitkom ali z različnimi aktivnostmi. Vendar pa so ljudje velikokrat preutrujeni in se raje odločajo za takšno preživljanje prostega časa, ki je manj naporno, pa čeprav bo to nudilo manj zadovoljstva (Derganc, 2004).

Tako kot odrasli potrebujejo prosti čas tudi otroci oziroma učenci. Tudi ti potrebujejo sprostitev, da se v šoli lažje zberejo. V prostem času otroci počnejo stvari in se ukvarjajo z dejavnostmi, ki jih zanimajo, v njih uživajo in se ob tem sprostijo. Otroci preživljajo prosti čas na različne načine, in sicer eni zelo aktivno, drugi manj ali pa se celo dolgočasijo. Vzrokov, zakaj ga preživljajo različno, je veliko. Eden izmed najpomembnejših je zagotovo motivacija otrok do določenih aktivnosti. Vpliva pa na preživljanje prostega časa tudi okolje, v katerem otrok živi, starost otroka, spol, starši itd.

S. Derganc (2004) opredeljuje prosti čas mladih kot čas, ki jim ostane po opravljenih učnih in drugih življenjskih obveznostih. Je čas, ko mladi zadovoljijo potrebo po spanju, prehranjevanju, ko naredijo domačo nalogo, ko končajo s pomočjo v gospodinjstvu itd. Mrgole (2008) pa obravnava prosti čas mladih kot čas, ki ga preživijo zunaj formalno strukturiranih dejavnosti, to se pravi čas po šoli in po delu. Oba avtorja menita, da je prosti čas mladih tisti čas, ki jim ostane po opravljenih obveznostih.

V tem času so mladostniki večinoma brez nadzora staršev ali drugih odraslih oseb. Pod nadzorom so takrat, kadar preživljajo prosti čas skupaj s starši ali če obiskujejo organizirano prostočasno dejavnost. Prosti čas preživljajo sami ali v družbi vrstnikov, zato je zelo pomembno, kaj v tem času počnejo in kakšne izkušnje si pridobivajo (Gril, 2006).

Prostočasne dejavnosti se razlikujejo od drugih dejavnosti v tem, da si vsak lahko sam izbere, kaj bo počel v prostem času. In zato te dejavnosti ne doživljamo kot obveznosti. Izbiramo tiste dejavnosti, v katerih lahko izpopolnjujemo svoje spretnosti in znanje, hkrati pa imamo tudi možnost za izražanje svojih idej (Gril, 2006).

Ključni element prostočasnih dejavnosti so samousmerjanje, notranja motivacija, spoznavanje lastnih sposobnosti in izkušnja zadovoljstva (Cadwell in Baldwin, 2003; povzeto po Gril, 2006, str. 1).

Prostočasne dejavnosti zelo vplivajo na razvoj mladih. Številne študije dokazujejo, da je aktivno preživljanje prostega časa povezano s pozitivnimi razvojnimi rezultati. Pripomorejo k boljšemu šolskemu uspehu, prilagodljivosti, boljšemu mentalnemu zdravju (Coatsworth, 2005, povzeto po Kuhar, 2008, str. 18).

Prostočasne dejavnosti prispevajo k štirim dimenzijam kompetentnosti:

- zunanji osebni oziroma praktični kompetentnosti (fizično in kognitivno znanje, to je obvladovanje nečesa konkretnega),
- notranji osebni oziroma emocionalni kompetentnosti (samonadzor),
- zunanji socialni kompetentnosti (socialne veščine),
- notranji osebni kompetentnosti (sposobnost refleksije) (Bjarnadottir, 2004, po Kuhar, 2008, str. 18).

Ni vseeno, kakšne dejavnosti se pojavljajo v prostem času. Nekatere so lahko koristne, druge manj. Nekatere dejavnosti nam lahko čez čas postanejo všeč, druge pa ravno obratno. Pogosto pa dejavnosti, ki jih počnemo v prostem času, preženejo dolgočasje. Dejavnosti prostega časa je zelo težko združevati, saj zajemajo zelo različna področja življenja. Zelo težko jih je tudi ločevati, saj se po izhodiščih prepletajo (Lešnik, 1982).

Na prostočasne dejavnosti vplivajo številni dejavniki. M. Kuhar (2008) pravi, da so ti dejavniki motivacija, potrebe, kompetentnost, starost, spol, družbeni sloj, kupna moč, mobilnost, legalne in starševske omejitve itd. Mrgole (2008) navaja drugačno razdelitev le-teh, in sicer na razvojne, motivacijske dejavnike in pripadnost referenčnim socialnim skupinam. S. Derganc (2004) pa pod dejavnike, ki vplivajo na način preživljanja prostega časa, navaja starost, spol, družinske in socialne razmere, bivališče, obremenjenost mladih, učni uspeh, vrstnike, sposobnosti in interese mladih.

2. Namen empirične raziskave

Z empirično raziskavo smo želele raziskati, kako preživljajo prosti čas četrtošolci iz izbranih osnovni šol savinjske in posavske regije. Zanimal nas je obseg prostega časa, kakšne so vsebine le-tega in ali so učenci zadovoljni s preživljanjem svojega prostega časa. Preverjale smo razlike glede na spol učencev, kraj bivanja in izobrazbo staršev.

3. Metodologija

Raziskovalne metode

Uporabile smo deskriptivno in kavzalno-neeksperimentalno metodo empiričnega raziskovanja.

Raziskovalni vzorec

V raziskavo smo zajele neslučajnostni priložnostni vzorec učencev 4. razreda OŠ Koprivnica, OŠ Kozje, OŠ Bistrica ob Sotli, OŠ Pišce, OŠ Bizeljsko, OŠ Artiče, OŠ Brežice in III. OŠ Celje. V raziskavo je bilo vključenih 70 učencev podeželskih in 72 učencev mestnih šol. Od tega je bilo 75 deklic in 67 dečkov. 33 staršev je imelo osnovno ali poklicno šolo, 44 4-letno srednjo šolo in 65 staršev je imelo višjo oziroma visoko šolo ali več. Pravilno izpolnjenih je bilo 142 vprašalnikov.

Postopki zbiranja podatkov

Anketiranje četrtošolcev je potekalo v mesecih februar in marec 2013. Potekalo je v skupini in ni bilo vodeno. Anketni vprašalnik je bil sestavljen po sklopih. Uvodna vprašanja zajemajo spol, kraj bivanja četrtošolcev in izobrazbo njihovih staršev. Prvo, deveto in deseto vprašanje je vezano na razumevanje prostega časa četrtošolcev. Sledijo vprašanja, vezana na kvaliteto in način prostega časa četrtošolcev. Z izjemo drugega in osmega vprašanja, ta sta vezana na zadovoljstvo in ovire preživljanja prostega časa četrtošolcev. Anketni vprašalnik vsebuje osem vprašanj zaprtega tipa in dva vprašanja odprtega tipa.

Merske karakteristike anketnega vprašalnika

- Veljavnost* smo zagotovili tako, da smo vprašalnik sestavili po splošnih navodilih za sestavljanje anketnih vprašalnikov.
- Zanesljivost* smo zagotovili z navajanjem natančnih navodil.
- Objektivnost* smo zagotovili tako, da smo uporabili skoraj vsa vprašanja zaprtega tipa, pri katerih ni mogoče s subjektivnim presojanjem spreminjati informacij.

Postopki obdelave podatkov

Podatke smo obdelale z računalniškim programom SPSS. Vprašanja zaprtega tipa smo prikazale tabelarično z navedbo absolutnih (f) in odstotnih frekvenc ($f\%$). Za preizkušanje odvisnih zvez med spremenljivkami smo uporabile χ^2 -preizkus.

4. Rezultati in interpretacija

Najprej predstavljamo, kako učenci pojmujejo prosti čas, sledi prikaz obsega in vsebin prostega časa ter zadovoljstva učencev z njimi.

Tabela 1: Števila (f) in strukturni odstotki ($f\%$) po odgovoru na vprašanje: "Kaj zate pomeni prosti čas?"

<i>Kaj zate pomeni prosti čas?</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>f%</i>
Čas brez obveznosti	33	23,2
Čas sprostitve	51	35,9
Razvedrilo	14	9,9
Čas uživanja	44	31,0
Skupaj	142	100,0

Iz naše tabele je razvidno, da največ učencem pomeni čas sprostivne (35,9%), čas uživanja (31%), čas brez obveznosti (23,2%) in čas razvedrila (9,9%).

Rezultati se kar precej razlikujejo od rezultatov, ki jih je dobila A. Kristančič (2007). Ugotovila je, da 36 odstotkom mladim prosti čas pomeni čas brez obveznosti, 24 odstotkom kot čas sprostivne, 23 odstotkom kot razvedrilo in 11 odstotkom kot čas uživanja.

Predvidevamo lahko, da do razlik prihaja zato, ker je avtorica zajela v svoj vzorec mlade različnih starosti, tudi starejše učence, ki imajo precej več šolskih obveznosti kot pa četrtošolci. Zato bi lahko rekli, da starejšim učencem prosti čas pomeni čas brez obveznosti in čas sprostivne, mlajšim pa čas sprostivne in uživanja.

Zanimalo nas je, ali se učenci v šoli pogovarjajo o prostem času. Raziskava nam je pokazala, da 84,5 odstotka četrtošolcev se pogovarja o prostem času. To se nam zdi pomemben podatek, saj naj bi šola, kot pravi A. Kristančič (2007), seznanila učence s pomenom in možnostmi prostega časa.

Iz raziskave smo ugotovili, da se učenci največ o prostem času pogovarjajo pri predmetu družba, tako je odgovorilo kar 97 učencev od 120. Ta rezultat nas ni presenetil, saj je v učnem načrtu (2011) za četrtošolce pri predmetu družba pod tematskim sklopom: *Ljudje v družbi* naveden cilj, da se učenci seznanijo s prostim časom. 11 učencev se pogovarja o prostem času pri jezikih in le 3 učenci govorijo o prostem času izven pouka. Presenetilo nas je, da je samo 9 učencev odgovorilo, da se pogovarjajo o prostem času pri razredni uri. Tu smo pričakovali več odgovorov.

Iz tega lahko povzamemo, da učenci razumejo prosti čas kot čas sprostivne in uživanja. K takšnemu rezultatu je lahko pripomogla tudi šola, saj kot smo ugotovili, se učenci pogovarjajo o prostem času v šoli in najpogosteje pri predmetu družba. Tako da jih učitelji spodbujajo k temu, da prosti čas preživijo koristno, predvsem pa v skladu s svojimi željami. Tudi učbeniki, ki pišejo o prostem času, govorijo predvsem o dejavnostih prostega časa, interesnih dejavnostih in koristnem preživljanju prostega časa.

Tabela 2: Števila (f) in strukturni odstotki (f%) po odgovoru na vprašanje: “S kom preživiš največ prostega časa?”

<i>S kom preživiš največ prostega časa?</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>f%</i>
Sam	24	16,9
S prijatelji	25	17,6
Z družino	93	65,5
Skupaj	142	100,0

Ljudje največ prostega časa preživimo v družinskem okolju. Nekateri trdijo, da je prosti čas v družini celo pogoj, da lahko družina deluje kot družbena skupina. Prosti čas v družini ima zelo pomembno vlogo, kot je na primer zблиževanje, stiki, socializacija (Strojin, 1982).

Naša raziskava je pokazala, da največ učencev preživlja svoj prosti čas skupaj z družino, kar 65,5 odstotka. S prijatelji jih preživi 17,6 odstotka, 16,9 odstotka učencev je tistih, ki največ prostega časa preživi samih.

Š. Prah (2011) je v svojem diplomskem delu zastavila enako raziskovalno vprašanje ter prišla do ravno nasprotnih rezultatov. Ugotovila je, da učenci največ prostega časa preživijo sami, nekaj manj jih ga preživi s prijatelji, najmanj pa učenci preživljajo prosti čas z družino.

Družina ima velik vpliv na preživljanje prostega časa posameznika. Starši so nekaki arhitekti in menedžerji stila preživljanja prostega časa svojih otrok. Interese svojih otrok usmerjajo v tista področja, do katerih sami čutijo naklonjenost (Kristančič, 2007).

Tabela 3: Števila (f) in strukturni odstotki (f%) po odgovoru na vprašanje: "Kako najpogosteje preživljaš prosti čas?"

<i>Kako najpogosteje preživljaš prosti čas?</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>f%</i>
Sem telesno aktiven/aktivna	50	35,2
Pred računalnikom/ televizijo/računalniškimi igrigami	10	7,0
Berem	10	7,0
Se igram	62	43,7
Počivam	7	4,9
Se dolgočasim	3	2,1
Skupaj	142	100,0

Ugotovili smo, da se učenci v svojem prostem času največ igrajo, sledi telesna aktivnost. Enak odstotek jih prosti čas preživlja pred računalnikom in televizijo ter z branjem. Najmanj pa učenci v prostem času počivajo in se dolgočasijo.

Igra je zelo pomemben način preživljanja prostega časa skupaj z družino. Igra družinske člane sprošča, povezuje, združuje in tke medsebojne vezi. Pomembna je tudi takrat, ko se otroci vključujejo v vrstniške skupine. Takrat, ko vstopajo v vrtec, šolo, ali pa, ko se združujejo v formalnih ali neformalnih skupinah (Kajba Gorjup, 1999).

Tabela 4: Način preživljanja prostega časa glede na spol

Način preživljanja prostega časa	Dečki		Deklice		Skupaj	
	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i> %	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i> %	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i> %
Sem telesno aktiven/aktivna	26	38,8	24	32,0	50	35,2
Pred računalnikom/ televizijo/ računalniškimi igricami	9	13,4	1	1,3	10	7,0
Berem	2	3,0	8	10,7	10	7,0
Se igram	27	40,3	35	46,7	62	43,7
Počivam	2	3,0	5	6,7	7	4,9
Se dolgočasim	1	1,5	2	2,7	3	2,1
Skupaj	67	100,0	75	100,0	142	100,0

Opomba: $\chi^2 = 13,548$, $P = 0,019$

Med spoloma obstaja statistično značilna razlika v načinu preživljanju prostega časa ($\chi^2 = 13,548$, $P = 0,019$). Rečemo lahko, da so dečki bolj telesno aktivni v svojem prostem času kakor deklice. Dečki tudi več časa preživijo pred računalnikom, televizijo ali računalniškimi igricami kakor deklice. Deklice raje kakor dečki berejo, se igrajo in počivajo.

Tak izid smo pričakovali, saj tudi avtorji Lešnik (1982), N. Sadar (1991) in Raičević (2008) dokazujejo, da prihaja do razlik med spoloma pri izbiri prostočasnih aktivnosti. Raičević (2008) je ugotovil, da se fantje bolj redno ukvarjajo s športom kot dekleta, medtem ko dekleta, v primerjavi s fanti, raje berejo.

Tabela 5: Števila (*f*) in strukturni odstotki (*f*%) števila obiskanih krožkov v šoli

Obiskani krožki v šoli	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i> %
Nič	50	35,2
1	39	27,5
2	31	21,8
3	14	9,9
4 in več	8	5,6
Skupaj	142	100,0

Iz tabele je razvidno, da učenci največkrat ne obiskujejo nobenega krožka v šoli. To bi lahko pripisali temu, da šola nima na voljo dovolj krožkov, za katere se učenci

zanimajo. 27,5 odstotka jih obiskuje 1 krožek, 21,8 odstotka pa 2 krožka. Le 9,9 odstotka jih obiskuje 3 krožke. Vse manj pa je tistih, ki bi obiskovali 4 krožke ali več. Grilova (2006) pa pravi, da večina učencev obiskuje krožke, ki so organizirani na šoli.

Tabela 6: Število obiskanih krožkov v šoli glede na kraj bivanja

Obiskani krožki v šoli glede na kraj bivanja	Podeželska šola		Mestna šola		Skupaj	
	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i> %	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i> %	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i> %
Nič	16	22,9	34	47,2	50	35,2
1	24	34,3	15	20,8	39	27,5
2	17	24,3	14	19,4	31	21,8
3	10	14,3	4	5,6	14	9,9
4 in več	3	4,3	5	6,9	8	5,6
Skupaj	70	100,0	72	100,0	142	100,0

Opomba: $\chi^2 = 12,148$, $P = 0,016$

Izid χ^2 -preizkusa kaže, da med mestnimi in podeželskimi učenci obstaja statistično značilna razlika v številu obiskanih krožkov v šoli ($\chi^2 = 12,148$, $P = 0,016$).

Podeželski učenci v šoli največkrat obiskujejo en ali dva krožka. Mestni učenci pa v šoli največkrat ne obiskujejo nobenega krožka. Teh je kar 47 odstotkov. Razlogov je lahko več, in sicer jih krožki, ki so organizirani v šoli, ne zanimajo, morda so že v popoldanskem času vključeni v krožke oziroma interesne dejavnosti in bi jim tisti v šoli bili odveč. Le 22,9 odstotka podeželskih učencev ne obiskuje nobenega krožka.

Tak izid smo pričakovale, saj menimo, da imajo podeželski učenci več ovir pri vključevanju v organizirane dejavnosti izven šole in se zato raje vključijo v krožke, ki so organizirani v šoli. Iz tega lahko domnevamo, da se podeželski učenci intenzivneje vključujejo v krožke, organizirane v šoli, kakor mestni učenci.

Tabela 7: Števila (*f*) in strukturni odstotki (*f*%) števila obiskanih krožkov izven šole

Obiskani krožki izven šole	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i> %
Nič	31	21,8
1	55	38,7
2	42	29,6
3	9	6,3
4 in več	5	3,5
Skupaj	142	100,0

V naši raziskavi smo ugotovile, da največ učencev obiskuje po en krožek izven šole, teh je kar 38,7 odstotka. Nato sledijo tisti, ki obiskujejo po dva krožka – 29,6 odstotka. Zanimiv podatek se nam zdi, da se učenci veliko bolj vključujejo v krožke izven šole kakor v tiste ki so organizirani v šoli. Le 21,8 odstotka je takšnih, ki ne obiskuje nobenega krožka izven šole, medtem ko krožkov v šoli ne obiskuje 35,2 odstotka. Kot smo že v prejšnjih odstavkih omenile, bi lahko bil razlog za to v različnih željah in zanimanju učencev za določene dejavnosti. Učenci imajo na voljo veliko več organiziranih dejavnosti izven šole kakor v njej. In zato, če le imajo možnost, se raje vključijo v tisti krožek, ki jih najbolj zanima in veseli. Je pa res, da je vključevanje v organizirane dejavnosti izven šole postal nekakšen trend. Starši so postali tako rekoč “obsedeni” s prevelikim vključevanjem otroka v organizirane dejavnosti.

Do podobnih ugotovitev je prišla tudi A. Gril (2006), saj je pri raziskovanju prostega časa mladih v Ljubljani ugotovila, da osnovnošolci v prostem času povprečno obiskujejo dva krožka. Ena petina osnovnošolcev se ne vključuje v nobeno organizirano dejavnost ali krožek.

Vključevanje otrok v organizirane dejavnosti pa ima prednosti in slabosti. Prva prednost je ta, da organizirane dejavnosti pomagajo otroku, da se spoznajo z vrstniki in da si širijo svoja učna področja (Elkind, 2003, povzeto po Heath, 2009). Druga prednost pa je, da imajo otroci priložnost spoznati prijatelje, ki prihajajo iz različnih kultur in okolij (Tirone in Pedlar, 2005, povzeto po Heath, 2009). Nekateri starši menijo, da niso dobri starši, če otroci niso vključeni v veliko organiziranih dejavnosti, zato otroke prekomerno vključujejo v dejavnosti. To pa prinese veliko slabosti. Takšni otroci so pod velikim pritiskom, saj skušajo biti dobri na vseh področjih, kamor so vključeni. In ti otroci imajo manj časa za igro, družino in osebne interese (Rosenfield in Wise, 2000, povzeto po Heath, 2009).

Tudi S. Derganc (2004) meni, da mladim predstavljajo organizirane dejavnosti dve strani. Pozitivno je to, da imajo mladi pri organizirani dejavnosti priložnost, da se srečajo z vrstniki, da skupaj počnejo zanimive stvari in srečajo nove prijatelje. Po drugi strani pa jih organizirane dejavnosti s svojo organiziranostjo preveč spominjajo na šolo.

Tabela 8: Število obiskanih krožkov izven šole glede na kraj bivanja

Obiskani krožki izven šole glede na kraj bivanja	Podeželska šola		Mestna šola		Skupaj	
	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i> %	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i> %	<i>f</i>	<i>f</i> %
Nič	23	32,9	8	11,1	31	21,8
1	27	38,6	28	38,9	55	38,7
2	18	25,7	24	33,3	42	29,6
3	2	2,9	7	9,7	9	6,3
4 in več	0	0	5	6,9	5	3,5
Skupaj	70	100,0	72	100,0	142	100,0

Opomba: $\chi^2 = 18,295$, $P = 0,001$

Med mestnimi in podeželskimi učenci obstaja statistično značilna razlika v številu obiskanih krožkov izven šole ($\chi^2 = 18,295$, $P = 0,001$). Čeprav lahko iz tabele razberemo, da je enako število učencev, ki je vključenih v en krožek, je razlika očitna v rubriki "nič", saj 32,9 odstotka podeželskih učencev ne obiskuje nobenega krožka. Mestnih učencev, ki ne obiskuje nobenega krožka, pa je samo 11,1 odstotka. Razlika se pokaže tudi pri obiskanih treh in štirih krožkih. Tudi tu je več mestnih učencev, ki obiskujejo tri ali štiri krožke. Rečemo lahko, da se mestni učenci bolj vključujejo v krožke izven šole kot pa podeželski.

Tak izid smo pričakovale, saj so nekateri podeželski učenci do malo večjega mesta, kjer potekajo različne organizirane dejavnosti, oddaljeni tudi do trideset kilometrov, kar predstavlja veliko logistično oviro za starše (na primer vožnja dvakrat na teden).

Tudi A. Gril (2006) pravi, da se mestni učenci bolj vključujejo v krožke izven šole kot pa podeželski. Razlog za to navaja predvsem oddaljenost oziroma dostopnost do krožkov.

Tabela 9: Število obiskanih krožkov izven šole glede na izobrazbo staršev

Obiskani krožki izven šole glede na izobrazbo staršev	Osnovna in poklicna šola		4-letna srednja šola		Višja oz. visoka šola ali več		Skupaj	
	f	f%	f	f%	f	f%	f	f%
Nič	14	42,4	9	20,5	8	12,3	31	21,8
1	14	42,4	19	43,2	22	33,8	55	38,7
2	2	6,1	14	31,8	26	40,0	42	29,6
3	3	9,1	1	2,3	5	7,7	9	6,3
4 in več	0	0	1	2,3	4	6,2	5	3,5
Skupaj	33	100,0	44	100,0	65	100,0	142	100,0

Opomba: $\chi^2 = 26,050$, $P = 0,001$

Na osnovi χ^2 -preizkusa lahko ugotovimo, da obstaja statistično značilna razlika v številu obiskanih krožkov izven šole glede na izobrazbo staršev ($\chi^2 = 26,050$, $P = 0,001$). Učenci staršev z višjo izobrazbo obiskujejo več krožkov kakor učenci staršev z nižjo izobrazbo. Opazimo lahko porast števila obiskanih krožkov v povezavi z rastjo izobrazbe staršev. Večjo kot imajo starši izobrazbo, več krožkov njihovi otroci obiskujejo.

Razloge za takšne ugotovitve lahko najdemo v tem, da imajo bolj izobraženi starši posledično višji ekonomski položaj in lahko svojim otrokom nudijo več krožkov izven šole. Večina krožkov izven šole je plačljivih in zato si starši otrok z nižjim ekonomskim položajem njihovih obiskov ne morejo privoščiti.

Otroci, ki živijo v družini z visokim socialno-ekonomskim standardom, imajo precej več možnosti za vključevanje v organizirane dejavnosti kot tisti iz družin z nižjim socialno-ekonomskim standardom (Zeijl idr., 2001, povzeto po Heath, 2009).

S tem se strinja tudi Kuhar (2008), ki pravi da mladi, ki prihajajo iz družin z nižjim družbeno-ekonomskim statusom, so velikokrat prikrajšani. Ti si zaradi pomanjkanja denarja določenih prostočasnih aktivnosti in izdelkov ne morejo privoščiti. To je na primer obisk kina, lokalov, vodene telovadbe, nove računalniške tehnologije.

Mladi, ki pa prihajajo iz družin, ki imajo višji družbeno-ekonomski status, pa imajo več možnosti, da izkoristijo poučne izkušnje v prostočasnih dejavnostih. Obenem pa imajo tudi možnost, da se izurijo v obvladovanju sodobnih informacijsko-komunikacijskih tehnologij.

Tabela 10: Števila (f) in strukturni odstotki (f%) po odgovoru na vprašanje: “Kje raje preživljaš svoj prosti čas?”

<i>Kje raje preživljaš svoj prosti čas?</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>f%</i>
Doma	53	37,3
Zunaj doma	89	62,7
Skupaj	142	100,0

Rezultati so pokazali, da 62,7 odstotka učencev prosti čas raje preživlja zunaj doma, kar potrjuje tudi Bajzek (2008).

Kot razlog, zakaj učenci raje preživljajo prosti čas zunaj doma, navajamo, da imajo zunaj doma na voljo več različnih aktivnosti, s katerimi se ukvarjajo v prostem času. V rubriko “zunaj doma” štejemo tudi vse krožke, ki jih obiskujejo, npr. različne oblike telesne aktivnosti, druženje s prijatelji, igre na igriščih, v parkih in podobno. Zato nas takšni rezultati tudi ne presenečajo.

Bajzek (2008) je ugotavljal, kako mladi preživljajo prosti čas zunaj doma. Najbolj pomembno je mladim srečevanje s prijatelji ali prijateljicami. Na drugem mestu je srečevanje s svojo skupino. Temu sledi srečevanje s fantom/dekletom pri malo starejših. Nato je ukvarjanje z aktivnim športom, nakupovanje, obiskovanje lokalov, preživljanje prostega časa skupaj s starši zunaj doma, obiskovanje kina.

Pri starejših sledi vožnja z motorjem in nato obiskovanje diskotek. Temu pa sledi delovanje v prostovoljnih dejavnostih in preživljanje časa v knjižnici. Nekateri radi preživijo prosti čas zunaj brez cilja in na zadnjem mestu je obiskovanje igralnic.

Tabela 11: Števila (f) in strukturni odstotki (f%) po odgovoru na vprašanje: “Kdo najbolj vpliva na izbiro tvojih prostočasnih aktivnosti?”

<i>Kdo najbolj vpliva na izbiro tvojih prostočasnih aktivnosti?</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>f%</i>
Sam	75	52,8
Starši	50	35,2
Prijatelji, vrstniki	17	12,0
Skupaj	142	100,0

Raziskava je pokazala, da kar polovica učencev aktivnosti svojega prostega časa izbira samih. To kaže na dejstvo, da starši dajejo svojim otrokom prosto pot, da vsaj v prostem času počnejo to, kar si res želijo. Temu sledijo starši v 35,2 odstotka. Na samo 12,0 odstotka učencev vplivajo prijatelji.

Podobno je ugotovila tudi A. Kristančič (2007), ki pravi, da na prostočasne aktivnosti najbolj vplivajo učenci sami. Temu sledi družina in šele nato prijatelji.

Družina ima velik vpliv na preživljanje prostega časa posameznika. Starši so nekaki arhitekti in menedžerji stila preživljanja prostega časa svojih otrok. Interese svojih otrok usmerjajo v tista področja, do katerih sami čutijo naklonjenost (Kristančič, 2007).

Pri izbiri prostočasnih aktivnosti so prijatelji oziroma vrstniška skupina tudi pomemben dejavnik. Ti dajejo mladostniku podporo in prijateljstvo izven domačega okolja. Ravno preko vrstnikov pa na mlade vplivajo stvari in dejavnosti, ki so trenutno v modi. Posamezniki zelo radi prevzemajo vzorce ravnanja in posnemanja (Derganc, 2004).

Tabela 12: Števila (f) in strukturni odstotki (f%) po odgovoru na vprašanje: “Ali si zadovoljen s preživljanjem svojega prostega časa?”

<i>Ali si zadovoljen s preživljanjem svojega prostega časa?</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>f%</i>
Zelo zadovoljen	111	78,2
Še kar zadovoljen	30	21,1
Nisem zadovoljen	1	0,7
Skupaj	142	100,0

Kar 78,2 odstotka mladih je zadovoljnih s preživljanjem svojega prostega časa, 21,1 odstotka jih je še kar zadovoljnih, medtem ko samo eden izmen vseh anketiranih učencev ne izraža zadovoljstva. To, da so učenci zadovoljni s preživetim prostim

časom, bi lahko pripisali temu, da se večinoma sami odločajo, kaj bodo počeli v tem času, in si izbirajo tiste dejavnosti ter počnejo tiste stvari, ki jim prinašajo zadovoljstvo, kar je tudi bistvo prostega časa. Tudi Metka Kuhar (2008) poudarja, da v prostem času posameznik počne to, kar si želi, in se ukvarja s tistimi dejavnostmi, ki ga veselijo.

Tako Bajzek (2008) kot A. Gril (2006) sta prišla do podobnih ugotovitev. Oba se strinjata, da je večina mladih s preživljanjem svojega prostega časa zadovoljna.

5. Sklep

Na podlagi opravljene raziskave lahko ugotovimo, da anketirani učenci razumejo prosti čas kot čas sprostitve in uživanja. V šoli so največ pozornosti pogovoru o prostem času namenili pri predmetu družba. Anketiranci največ svojega prostega časa preživijo skupaj z družino, v tem času pa se najpogosteje igrajo. Dečki so bolj telesno aktivni kakor deklice in tudi več časa preživijo pred računalnikom, televizijo ali računalniškimi igrkami. Deklice raje berejo, se igrajo in počivajo. Približno tretjina anketiranih v šoli ne obiskuje nobenega krožka. Med tistimi, ki pa ga, prevladujejo učenci z enim izbranim krožkom.

Učenci, ki obiskujejo prostočasne aktivnosti izven šole, povečini izberejo eno aktivnost. Podeželski učenci se bolj vključujejo v krožke, organizirane v šoli, kakor mestni. Mestni učenci se bolj vključujejo v krožke izven šole. Raziskava je pokazala, da učenci staršev z višjo izobrazbo obiskujejo več krožkov kakor učenci staršev z nižjo izobrazbo. Četrtošolci raje preživljajo svoj prosti čas zunaj doma. Na izbiro prostočasnih aktivnosti v največji meri vplivajo sami in so z njimi zadovoljni.

Učenci, zajeti v raziskavo, dokaj kakovostno preživljajo prosti čas. Pokazale pa so se tudi možnosti izboljšave, npr. v šoli bi se lahko namenjalo več pozornosti tej tematiki, ne samo pri enem predmetu, temveč tudi pri drugih. Še posebej pa bi bilo smiselno to tematiko vključevati v program razrednih ur. Prav tako je pomembna sprotne evalvacija interesnih dejavnosti (krožkov), ki jih ponujajo osnovne šole, saj se tako kot vsa druga področja tudi interesi učencev spreminjajo. In temu trendu naj bi sledila tudi šola s ponudbo aktualnih dejavnosti v času izven pouka.

Kot učitelji in vzgojitelji lahko močno vplivamo na to, da otroci preživljajo prosti čas kakovostno. Pomagamo jim pri razvijanju močnih področij in usmerjanju v dejavnosti, v katere se želijo vključevati. Imamo pa tudi možnost, da vplivamo na starše in jih ozaveščamo o potrebah prostega časa za vsestranski razvoj za njihovega otroka.

Urška Smole, Branka Čagran, PhD, Vlasta Hus, PhD

How fourth-grade pupils spend their free time

Free time is defined as time spent away from obligations. Each individual is free to choose their free time activities according to their demands, either to relax, have fun, calm down or cheer up. Free time is much needed in an individual's life as a means of charging the batteries and getting energized, both for adults and pupils alike. The pupils need time to relax in order to focus better in school. Their free time is spent engaging in various fun and relaxing activities. Some children tend to be very active during this time, others not as much, some are even bored. The causes for this are numerous. Among the most important is, without doubt, the children's motivation to do particular activities, while other aspects should also not be neglected, such as the environment, age and the parents' education.

Derganc (2004) defines adolescents' free time as the time left after completing school and life obligations, and time when they satisfy their need for sleep, food, doing their homework, helping in the household, etc. Mrgole (2008), however, defines adolescents' free time as time spent outside of formally structured activities – the time after school and work. Both authors agree that free time is the time which remains after all other duties have been fulfilled.

Free time activities differ from others as each individual can choose what they want to do. This is the very reason free time activities are not perceived as obligatory. We tend to choose activities which enable us to perfect our skills and knowledge and express our ideas (Gril, 2006).

Free time activities have a major impact on children's development. Numerous studies show that being active in our free time correlates with positive development, increased academic performance, adaptability and better mental health (Coatsworth, 2005, as cited in Kuhar, 2008, p. 18).

The type of free time activities matters greatly, as some of them can be useful, others not; we can grow to like some, as well as the opposite. Regardless, free time activities very often reduce boredom. Free time activities are difficult to group as they cover various parts of our lives. On the other hand, they are difficult to separate since they have common origins (Lešnik, 1982). Free time activities are influenced by various aspects. Kuhar (2008) lists them as motivation, needs, competence, age, gender, social status, purchasing power, mobility, legal and parental limitations, etc. Mrgole (2008) offers a different classification, namely the developmental aspect, motivational aspect, and belonging to particular social groups. Derganc (2004), however, lists the following factors which influence the choice of free time activities: age, gender, familial and social circumstances, residence, adolescents' overload, academic achievements, peers, abilities and interests.

Our empirical research was aimed at establishing the ways how the fourth-grade pupils from the selected primary schools in Savinja and Lower Sava regions spend their free time. We were interested in the amount and content of free time and the pupils' satisfaction with their free time activities, while keeping in mind the pupils' gender, location and parents' education. In order to do so, we used a descriptive non-experimental method of empirical research and non-probability convenience sample. The participants were pupils attending the fourth grade at the primary schools Koprivnica, Kozje, Bistrica ob Sotli, Pišce, Bizeljsko, Artiče, Brežice and III. Primary School Celje. The sample consisted of 142 pupils, of which 70 pupils were attending suburban schools and 72 pupils were attending urban schools (47.2% male). The parents of the participating pupils consisted of those with primary or vocational education (23.2%), specialised secondary education (31%) and higher or university education (45.8%). The survey was conducted in February and March 2013. After a prior permission from the schools, we administered the survey at the schools, where they were completed in groups and without guidance. The questionnaire consisted of several parts, where the initial questions inquired about the pupils' gender, location and their parents' education. The questionnaire included eight closed-ended and two open-ended questions. The acquired data were analysed using the SPSS software. Closed-ended questions were presented in terms of absolute and percentage frequencies. We applied the Chi-square test to verify the associations between the variables.

The survey revealed that the pupils see free time mainly as a time to relax and enjoy; this partly resulted from free time being discussed at schools and the teachers encouraging the pupils to engage in useful free time activities they can enjoy. This is also the case in various textbooks which discuss free time activities, extra-curricular activities and spending free time in beneficial ways. Our survey showed that the pupils learned most about free time within the subject Society. This is not surprising, as the 2011 Curriculum for the fourth-grade pupils covers the people in society topic, with the aim of introducing free time to the pupils.

The participants spend the majority of their free time with their families. They most often spend time playing, the boys being more physically active than the girls. However, boys spend more time using computers or playing computer games, whereas girls prefer reading, playing with toys and resting. These findings are in accordance with previous findings (Lešnik, 1982; Sadar, 1991; and Raičević, 2008), which revealed gender differences in spending free time. Raičević (2008) reports that boys engage in sports activities more frequently than girls, while the girls are more likely to read than the boys. Our survey suggested that a rather large number of pupils (one third) do not attend any extra-curricular activities, which can be due to the schools not offering activities which the pupils might find interesting. However, we noticed that the pupils from suburban schools are engaged in the extra-curricular activities offered by the school more frequently, whereas the pupils from urban areas are engaged in the extra-curricular activities outside of school. This is not surprising and can be explained by the fact that pupils from suburban areas find it more difficult to commute to activities outside school. The analysis revealed that the majority of pupils attend one extra-curricular activity,

followed by those visiting two. What we find interesting is that the pupils prefer the activities outside school, which could be explained by the pupils' interests and wishes – there are much more outside school activities offered, which means the pupils prefer joining activities they are actually interested in. However, joining the outside school activities has become somewhat of a trend. The parents developed an obsession with including their children in too many organised activities. Or, in the words of Rosenfield and Wise (2000, as cited in Heath, 2009), parents feel less confident in their parenting if the children do not attend numerous activities.

Our research showed that the pupils, whose parents have higher or university education, are engaged in more extra-curricular activities which could be explained by the fact that these parents also have a higher income due to their education, and can offer their children more activities outside school. Such activities usually demand a payment of attendance fees which cannot be afforded by the parents with a lower economic status. The pupils from families with a higher socio-economic status are given more opportunities to attend organised activities than the pupils from families with a lower status (Zeijl, Poel and Reymond, 2001, as cited in Heath, 2009). A view shared by Kuhar (2008) as well; she claims that underprivileged children are often deprived, since they cannot afford certain free time activities, such as going to the cinema or bars, attending workout, using new computer technologies, etc.

The fourth-grade pupils prefer spending their free time outside their home – including all extra-curricular activities they attend, which is also confirmed by Bajzek (2008), who noticed that boys prefer spending their free time outside of home. This could be explained by the fact that the pupils have more activities available outside home, namely, various extra-curricular activities covering sports, socialising, spending time at playgrounds, parks, etc. The choice of free time activities is left to the pupils themselves, which was also stated by Kristančič (2007), who says that the pupils' personal choice is the most influential factor when selecting free time activities, followed by the influence of their family and, lastly, friends.

The majority of participants are satisfied with their free time activities, which was expected, since they choose the activities based on their own interests. As Kuhar (2008) states, individuals engage in activities which they find satisfying. Such views are supported by Bajzek (2008) and Gril (2006), who both found out that the majority of young people engage in satisfying free time activities.

We can conclude that the participants spend their free time in a beneficial manner, however, there is room for improvement. Namely, schools could allocate more time to cover the topic of free time in a number of subjects, particularly during the Class Lessons. Continuous evaluations of the extra-curricular activities at schools are also vital because the pupils' interests change during time. Schools should be guided by this fact and adjust the offer of activities accordingly. As teachers, we can influence the way the pupils spent their free time and orientate them towards the beneficial activities, help them to develop their strong areas and to do things they find enjoyable. On the other hand, we can make parents aware of the role of free time and its place in the pupils' development.

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The students' school workload from the perspective of students and parents

Znanstveni članek

UDK 373.3+159.944.4

KLJUČNE BESEDE: obremenitev, preobremenitev, starši, šola, učenci

POVZETEK – Obremenitev učenca s šolo je določena z zasnovo učnih načrtov in programov, z organizacijo pouka, številom učnih predmetov in učbenikov, z obsegom domače naloge in ocenjevanjem. Primerna obremenitev učenca je zaželena, vendar raziskave kažejo na možno preobremenitev, ki nastane, kadar so zahteve neprilagojene učencem in njihovim razvojnim možnostim. Prispevek je osredotočen na raziskavo odnosa učencev in staršev do obremenitve s šolskim delom, ki je povezana z učnimi predmeti, učbeniki in domačo nalogo kot enim od najpomembnejših dejavnikov, z zadovoljstvom s šolo, uspehom in sodelovanjem, kot tudi ocenjevanjem, slednje pa smo raziskali kot posledico njihove preobremenitve. V raziskavi je sodelovalo 1012 udeležencev iz petih osnovnih šol (Pulj, Zagreb, Osijek, Vukovar in Otok), od katerih je 538 učencev, 474 pa njihovih staršev. Rezultati kažejo, da število učnih predmetov in učbenikov veliko prispeva k pojavu preobremenitve učencev. Domača naloga prispeva k še večji obremenitvi učencev, kar se odraža v odnosu do nje ter v nezadovoljstvu z ocenjevanjem. Še zmeraj pa tako učenci kot starši izražajo zadovoljstvo s šolo, čeprav jih v omenjenih delih preobremenjuje.

Scientific paper

UDC 373.3+159.944.4

KEYWORDS: workload, overload, parents, school, students

ABSTRACT – The students' school workload is determined by the concepts of curricula, teaching arrangements, number of subjects and textbooks, the extent of homework and evaluation. An appropriate workload for students is desirable, but the researches show a possible overload when the demands are not adjusted with students and their personal development. The paper focuses on the examination of the attitudes of students and parents towards the workload of students related to school subjects, textbooks and homework, as one of the most important factors, as well as satisfaction with school, success, cooperation, and assessment, the latter also examined as a result of their overload. The study included 1,012 participants from five elementary schools (Pula, Zagreb, Osijek, Vukovar and Otok), from which 538 were students and 474 were their parents. The results show that the number of subjects and textbooks significantly contributes to the phenomenon of students' overload. Homework contributes to an even greater workload, which is reflected in the attitudes, and students' dissatisfaction with the assessment. Nevertheless, both students and their parents display satisfaction with school, although it overburdens them in the mentioned areas.

1. Introduction

The main objective of every school is the student – the one who learns. Perceiving learning as something exclusively related to students means it is necessary to ensure the optimal conditions in which they could freely deepen their knowledge, develop skills and competencies. (Over)burdening represents a significant problem, because it directly affects the quality of what was learned, as well as its application.

Overload occurs when the demands are not adjusted with students and their personal development. Teacher affects students by shaping the structure of teaching, directing it towards the presumed learning structures (Meyer, 2005).

With school and teaching curriculum, teacher sets the course of realising the set objectives with the help of the planned content. Teacher is expected to demonstrate the educational skills by giving the students their workload in accordance with their intellectual and physical resources (Jurčić, 2006). The intention is to reduce school learning, which mainly came down to memorisation through encouraging the factual knowledge, to a basic level and focus it towards the implicit knowledge; knowledge that includes competencies.

Teacher directs the curriculum towards students, using the provided textbooks, supplementary and additional literature defining the requirements set for students. Although textbooks are only one source of knowledge, their number and frequency of use suggests they are a key didactic medium (Matijević, Rajic & Topolovčan, 2013). Teacher uses textbooks and other additional literature in planning and preparing the classes, during classes and he determines students' further activity after school through assignments that students will complete through the individual work.

From the process of teaching and learning, which mainly takes place in classrooms, comes the homework, with the aim of increasing knowledge and developing students' abilities and skills. Homework objectives represent measurable achievements regarding repetition of what is known (by adjusting the personal understanding), exercise and application of acquired knowledge in a new situation. Homework basis is to ensure the time when the students work through what they have learned in the class, working individually after school. A restraint in assigning homework to students is important (Cooper, Lindsay, & Greathouse Nye, 1998; Marzano, Pickering & Pollock, 2006; Cooper, 2008; Peko, Dubovicki & Munjiza, 2014).

Tas, Sungur-Vural and Öztekin (2014) report in their research, that teachers consider assigning homework to be a very important part of teaching, because thus they further develop students' knowledge and skills, but more often communicate with parents by monitoring their progress through homework.

Evaluation has an impact on learning methods, students' progress and attitudes and beliefs. Patterns that solely promote reproduction including the remembered as a key basis for the evaluation and assessment were shown as harmful (Ristić Dedić & Jokić, 2014). Also important is the mere expectation of the results of monitoring and evaluation that cannot be easily interpreted and can represent a particular load.

As a consequence of school's workload or overload with school and obligations arising from it, there is the students' satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Satisfaction and the feeling of happiness are extremely important for all participants of the educational process. Researches (Chida & Steptoe, 2008; Huppert, 2009) show that satisfaction affects greater success in learning and developing social relations, but also in encouraging and developing creativity.

Bognar and Dubovicki (2012) emphasise that creative activities emit pleasant emotions during which students feel more satisfied, and thus more successfully deal with the challenges they are faced with. Personal satisfaction as well as a positive atmosphere (support from colleagues) can affect the enjoyment of work a person is engaged in (Lyubomirsky, King & Diener, 2005), and it should be the scope and the imperative of school education. For a student to study regularly and effectively, it is important that his/her parents provide the necessary support. Patall, Cooper and Robinson (2008) emphasise the necessity of parental involvement in children's education.

Harris and Goodall (2008) conducted a research on the connection between parental involvement (and support) and the academic success of students. Knollmann and Wild (2007) wrote about the quality of parental support and students' emotions, exploring the connection between parental support, students' motivational orientations and emotions while doing homework. There is a significant correlation between parental educational expectations and actual achievements of children (Jacob, 2010).

Students more often determine themselves according to how they accomplish parents' expectations rather than according to their own standards, success and achievement over time (Kanter Agliata, 2005). Some researchers (Corno, 2000; Tas, Sungur-Vural & Öztekin, 2014) state that homework and orientation of students towards new values represent an important factor for parent-teacher cooperation, which is very important regarding the enabling an optimal development of a student. Positive parental orientation regarding burden factors of students in basic dimensions is extremely important.

Today, when we are on the threshold of a new reform of educational system in the Republic of Croatia (Strategy for Education, Science and Technology, 2013), it is especially important to see the perception of students about the school workload. The conducted researches on teachers', parents' and students' attitudes towards the workload of the young with school obligations determine the most important factors of the school workload: curriculum, didactic and methodological organisation of teaching, teachers, textbooks, and subjective difficulties in learning (Orwell & Ristić Dedić, 2004; Munjiza, Peko & Dubovicki, 2015).

In what aspects the school loads the students, what are the requirements placed in front of students, and whether the school fulfils students' expectations, are the questions students' need to answer. In fact, what students and parents think about the load of school commitments, and is there a consensus among them, were the main research questions.

The research problem is thus focused on questioning the perception of elementary school students and their parents with the school workload and additional assignments that directly arise from it.

2. Methodology

Research on parents' and students' attitudes towards the school workload of students regarding the number of subjects within the curriculum, number of textbooks, volume of homework, and monitoring and assessment was conducted.

2.1. Aim and objectives of the research

The aim of this study was to examine students' and parents' attitudes regarding some factors of students' school workload.

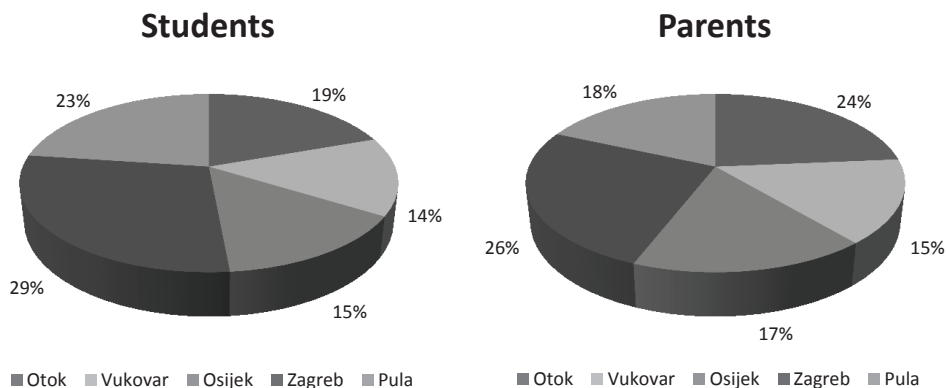
According to the set aim, some tasks were designed and based on the tasks, students' and parents' attitudes were researched, regarding:

- workload with the number of subjects,
- workload with the number of textbooks,
- workload with homework,
- grading students as a possible factor of workload,
- general satisfaction with school, success, cooperation with parents,
- connection of attitudes of 4th and 8th graders and their parents regarding the workload.

2.2. Participants

Research included 1,012 participants from five elementary schools: Otok, Vukovar, Osijek, Zagreb and Pula, out of which 538 were 4th and 8th graders and 474 were their parents.

Figure 1. Sample



From the above chart we can see that the highest percentage of participants is from Zagreb (both students and parents, N = 277). However, the greatest percentage of parents who participated in the study, in relation to the total sample of parents of students, is from the smallest town, Otok (N = 218). This data can be attributed to the fact that in smaller communities, such as Otok, school is still perceived as a place where parents need to demonstrate, for example, the importance of the relationship with school. The highest number of returned questionnaires from parents was exactly from Otok. However, we cannot generalise this kind of explanation, because the research could have been influenced by other dependent factors such as: interesting topics, the time of the questionnaire, cooperation between parents and teachers, parents' attitudes towards the workload of their children and more.

The research was conducted by the class teachers of the grades where the research was conducted. The data were collected during the year 2014.

2.3. Instrument

The data on students' and parents' attitudes towards the workload were collected using a questionnaire designed for the needs of the project, which explored the (over) burdening the students of elementary schools (Munjiza, Peko & Dubovicki, 2015). During 2013, a pilot study was conducted, based on which this questionnaire was validated.

Of the 27 particles listed in the scale for parents' attitudes, 23 of them substantially match the scale of students' attitudes. These 23 particles were classified in four areas that relate to *the area of workload at school, area of workload at home as a result of school obligations, area of school assessment and area of general satisfaction with school, success and cooperation with parents*. For the purposes of this research, the particles related to our research questions were isolated.

While completing the questionnaire, students were required to link their assessments to the subjective experience of the load and the obligations arising from it. The variables of the interval type were evaluated. Students were asked to evaluate how often the particular statement applies to them using a Likert-type scale of five categories:

- strongly disagree with the statement (1),
- partially disagree with the statement (2),
- neither disagree nor agree with the statement (3),
- partially agree with the statement (4),
- completely agree with the statement (5).

The research made it possible to compare the responses of parents and students of the 4th and 8th grades to determine the trend of the observed workload.

3. Results and discussion

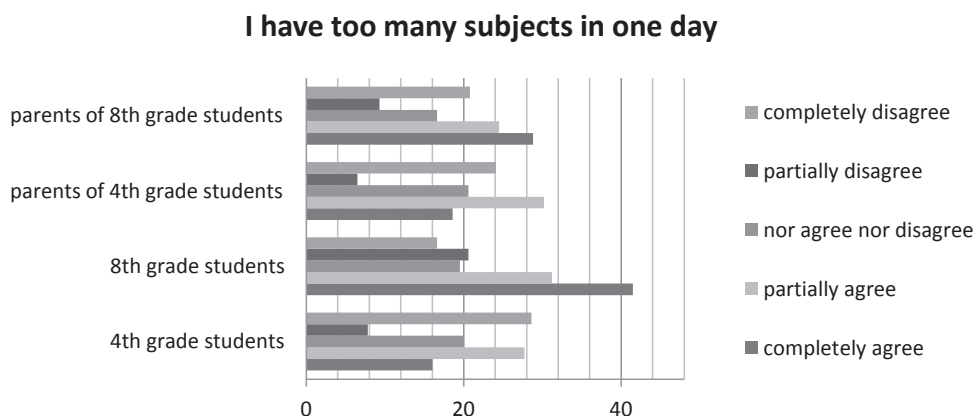
Below are the results of the research in the same order as the research questions. From the mentioned scale, the particles relating to our research questions were isolated and analysed.

3.1. Students' and parents' attitudes towards the workload of students with the number of classes

The workload of students with school is determined by the school curriculum which determines the number and sequence of learning certain subjects, number of regular and elective courses and special programs. Our interest was to analyse the indicators in the area of load regarding the number of subjects.

Figure 2 shows the attitudes of students $N = 538$ and parents $N = 474$ regarding the burden with the number of classes.

Figure 2. Students' and parents' attitudes regarding the burden with the number of classes



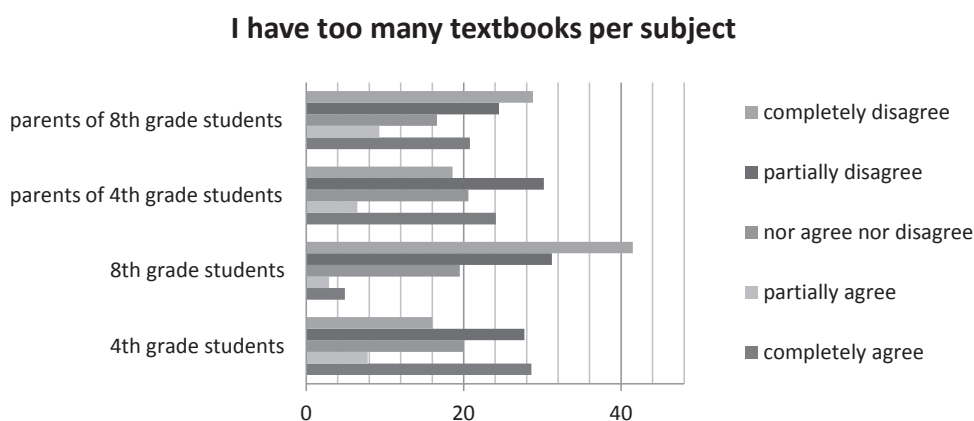
Participants mostly decided on the categories. From Figure 2., we see that 72.7% of 8th graders estimate (strongly agree and partially disagree) that there are too many subjects in one day, while the same was estimated by 43.7% of 4th graders. Parents of 8th graders (53.3%) in comparison with their children agree in a smaller number with the assessment of students being occupied with subjects in one day, however, still more than the parents of 4th graders of whom 48.8% estimate that there are too many subjects in one day. Research results indicate that students give credit for the workload mostly to the lengthy curriculum, or excessive number of subjects in one day (for which they are considered as ready).

3.2. Students' attitudes towards burden with the number of textbooks

In Croatian school culture, the textbook is (amongst other sources) the primary source of knowledge and, due to the above reasons, it is necessary to examine students' and parents' attitudes about their number and the workload they represent. Using the textbook, a student can independently continue to learn, which is expected from him/her. The number of books and mandatory textbooks keeps increasing (Munjiza, Peko & Dubovicki, 2015) so it was necessary to explore (by examining students' and parents' attitudes) if the textbook had become a source of overburdening (Figure 3.).

The average values display students' and parents' attitudes regarding the workload with the number of textbooks, which is only one of the resources teachers use in preparing for the class and teaching (Figure 3.)

Figure 3. Students' and parents' attitudes regarding the textbook workload



Taking into account the categories *completely agree* and *partially disagree*, we can see that the 4th graders (N = 104) in 36.4% consider themselves to be extremely loaded regarding the number of textbooks per subject, and parents' attitudes (N = 142) which are, over 30%, in favour of the specified load. In this part, we can talk about a certain overload, which is expressed especially with the 4th graders. Out of 286 4th graders, 44.6% of them estimated they have too many textbooks, while out of 252 8th graders, 73.2% of them opted for the same claim. We can say that they have already got used to, in some way, the overload and that they perceive it as a constant in education. We can assume that the workload with different sources would be even more expressive if the research expanded to additional sources.

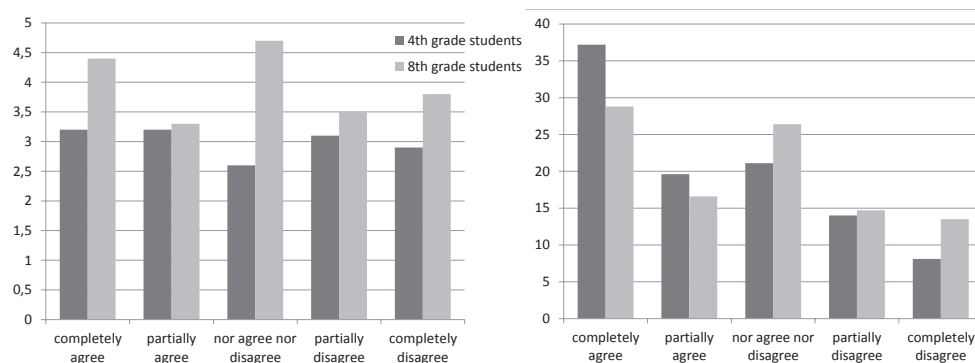
The above analysis of students' and parents' attitudes guides us to the following answers to the set research question: *students' and parents' attitudes regarding the number of subjects and the number of textbooks go in favour of the school overload.*

3.3. Attitudes of workload burden with homework

The following research question was related to the examination of students' and parents' attitudes regarding the workload of homework as a result of obligations that arise from teaching. The guidance of students' activities with homework should lead towards the realisation that homework is a measure of the continuity of learning and the ability to plan independently, to express own ideas and approaches. To determine homework and optimise its dimension, the teachers should start from what their students understand and what they can do on their own.

8th graders express an attitude of a greater load in this area than the 4th graders (Figure 4.).

Figure 4. Students' (left) and parents' (right) attitudes regarding the homework workload



The differences in average values of parents are twice as high compared to students' responses, which is highly evident from the category *completely agree*. Students believe they are significantly loaded with homework, which is opposite of what their parents believe. Also, 8th graders state a greater homework workload than 4th graders, in all scale values. These results can be attributed to students' age, who are, by the end of elementary school, expected to show more individual and independent work as a preparation for future schooling.

Responding to the following research question, we can say that the students' and parents' attitudes go in favour of students' being overloaded with homework.

3.4. Grading students as a possible factor of overload

The following research question referred to the examination of *students' and parent's' attitudes regarding the grading as a possible factor of overload*. Monitoring and verifying achieved level of competence enables students to gain insight into

development of individual skills and abilities, sometimes even lagging behind in mastering the content. It is desirable that a system for monitoring, assessing and grading students takes care of their capabilities and characteristics of their growth and development, and to represent a landmark for further guidance.

Table 1. Comparative indicators of students' load towards attitudes of parents of 4th and 8th graders based on the evaluation

Claims	Reference categories for the area of workload		The sum of the % of reference category for 4 th grade students		The sum of the % of reference category for 8 th grade students		The difference in % between 4 th and 8 th grade students in the reference categories		The rank of claims within four areas ** in 4 th grade students		The rank of claims within four areas ** in 4 th and 8 th grade students	
	U	R	U	R	U	R	U	R	U	R	U	R
Teachers grade based on previous grades	4.5	4.5	18.2	10.5	31.2	32.5	13.0	22.0	5.	5.	4.	4.
While grading, teachers do not take consider the opinions of students	4.5	4.5	29.0	16.0	40.1	42.4	11.1	26.4	1.	3.	3.	2.
Teachers are very demanding while grading	4.5	4.5	24.7	28.1	55.9	44.2	31.2	15.6	3.	1.*	1.	1.*
Teachers are strict while grading	4.5	4.5	26.3	27.6	50.0	37.4	23.7	9.8	2.*	2.	2.*	3.
Teachers are consistent while grading	1.2	4.5	19.9	15.6	28.2	20.8	8.3	5.2	4.	4.	5.	5.

Remarks: U – students, R – parents, * – matching of the ranks of 4th and 8th graders; ** – areas are described in the chapter Instrument

Research results show that students, in the analysed part of the research, confirmed a strong sense of load, in a whole as well as in the individual components. In Table1, students' attitude towards the load of grading is confirmed by the reference categories (4 and 5) in which the surveyed students, based on the asked claims, confirmed the phenomenon of being overloaded. Attitudes of 4th graders range from 18.2% to 29% in the reference categories, while that range moves from 28.2% to 55.9% with the 8th graders. Students' and parent's' attitudes mostly overlap, but the largest deviations are still present in the part assessing the claim teachers, *when evaluating*,

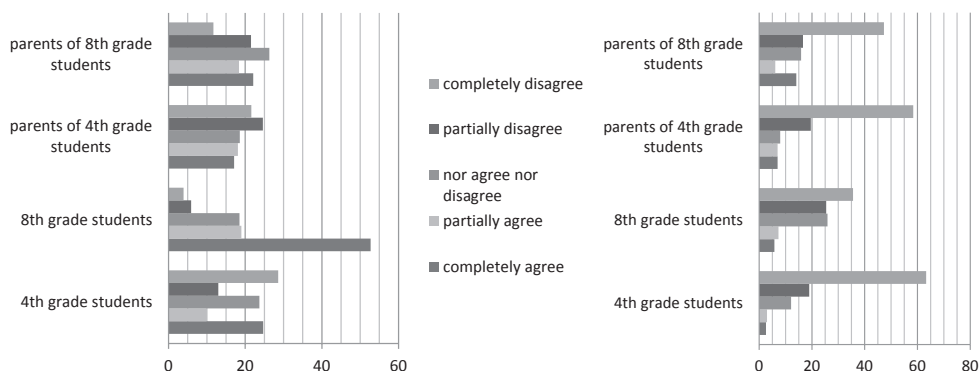
do not consider the opinion of students. 4th graders believe their opinion is not respected enough, 13% more than their parents.

The research results favour the validating of students' and parents' attitudes about overburdening when it comes to grading, which answers the set research question.

3.5. Attitudes regarding the satisfaction with school, success and cooperation with parents

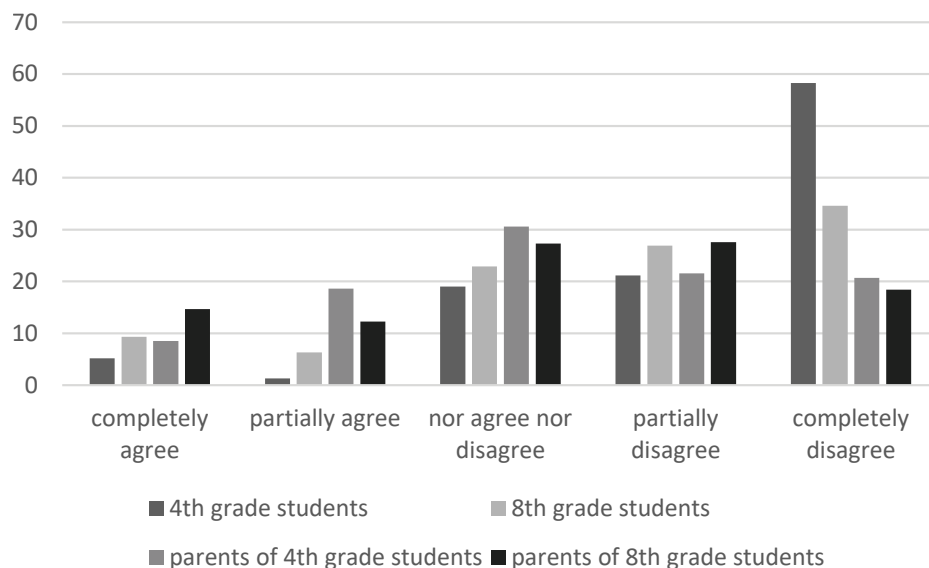
School workload can also be monitored through general *satisfaction with education, success, and cooperation with parents*. Figure 5 shows a comparative analysis of students' and parents' attitudes regarding satisfaction with school and school success.

Figure 5. Students' and parents' attitudes regarding general satisfaction with school (left) and satisfaction with school success (right)



A comparative analysis of attitudes of 4th and 8th graders and their parents regarding *overall satisfaction* shows the greatest divergence so far. Taking into account the categories *completely agree* and *partially disagree*, we notice that 4th graders (41.6%) are generally satisfied with school in comparison with 8th graders (9.8%) while attitudes of parents of 4th (46.2%) and 8th graders (33.2%) show minor deviations. Figure 5 (left) shows that 4th graders (82.3%) and their parents (78%) are satisfied with *school success* more than 8th graders (61%) and their parents (63.9%), which can be also attributed to the importance of evaluation related to further education. Figure shows participants' views regarding satisfaction with *school's cooperation*. Taking into account the categories *completely agree* and *partially disagree*, 4th graders (79.5%) are almost twice as satisfied with the cooperation than their parents (42.3%). Differences in results were less highlighted with 8th graders (61.5%) and their parents (56%), which can be seen in Figure 6.

Figure 6. Students' and parents' attitudes regarding the cooperation with school



Results of such an analysis provide us with answers to our research question in which of the above mentioned loads of *both 4th and 8th graders, parents and students are generally satisfied with school, the success, and cooperation between school and parents*. We can say that the latest research results might clash with the previous, but we can also interpret this in a way that students, and especially parents, consider the elementary education important in continuing their children's education. While trying to do so, they have the support of teachers, which is evident from the cooperation between parents and schools.

3.6. Attitudes of 4th and 8th graders and their parents on the topic of burden

In our effort to investigate the trend of student overload, but also to get as objective results as possible, we compared the responses of 4th and 8th graders and their parents regarding the four areas described in the chapter Instrument. Differences in attitudes towards the overload between parents and students was statistically tested with the degree of correlation (Pearson's coefficient) and rank correlation coefficient, and they also represent the answer to our last research question. In the first two areas, 4th graders (N = 286) have, in average, a milder attitude towards all particles (-2.3% and -2.0%), while, for the third and fourth field, they have a stricter attitude compared to the parents (4.6% and 14.4%). Unlike them, 8th graders (N = 252) have a more intense attitude by 8.7% for the first area, while in the other three areas they have a somewhat softer approach to the phenomenon of overload compared to their parents (Table 2).

Table 2. Pearson's coefficient of correlation between students' and parents' attitudes (N = 1012)

Grade	1 st area	2 nd area	3 rd area	4 th area
4 th grade	0.98	0.77	0.92	0.97
8 th grade	0.98	0.84	0.96	0.98

Remark: * areas are described in the chapter Instrument

According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007), correlation coefficients 0.90–1.00 indicate a very high correlation, 0.70–0.90 a distinct correlation, 0.40–0.70 an important correlation, 0.20–0.40 small correlation, and below 0.20, the correlation barely exists. Research results suggest that *in terms of attitudes about the phenomenon of school workload between students and parents there is a distinct and very high correlation*, indicating that students and parents have significantly different views on the overburdening phenomenon. Also, the rank correlation indicates the same tendency (Table 3).

Table 3. Correlation of ranks between students and parents (N = 1012)

Grade	1 st area	2 nd area	3 rd area	4 th area
4 th grade	0.96	0.90	0.80	0.80
8 th grade	0.98	0.70	0.90	0.75

Remark: * areas are described in the chapter Instrument

From Table 3, we can see in which way a *correlation of ranks indicates that there is a strong correlation between students and parents* in the ranks of the analysed particles within certain areas. The connection is higher by the coefficient of rank correlation between students and parents, than the one between the parents of 4th (N = 255) and 8th graders (N = 219). These results suggest that *in terms of the overburdening phenomenon, there is a great consent between students and parents*, which answers the last research question.

The research shows that students are loaded with too many subjects, which therefore includes excessive hourly rate and weekly and daily schedule. An optimal student workload is the most important prerequisite of efficiency of educational activities of elementary school. *Homework* should be reduced to a reasonable level and, in addition to individual tasks, enable students achieve cooperation through joint activities among students and joint activities of students and parents which would enable working on an even greater *cooperation between families and school*. However, it is necessary to

consider the optimal cooperation between families and schools, as any other form (too much or not enough) would bring more harm than good for both students and teachers.

Results also show that assessment still represents an overload for students, because education is still partially aimed at learning facts and numerical grading, while other forms of evaluation are still under-represented or do not have an important place in terms of the overall estimate. *General satisfaction of students and parents with school, and the success of cooperation is satisfactory*, although it would be advisable to work on it more in the future. If the overburdening of students in the areas where this research detected the overload is reduced, we can assume that students' and parents' satisfaction will be even greater.

4. Conclusion

This paper examines whether and to what extent is an optimal school workload present and how it is perceived by elementary school students and their parents. The presented results indicate the perception of 4th (N = 286) and 8th (N = 252) graders and parents of 4th (N = 255) and 8th (N = 219) graders regarding basic factors which condition the overload. The number of classes and textbooks actually presents an overload especially on the 4th graders. All parents (N = 474) support this attitude, but feel that school is extremely important for the continuation of education and they generally do not directly react to the overload of the investigated factors. The 8th-graders express the attitude of increased workload with homework, and reasons can be found in age differences, as well as in the expectations that students of this age should be more independent. In the area *workload in school and at home as the result of schoolwork*, the 4th graders (N = 286) share, on average, a milder attitude (-2.3% and -2.0%), while in the area of *school evaluation and school satisfaction, success and cooperation with parents*, they share a stricter attitude compared to their parents (4.6% and 14.4%). Opposite to them, the 8th graders (N = 252) share a 8.7% more intense attitude in the area of *workload in school*, and in the areas of *workload at home as result of school obligations, school assessment and general satisfaction with school, success and cooperation with parents*, they share a more relaxed view towards the overload phenomenon, compared to their parents.

The conducted research contributes to the knowledge about perception of the school workload of elementary school students in today's school culture. The problem of determining the extent of workload is very important, since it has a diagnostic value in determining the condition of the entire school system. A further comprehensive analysis of the factors which determine the overload, with the consequences arising therefrom, would make possible to determine the plan for stopping the consequences of noticed problems and determining the measures concerning the establishment of more intensive cooperation between teachers and students, as well as teachers and parents, as well as eliminating the cause of the observed phenomenon.

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Obremenitev učencev s šolskim delom z vidika učencev in staršev

Problem šolske obremenitve učenca je v direktni povezavi z organizacijo šolskega izobraževanja in vzgoje nasploh, kakor tudi z razumevanjem vlog učencev in učiteljev, izbiro učnih vsebin, koncepcijo učnih načrtov in programov ter vrednotenjem dosežkov. Ugotavljanje primerne obremenitve učencev predstavlja stalen fenomen. Učitelj deluje kot posrednik med učenci in učnimi vsebinami, vzetih iz določene kulture. Na temelju učnih načrtov je obremenitev učencev dimenzionirana s številom učnih predmetov in časovno zasedenostjo v času rednega pouka in ostalih oblik pouka. Sodobne teorije o izbiri učnih vsebin so usmerjene k preseganju enciklopedizma, formalizma in pasivnosti pri pouku, na kar se gleda kot na dejavnike, ki otežujejo učni proces, saj zmanjšujejo njegove rezultate. Učbeniki, ki se danes nahajajo na šolskih klopeh, v nobenem primeru niso edini niti najvažnejši vir za priprave za pouk. Predstavljajo samo enega izmed potencialnih virov za učitelje, ki so odgovorni za načine in številčnost njihove uporabe.

Raziskovanja nakazujejo, da so učitelji bolj nagnjeni k dajanju domačih nalog, če je razred manjši ter je spremljanje napredka vsakega posameznega učenca olajšano tudi na ta način. Pogovor učitelja s starši o domačih nalogah prav tako pospešuje njihovo sodelovanje, kar učencem olajšuje zaključek šolanja. Čeprav je osnovna funkcija vrednotenja regulativna, gre pri vrednotenju za izjemno zapleten proces, ki vključuje celokupne vloge učiteljev in učencev. Ocena pogosto postane tudi glavni smerokaz učenčevega obnašanja. Ocenjevanje preide v določanje stopnje uspešnosti učenja učencev, torej česar so se učenci naučili in do katerega nivoja so sistematizirali določeno znanje in razvili svoje sposobnosti. Izhajajoč iz predpostavke, da je vsak otrok, ki se vpiše v osnovno šolo, sposoben to šolo tudi dokončati, govorimo o pristopu h kurikulumu osnovne šole, ki se v pedagogiki označuje s sintagmo pedagogika uspeha za vse. V kolikor se pri pouku ob sumativni usmerimo tudi na formativno evalvacijo, pridemo do celovitejše podobe vsakega posameznega učenca, ki ga na ta način lahko vrednotimo bolj objektivno. Ocenjevanje učencev naj bi predstavljalo pozitivno sliko učenčevih dosežkov, ki so jih učenci dosegli skupaj s svojimi učitelji in starši, toda to pogosto ni tako.

S sprejemanjem svojega otroka z vsemi lastnostmi in s podpiranjem, starši neposredno vplivajo na obnašanje otrok. Starši usmerjajo otrokovo obnašanje s pomočjo postavljanja določenih vrednosti in načina njihovega doseganja. Različne vrste pomoči in vključevanja staršev v izobraževanje otrok imajo različne vplive na dosežke, prav tako ima tudi vrsta vključevanja vpliv na variacije pri ocenah. Starši se soočajo s številnimi preprekami pri podpiranju svojih otrok. Obstaja jasna razlika med vključevanjem staršev v šolanje otrok in sodelovanjem staršev pri učenju. Sledeč temu lahko razmišljamo o potrebi po vključevanju staršev v individualne naloge učencev, kot tudi o posledicah le-tega. Različni starševski stili v vlogi moderatorja odnosa med postopki staršev in šolskimi dosežki otroka lahko vplivajo na otrokovo sprejemanje starševskega vpliva. Vključevanje staršev v različne šolske aktivnosti prerašča v pomembno družbe-

no funkcijo. Zavzetost staršev pri učenju doma je pomembna za učni uspeh učencev. V nekaterih raziskavah je opaženo, da obstaja prevelika vključenost staršev v reševanje domačih nalog, s čimer njena funkcija postane kontra produktivna. Ni treba poudarjati, da domača naloga postane nekoristna, če naloge rešujejo starši, pišejo sestavke, koncepte domačega branja in drugo. Poudarja se nujnost nove konceptualizacije domačih nalog in zaželeno je, da se vanjo vključujejo pomembna družbena, kulturna in vzgojno-izobraževalna vprašanja. Še posebej je nujna usklajenost staršev in njihovih otrok pri presojanju obremenitve učencev s šolskimi obveznostmi.

Različna dojetanja starševske pomoči pri pisanju domačih nalog lahko vplivajo negativno na učne dosežke, če se pri realizaciji pojavljajo konflikti. Če pa se starševska pomoč sprejme kot dodatna kompetenca in podpora, takrat bo učinek na učni uspeh bolj zadovoljiv in bo vplival na večji učni uspeh. Kar se tiče problema domačih nalog, je nujno natančnejše raziskovanje ciljev, vsebin, spremljanja ostalih dejavnikov ter potrebne- ga časa, da bi dobili kar se da objektivno sliko konteksta domačih nalog. Navedeno je treba opredeliti tudi glede na celokupno obremenitev učencev s poukom in nadaljnjim delom, ki se na temelju le-tega zahteva. Šolsko izobraževanje in vzgoja predstavljata zapleten proces, ki v sebi združuje nasprotujoče si zahteve in strukture. Učitelji naj bi planirali in realizirali aktivnosti, ki z vodenjem omogočajo doseganje zastavljenih ciljev in pri tem naj bi učence podpirali v upravljanju z lastnim učenjem ter v sodelovanju s starši spremljali dosežke. Pomembna naloga učiteljev je uravnoteženost zahtev in optimalne šolske obremenitve učencev.

V povezavi z opaženo problematiko smo izvedli raziskavo s ciljem preučevanja odnosa učencev in njihovih staršev do nekaterih dejavnikov šolske obremenitve učencev. Raziskovanje je potekalo med 1012 udeleženci iz petih osnovnih šol: Otok, Vukovar, Osijek, Zagreb in Pulj, pri čemer je 538 bilo učencev četrtil in osmih razredov in 474 je bilo njihovih staršev. Podatki o mnenjih učencev in staršev o obremenitvi s poukom so zbrani s pomočjo vprašalnika, ki je bil oblikovan za potrebe projekta, s katerim se je raziskovala (pre)obremenitev učencev osnovnih šol in v katerem so poudarjene tiste enote, ki se nanašajo na naša raziskovalna vprašanja. V skladu s postavljenim ciljem o anketiranju odnosa učencev in njihovih staršev do nekaterih dejavnikov šolske obremenitve učencev smo oblikovali raziskovalna vprašanja, ki so se nanašala na: obremenitev učencev s številom učnih predmetov, obremenitev učencev s številom učbenikov, obremenitev z domačimi nalogami, ocenjevanje učencev kot potencialni dejavnik preobremenitve učencev, splošno zadovoljstvo s šolo, z uspehom in sodelovanjem s starši ter povezanost mnenj učencev četrtil in osmih razredov in njihovih staršev o šolskih obremenitvah.

Z raziskavo smo pridobili rezultate, ki se nagibajo v smer šolske obremenitve učencev v delu preobremenitve s številom predmetov in učbenikov, kot tudi domačih nalog. Več kot 70% učencev osmih razredov ocenjuje, da imajo preveč učnih predmetov na dan, medtem ko enako ocenjuje več kot 40% učencev četrtil razredov. Glede na naslednji preučevani dejavnik obremenitve, učbenik, jih je od 286 učencev četrtega razreda 44,6% ocenilo, da imajo preveč učbenikov, medtem ko se je od 252 učencev osmega razreda kar 73,2% opredelilo za enako trditev. Učenci osmih razredov izražajo mnenje o

večji obremenitvi z domačimi nalogami, kot pa učenci četrtilih razredov. Kot dodaten dejavnik preobremenitve se je pokazalo tudi ocenjevanje, ki učence še zmeraj ne obravnava kot celovite osebe, katerim znanje ni edina komponenta ocenjevanja. Komparativna analiza mnenj učencev in staršev četrtilih in osmih razredov glede na splošno zadovoljstvo je pokazala največja odstopanja. Upoštevajoč kategorije popolnoma se strinjam in delno se strinjam opažamo, da so učenci četrtilih razredov (41,6%) na splošno bolj zadovoljni s šolo, kot pa učenci osmih razredov (9,8%), medtem ko mnenja staršev učencev četrtilih (46,2%) in osmih razredov (33,2%) kažejo manjša odstopanja. Splošno zadovoljstvo s šolo in uspehom je zadovoljujoče, razloge temu pa lahko poiščemo v poudarjanju pomembnosti osnovnošolskega izobraževanja kot smernice za nadaljnje izobraževanje. Udeleženci raziskave poudarjajo, da je sodelovanje s šolo zadovoljujoče, vendar je v to treba še naprej vlagati. Pri vprašanju glede (pre)obremenitve učencev vlada precej velika skladnost med mnenji učencev in staršev. Raziskava daje skoraj identično sliko, gledano tako iz perspektive učencev kot tudi staršev o šolski obremenitvi učencev glede na proučevane dejavnike, ki dajejo doprinos obremenitvi, tako da v tem delu lahko govorimo o precejšnji šolski preobremenitvi učencev.

Predpostavka za učinkovito in uspešno delovanje šole je skladnost vseh dejavnikov vzgojno-izobraževalnega sistema v doživljanju in tolmačenju opazovanega šolskega fenomena. Razumevanje učencev je v izobraževalnem kontekstu ključno, glede na to, da daje smernice za transformacijo učnega načrta in načinov poučevanja ter za izpopolnjevanje sistema vrednotenja in ocenjevanja šolskih dosežkov. Rešitve, s pomočjo katerih bi učencem olajšali šolanje, naj bi potekale v smeri rekonstrukcije obstoječega obveznega sistema izobraževanja z vsemi spremljajočimi deli, katere vsebuje (šolski kurikulum, učni načrt in program, predmeti, učbeniki, domače naloge, rezultati učenja in različne oblike sodelovanja). Prav je, da učenec v času šolske vzgoje in izobraževanja zadovoljuje svoje interese in potrebe. Če mu je to onemogočeno zaradi resne obremenitve s šolskimi predmeti, učbeniki in domačim delom, lahko rečemo, da šola ni dosegla svojega cilja – razvoja posameznika (učenca) kot celovite osebe.

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The assessment of students' cooperation and teachers' support – the students' perspective

Znanstveni članek

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KLJUČNE BESEDE: sodelovanje, podpora učiteljev, hrvaški jezik, matematika, geografija

POVZETEK – Cilj raziskave je bil ugotoviti, kako učenci ocenjujejo sodelovanje v razredu in podano podporo učiteljev pri pouku hrvaškega jezika, matematike in geografije ter ali obstajajo razlike v ocenah učencev glede na spol in starost. V raziskavi je sodelovalo 650 učencev šestih ($N = 306$) in osmih razredov ($N = 344$) iz enajstih osnovnih šol Sisačko-Moslavačke županije (Republika Hrvatska). Rezultati so potrdili razlike v ocenah sodelovanja in podpore učiteljev med tremi navedenimi učnimi predmeti. Razlike med spoloma v korist deklet smo ugotovili na podlestvicah Podpora učiteljev – hrvaški jezik in Podpora učiteljev – geografija. Prav tako je razvidno, da mlajši učenci (šesti razred) v primerjavi s starejšimi (osmi razred), na podlestvicah Sodelovanje – hrvaški jezik, Sodelovanje – matematika, Sodelovanje – geografija, Podpora učiteljev – hrvaški jezik in Podpora učiteljev – matematika, podajajo višje ocene. Na podlestvici Podpora učiteljev – geografija se z vidika starosti med učenci niso pokazale statistično pomembne razlike.

Scientific paper

UDC 373.3.064.2

KEYWORDS: cooperation, teachers' support, Croatian language, Mathematics, Geography

ABSTRACT – The aim of this study was to examine the students' perspective of the cooperation in class and the support received from teachers in Croatian language classes, Mathematics classes and Geography classes. In addition, we wanted to investigate if there are differences in the students' assessments with regard to their gender and age. The study included 650 students, 306 sixth-grade and 344 eighth-grade students in eleven primary schools in Sisak-Moslavina County (Republic of Croatia). The results have confirmed the existence of different assessment of cooperation and teachers' support in the three subjects. Gender differences in favour of girls were determined on the subscales Teachers' support – Croatian language and Teachers' support – Geography. It was found that younger students (sixth grade) give higher estimates in comparison to older students (eighth grade) on the subscales of Cooperation – Croatian language, Cooperation – Mathematics, Cooperation – Geography, Teachers' support – Croatian language and Teachers' support – Mathematics. Age differences among students have not been found on the subscale Teachers' support – Geography.

1. Introduction

Contemporary teaching presupposes active learning, recognition of students' potential, sharing of information and experiences, developing specific interests and creativity, communication and mutual interaction among students, as well as between students and teachers (Bognar and Matijević, 2002; Previšić, 2005). Studying is a social activity, and as such it implies mutual cooperation between the subjects of the educational process.

Cooperation is collective work in achieving common goals (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). As one of the essential dimensions of effective teaching, cooperation has been emphasised by many authors, although we find conflicting opinions in their deliberations on the reasons, methods and conditions of its implementation (Johnson, Johnson & Holubec, 2013; Rohrbeck, Ginsburg-Block, Fantuzzo & Miller, 2003; Sharan, 2002; Slavin, 2015). Cooperation among members of a group and even among more groups in a classroom is a fundamental feature of cooperative learning (Sharan, 2002). Prerequisites for quality cooperation are the individual's consent to cooperate, along with good communication and the ability to comply with others, where the highest quality is achieved when there is positive interdependence between the members of the group (Buljubašić-Kuzmanović, 2009). Group work is more effective than individual work and, very generally speaking, small groups (pairs) are a better choice than groups comprised of a larger number of participants, at least initially, when students are only familiarising themselves with skills of cooperative learning. "*Cooperative learning can be used with some confidence at every grade level, in every subject area, and with any task*" (Johnson, Johnson & Smith, 1995, p. 4). Therefore, from pre-school to higher education, there is a possibility, but also a justification for the application of cooperative learning.

The theoretical framework of cooperative learning can be found in the works of Kurt Koffka, one of the founders of the Gestalt psychology, who points to the fact that groups are dynamic entities within which there are various interdependencies among members. His observation was complemented by Kurt Lewin and fully systematised by Lewin's student Morton Deutsch who formulated the theory of cooperation and competition (Johnson, Johnson & Smith, 2013).

Many researchers have dealt with the study of cooperation. Johnson & Johnson (2009) mention about 1200 studies conducted in the last 110 years. However, studies were carried out very broadly, in different countries and cultures and various areas of activity, and both pre-school children and adults participated. The implementation of cooperation was of unequal duration, but in spite of everything, about 65% of the studies confirmed the effectiveness of cooperative learning (Johnson & Johnson, 2009). Willingness to agreement and compromise, respecting the rules, understanding and mutual respect of others – these are the qualities that develop with cooperative learning.

For most students, adolescence is a part of life which is dominated by uncertainty, turbulent emotional reactions, new friendships, decrease in parental dependence and aspiring to greater freedom and independence. In this turbulent period of their life, they need peers and adults whom they can trust, people who have the knowledge and competencies to support their versatile development, understand their problems, as well as provide empathy and constructive criticism when needed. Scientific literature confirms that those are peers, parents and teachers (Wentzel, 1998). The relationship between students and teachers is a subject of numerous studies which are aimed at clarifying its connection with academic achievement (Valiente, Lemery-Chalfant, Swanson & Reiser, 2008), social functioning of students (Ladd, Birch & Buhs, 1999),

acceptance in the classroom (Wentzel, 1994), engagement in learning activities (Skinner, Wellborn & Connell, 1990), and behavioural problems (Graziano, Reavis, Keane & Calkin, 2007). The list of features a high-quality teacher should possess is long, and scientific literature offers a string of research which offers broader or more concise overviews of the desirable qualities of teachers, classifying them in different ways. This paper is aimed at one of the desirable qualities of good teachers, i.e. support which they offer their students.

The theoretical framework of *teachers' support* to students can be found in two theories. The first is Bowlby's Theory of Attachment (1969) which indicates the child's need for attachment in order to develop a sense of security; in the beginning, attachment to his or her mother, but also father, grandfathers, grandmothers, friends, teachers. By applying the attachment theory on school conditions, a teacher is seen as a caring person who can provide students with a safe starting point in exploring the world which surrounds them and encourage their involvement in active learning (Birch & Ladd, 1997). The second theory that explains the teachers' support is the Self-Determination Theory (SDT) by Deci and Ryan (1985). They point out that the fulfilment of the three needs (need for competency, autonomy and social cohesion) leads to self-motivation and mental health. Considering the teachers' support in the context of Self-Determination Theory, the focus is on motivating students for the purpose of developing interest and increasing the capacity of research in classes, as well as learning (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

The importance of the students' perception of the teachers' support is that this assessment reflects on motivation and effort of the students (Ryan & Deci, 2001). The students' estimates are not used enough even though the research does suggest them to be reliable. Students, who feel that teachers appreciate them, develop their creativity, support their intellectual curiosity, take care of their progress and well-being, feel safe and are willing to invest effort in achieving the expected learning outcomes and behaviour. Teachers are unaware of providing different support to students, which actually results in them giving more attention to boys (Sadker & Sadker, 1986). They more frequently interact with boys in class by asking them more questions than they ask the girls, reprimanding them and paying attention to them (Younger & Warrington, 1996). The inconsistency of the results on teachers' support with regard to students' gender, as well as the fact that more support is given to girls, can be found in the works of other authors (Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Gest et al., 2005). On the other hand, some authors do not find statistically significant differences (De Witt et al., 2011; Klasnić, 2014).

This subject, establishing cooperation between the students and teachers' support has stimulated numerous studies, both in our country and in the world. The aim of this study was to investigate the students' assessment of the cooperation in the classroom and the support provided by teachers in Croatian language classes, Mathematics and Geography classes, as well as gender and age differences in the students' assessments.

2. Methodology

The study included 650 students, 306 sixth-grade and 344 eighth-grade students in eleven primary schools in Sisak-Moslavina County (Republic of Croatia). The sample consisted of 319 male students (49.08%) and 331 female students (50.92%). The survey was conducted in March 2015.

The survey was conducted in groups during one school period, having previously obtained the consent of a parent or a guardian. Before starting the survey, the students were explained the purpose of the research and the process of filling in the questionnaire. Participation was voluntary and anonymous.

The first part of the questionnaire gathered basic demographic data about the students. The second part of the questionnaire consisted of two scales. *The Cooperation Scale* examined how students assess mutual cooperation and assistance among students. *The Teachers' Support Scale* united the statements that examine the extent to which teachers help students, trust them and are interested in students. Both scales were applied to the three class subjects: Croatian language, Mathematics and Geography. The scales were taken from a modified questionnaire *What Is Happening in This Class* (WIHIC) that has been developed by Fraser, Fisher and McRobbie (1996). The Cooperation scale consisted of seven statements, and the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients in this study amounted to $\alpha = 0.748$ for Croatian language, $\alpha = 0.841$ for Mathematics and $\alpha = 0.839$ for Geography. The Teachers' Support scale consisted of eight statements. Cronbach alpha coefficients amounted to $\alpha = 0.872$ for Croatian language, $\alpha = 0.920$ for Mathematics and $\alpha = 0.920$ for Geography. The examples of statements on each scale are listed in Table 1.

Table 1. The examples of statements on the Cooperation and Teachers' Support scale

Scale	Examples of statements
Cooperation	When I work on an assignment, I share my materials with other students.
	I learn from other students in class.
Teachers' Support	The teacher gives his/her best to help me.
	The teacher monitors my progress.

The students' task was to assess the level of agreement with each statement on the Likert scale wherein the degree of agreement varied from 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (completely agree). The students evaluated the same statements for each school subject. The results for every scale were formed so that the sum of rounded answers was divided by the number of statements. A higher score on the scale indicated a higher

assessment of cooperation among students and a higher assessment of teachers' support in Croatian language classes, Mathematics and Geography classes.

3. Results

Descriptive values of the Cooperation and Teachers' Support scale for each subject are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive values of the subscales

<i>Subscales</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Croatian language – Cooperation	3.45	4.42	4.09	0.64
Croatian language – Teachers' Support	3.38	4.27	4.00	0.81
Mathematics – Cooperation	3.55	4.31	4.01	0.83
Mathematics – Teachers' Support	3.41	4.22	3.95	0.96
Geography – Cooperation	3.51	4.32	4.11	0.76
Geography – Teachers' Support	3.31	4.10	3.85	0.98

As it can be seen in Table 2, among all scales, the highest value was achieved on the subscale of Geography – Cooperation ($M = 4.11$), while the lowest value was achieved in the subscale Geography – Teachers' Support ($M = 3.85$).

Using the analysis of variance, we wanted to check whether there are differences in *cooperation* among students in the subjects of Croatian language, Mathematics and Geography. A statistically significant difference among the subjects has been found [$F = (2/1296) = 7.84$; $p < 0.01$]. Since the difference among subjects was confirmed, we wanted to establish between which subjects was the difference statistically significant, so we conducted a t-test for dependent paired samples. The t-test for dependent samples points to a statistically significant difference in cooperation in the subject of Mathematics and the other two subjects (Mathematics – Croatian language: $t(649) = 3.54$; $p < 0.001$; Mathematics – Geography: $t(648) = 3.47$; $p < 0.001$). Students achieve a lower quality of cooperation in Mathematics classes than in Croatian language classes and Geography classes. The difference in the quality of cooperation in Croatian language classes and Geography classes has not been found ($t(648) = 0.63$; $p < 0.05$).

We conducted a test in order to determine if there is a difference in *teachers' support* which students receive in Croatian language classes, Mathematics classes and Geography classes. Analysis of variance for dependent samples on Teachers' support scale showed a statistically significant difference among the three class subjects [$F = (2/1296) = 9.08$; $p < 0.01$]. A difference has been found in the assessment

of the support that students receive from teachers of different school subjects so we were interested among which subjects there is a statistically significant difference. To test this, we conducted a t-test for dependent paired samples. The obtained results indicated that students receive a lower quality of teachers' support in the classes of Geography, in comparison to Croatian language classes and Mathematics classes (Croatian language – Geography: $t(649) = 4.26$; $p < 0.001$; Mathematics – Geography: $t(648) = 2.47$; $p < 0.05$). A statistically significant difference in teachers' support between the subjects of Croatian language and Mathematics has not been found: $t(648) = 1.36$; $p < 0.05$.

Furthermore, we were interested whether there are *gender differences* in the cooperation and support in all three school subjects so we conducted the t-tests for independent samples (Table 3). The results on the Cooperation scale in all three school subjects do not indicate the existence of gender differences. On the contrary, it has been found that there is a statistically significant difference in the support received by male and female students in Croatian language class: $t(648) = -3.39$, $p < 0.01$, and Geography class: $t(648) = -2.29$; $p < 0.05$. In both subjects, a higher teachers' support is received by female students. Therefore, it can be concluded that the attention and interest of teachers in Croatian language classes and Geography classes is mostly directed to girls rather than to boys. At the same time, the results indicate an equivalent teachers' support in Mathematics classes to both male and female students.

Table 3. Measurable characteristics of the Cooperation and Teachers' Support scale for each school subject by gender and t-tests for gender differences

Subscales	Gender	M	SD	t-test
CL cooperation	M	4.06	0.62	$t(648) = -1.32$ $p > 0.05$
	F	4.13	0.66	
CL support	M	3.90	0.82	$t(648) = -3.39$ $p < 0.01$
	F	4.11	0.78	
M cooperation	M	4.02	0.80	$t(648) = 0.27$ $p > 0.05$
	F	4.01	0.85	
M support	M	3.94	0.92	$t(647) = -0.32$ $p > 0.05$
	F	3.96	0.99	
G cooperation	M	4.07	0.71	$t(647) = -1.21$ $p > 0.05$
	F	4.15	0.81	
G support	M	3.76	1.00	$t(648) = -2.29$ $p < 0.05$
	F	3.93	0.95	

In order to determine the differences in the students' cooperation and the teachers' support in all three school subjects, with respect to students' age (sixth and eighth grade), we conducted tests for independent samples (Table 4). It has been found that there is an age difference in all subscales, except in teachers' support in Geography classes. In all cases, the sixth-grade students give a higher estimate of cooperation and support than the eighth-grade students.

Table 4. Measureable characteristics of the Cooperation and Teachers' Support scale for each school subject by gender and t-tests for age differences

<i>Subscales</i>	<i>Grade</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t-test</i>
CL cooperation	6	4.22	0.55	t (648) = 4.59 p < 0.01
	8	3.99	0.70	
CL support	6	4.19	0.69	t (648) = 5.83 p < 0.01
	8	3.84	0.87	
M cooperation	6	4.20	0.66	t (648) = 5.51 p < 0.01
	8	3.85	0.92	
M support	6	4.24	0.72	t (647) = 7.45 p < 0.01
	8	3.70	1.06	
G cooperation	6	4.20	0.71	t (647) = 2.67 p < 0.01
	8	4.04	0.80	
G support	6	3.92	0.95	t (648) = 1.81 p > 0.05
	8	3.78	1.00	

4. Discussion

This study was conducted in order to examine whether there are differences in cooperation among students and the support they receive from teachers in Croatian language, Mathematics and Geography classes. In addition, it was examined whether there are differences in cooperation and teachers' support with respect to gender and age of students (sixth and eighth grade).

After summarizing the results, it has been found that male students gave a statistically significant lower estimate of the quality of cooperation in Mathematics classes in comparison to cooperation which is achieved in Croatian language classes and Geography classes. Marušić (2006) points out that Mathematics, as a school subject, is considered to be uninteresting and less comprehensible, and is seen as the most difficult subject, which requires the most time and effort to prepare. Studies show a connection between negative attitudes and beliefs about Mathematics and

a bad self-image, which is reflected in students' poor results in Mathematics (Sherman & Christian, 1999). A lower estimate of the cooperation in Mathematics classes could partially be conditioned by the curricula; however, authors believe that this is precisely why more effort should be put in a better methodical design of the classes.

As for the provided support, students give the lowest estimate to Teachers' Support in Geography classes. The teachers' support to students is a crucial element for high-quality teaching (Bru et al., 2010), because those students who realise that they are receiving support are positively motivated for the class activities (Wentzel, 1997). The question arises as to whether the reason for this finding might be the way of teaching geography. In that case, if certain omissions were made during the initial education of teachers, it is necessary to invest more effort in improving their pedagogical, didactical, and methodological competencies through permanent training, with the aim of improving the quality of the teaching process. Although the study included 11 primary schools, it should be noted that due to a relatively small number of weekly hours of Geography, the number of teachers participating in the study was not large ($n = 16$) and cannot in any case be considered representative. Besides, assessments for each subject are still relatively high (above the average value of three) and this difference between the estimates for Geography teachers and teachers of other subjects, although statistically significant, is not substantial in its absolute size.

Gender differences were found on the subscales Teachers' Support – Croatian language and Teachers' Support – Geography, with girls giving a higher estimate of the quality of support than boys. The reason behind this could be that girls are more sensible and focused on establishing social relationships, not only with peers, but also with their teachers. Geography and Croatian language are school subjects in which communication and interaction between student and teacher is very important because of the nature of class content. Therefore, the support of the teachers becomes even more important. In Mathematics classes, male and female students estimate that they get equal support from teachers. Results of other researchers on gender differences in assessing teachers' support are not consistent. Some authors state that girls give a higher estimate of teachers' support than boys (Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Gest et al., 2005), while others do not confirm gender differences in teachers' support (De Wit et al., 2011; Bru et al., 2010; Klasnić, 2014). The obtained results could be used by teachers to become aware of the need of real self-evaluation of their relationships towards boys and girls and, if necessary, correction of the support in terms of providing more support to boys. At any time of a class, boys and girls should receive a message from their teacher that they are appreciated as a person, regardless of their gender. Gender differences have not been found in the Cooperation scale in any of the three subjects.

The sixth-grade students gave a higher estimate on all subscales in comparison to the eighth-grade students, except on the Teachers' Support – Geography scale. According to the results, it is evident that the younger students consider that they achieve better cooperation in Croatian language, Mathematics and Geography classes than the

eighth grade students. Developmental characteristics of younger students could affect their willingness to cooperate, with the tendency of older students to have greater independence and autonomy in cooperative learning.

Lower estimation of teachers' support towards older students is also reported by Bru et al. (2010) and Klasnić (2014). Our findings indicate that the eighth-grade students perceive Teachers' Support as low in Croatian language and Mathematics classes, but in Geography classes, the age difference has not been found. Curricula for Croatian language and Mathematics might be harder and less interesting for students than curricula for Geography, so they expect more support from teachers, however, they think that they are not receiving it. Furthermore, final grades of Croatian language and Mathematics in the eighth grade are an essential element for enrolment in any secondary school in Croatia, while a grade in Geography is only evaluated in some schools. This is possibly the reason why grades in Croatian language and Mathematics are important to all students, and grades in Geography only to some.

Dissatisfaction of students with the final grade in Croatian language and Mathematics might be reflected in lower estimates of the Teachers' Support. A possible explanation of a low estimate of the older students might emerge in the students' resentment against authority, including teachers. In his research, Hlawaty (2009) also points out that younger participants (13 years old) are more focused on authority and are therefore motivated by teachers and parents, as opposed to the older students (15 and 17 years old). Teachers perhaps knowingly provide less support to older students, expecting eighth-grade students to be more independent than sixth-grade students. As for Geography, since the Teachers' Support received the lowest estimation among all subscales, it can be assumed that the age difference did not stand out.

Despite the fact that the research was conducted on a large sample that included 11 schools in Sisak-Moslavina County, the number of teachers who teach these students is not substantial (about 15 teachers for each subject). In forthcoming studies, it should be examined whether the results would be the same in other counties. Moreover, it would be interesting to examine the assessment of students in secondary schools, and whether the age and gender differences in cooperation and teachers' support are even lower or there might be some positive developments.

5. Conclusion

In this paper we tried to highlight the issue of cooperation and teachers' support in Croatian language, Mathematics and Geography classes among sixth-grade and eighth-grade students of 11 primary schools. The results indicate differences in the assessment with regard to different subjects, gender and age of the participants. As for cooperation, we believe that it is necessary to encourage cooperation among students as early as possible, already in pre-school institutions, so that the activity of

joint action could develop longer and more successfully. Also, cooperation among teachers should be evident to students in order to show the students a good model of co-existence and co-working.

The support that teachers provide their students in terms of facilitating their work and progress, being interested in their personality, implementing adequate educational and social-emotional support, is an important segment of the effective, modern and contemporary teaching. It is a necessary condition for achieving humane goals of teaching. As it turns out, students believe that the support is not distributed equally regarding gender or age.

The results of this study justify the consideration of students' perspective of cooperation and teachers' support in primary schools. If we want to get a better and deeper insight in the complex structure of relationships within the classroom, it is necessary to consider the students' point of view as well. It is a starting point in increasing the students' motivation, their satisfaction with school, achieving better and higher-quality results, but also the improvement in teachers' work. Therefore, we need encouraging teachers who will develop the desire for discovering new things, perseverance in reaching an objective, creativity, various competencies, the ability of sophisticated communication, mutual respect and individual development in our students.

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Ocena sodelovanja učencev in podpore učiteljev – perspektiva učencev

Sodobni pouk domneva aktivno učenje, afirmiranje potenciala učencev, izmenjava informacij in izkušenj, razvoj specifičnih interesov in ustvarjalnosti, komunikacijo in medsebojno interakcijo, tako med učenci kot tudi med učenci in učitelji (Bognar in Matijević, 2002; Previšić, 2005). Sodelovanje je kolektivno delo pri doseganju skupnih ciljev (Johnson in Johnson, 1999). Sodelovanje, kot eno od bistvenih dimenzij učinkovitega poučevanja poudarjajo številni avtorji, čeprav v njihovih razpravah o razlogih, načinih in pogojih za njegovo izvajanje najdemo nasprotujoča mnenja (Johnson idr., 2013; Rohrbeck idr., 2003; Sharan, 2002; Slavin, 2015). Od predšolske vzgoje pa vse do visokošolske izobrazbe obstaja možnost in upravičenost za uporabo sodelovalnega učenja. Teoretični okvir za sodelovalno učenje najdemo v delih Kurta Koffke, ki je eden od ustanoviteljev gestalt psihologije, in kaže na dejstvo, da so skupine dinamične celote, v katerih obstajajo različne soodvisnosti med člani. Številni raziskovalci so se ukvarjali s preučevanjem sodelovanja, Johnson in Johnson (2009) omenjata okoli 1200 raziskav, ki so bile izvedene v zadnjih 110 letih, in poudarjata, da je v približno 65% raziskovanj dokazana učinkovitost sodelovalnega učenja.

Odnos med učencem in učiteljem je predmet številnih raziskovanj ter se z njimi želi pojasniti povezava z akademskimi dosežki (Valiente idr., 2008), družbenim delovanjem učencev (Ladd idr., 1999), sprejemom v razredu (Wentzel, 1994), sodelovanjem v učnih

dejavnostih (Skinner idr., 1990), vedenjskimi težavami (Graziano idr., 2007). Seznam lastnosti, ki bi jih moral imeti kakovosten učitelj je dolg, hkrati pa jih znanstvena literatura razvršča na različne načine, ponuja obsežnejše ali bolj jedrnate preglede. S tem prispevkom smo se usmerili na eno bolj zaželenih kakovosti dobrega učitelja, podporo, ki jo daje svojim učencem. Teoretični okvir podpore učiteljev učencem najdemo v Bowlbyjevi teoriji navezanosti (1969) ter v teoriji samoodločbe (Self-Determination Theory – SDT) Decija in Ryana (1985). Pomembnost učenčevega zaznavanja učiteljeve podpore je v tem, da se njihova ocena nanaša na motivacijo in napor učencev (Ryan in Patrick 2001). Ocene učencev se ne uporabljajo dovolj, čeprav raziskovanja kažejo na njihovo zanesljivost.

Doseganje sodelovanja med učenci in podpora učiteljev sta spodbudila številna raziskovanja pri nas in v svetu. Cilj tega raziskovanja je bil raziskati oceno sodelovanja v razredu in podane podpore učiteljev pri pouku hrvaškega jezika, matematike in geografije z vidika učencev ter razlike v ocenah učencev glede na spol in starost.

V šolskem letu 2014/2015 smo izvedli raziskavo na vzorcu 650 učencev šestih in osmih razredov v enajstih osnovnih šolah v Sisačko-Moslavački županiji na Hrvaškem. Vprašalnik je sestavljen iz dveh lestvic – Sodelovanje in Podpora učitelja.

Z lestvico Sodelovanje smo raziskovali oceno sodelovanja in pomoči med učenci. Lestvica Podpora učiteljev je združevala trditve, s katerimi je smo ugotavljali v kolikšni meri učitelji pomagajo učencem, jim verjamejo in se zanje zanimajo. Obe lestvici sta bili uporabljene pri treh učnih predmetih: hrvaški jezik, matematika in geografija. Lestvici smo prevzeli iz modificiranega vprašalnika *What Is Happening in This Class (WIHIC)*, ki so ga razvili Fraser, Fisher in McRobbie (1996). Lestvica Sodelovanje zavzema 7 trditev, Cronbach alpha koeficienti zanesljivosti pa v raziskovanju za hrvaški jezik znašajo $\alpha = 0,748$, za matematiko $\alpha = 0,841$ ter za geografijo $\alpha = 0,839$.

Z lestvico Podpora učiteljev smo zajeli 8 trditev. Cronbach alpha koeficienti za vsaki predmet posebej znašajo: za hrvaški jezik $\alpha = 0,872$, matematiko $\alpha = 0,920$, geografijo $\alpha = 0,920$. Naloga učencev je bila oceniti stopnjo strinjanja z vsako trditvijo na lestvici Likertovega tipa, pri čemer je stopnja strinjanja variirala od 1 – sploh se ne strinjam do 5 – popolnoma se strinjam. Učenci so ocenjevali enake trditve za vsakega od treh navedenih učnih predmetov. Rezultati za vsako lestvico so bili pridobljeni tako, da smo seštevek zaokroženih odgovorov delili s številom trditev. Višji rezultat na lestvici kaže na višjo oceno sodelovanja med učenci oziroma podpore učiteljev pri pouku hrvaškega jezika, matematike ali geografije.

Med vsemi lestvicami je najvišja vrednost bila dosežena na lestvici Sodelovanje – geografija ($M = 4,11$) medtem ko je najnižja vrednost bila dosežena na lestvici Podpora učiteljev – geografija ($M = 3,85$). S *t*-testom za odvisne vzorce smo potrdili statistično pomembno razliko v sodelovanju pri pouku matematike in preostalih dveh učnih predmetov, in sicer matematika – hrvaški jezik: $t(649) = 3,54$; $p < 0.001$; matematika – geografija: $t(648) = 3,47$; $p < 0.001$. Učenci dosegajo nižjo kakovost sodelovanja pri pouku matematike kot pri pouku hrvaškega jezika in geografije. Razlik v kakovosti sodelovanja pri pouku hrvaškega jezika in geografije nismo odkrili: $t(648) = 0,63$; $p > 0,05$. Z analizo

variance za odvisne vzorce na lestvici Podpora učiteljev je bila ugotovljena statistično pomembna razlika med tremi učnimi predmeti [$F = (2/1296) = 9,08; p < 0,01$]. Rezultati kažejo, da učenci dobijo nižjo kakovost podpore učiteljev pri pouku geografije kot pri pouku hrvaškega jezika in matematike (hrvaški jezik – geografija: $t(649) = 4,26; p < 0,001$; matematika – geografija: $t(648) = 2,47; p < 0,05$). Pri hrvaškem jeziku in matematiki na lestvici Podpora učiteljev statistično pomembnih razlik ni bilo: $t(648) = 1,36; p > 0,05$.

Rezultati na lestvici Sodelovanje pri pouku pri vseh treh učnih predmetih ne kažejo na pomembnost razlik glede na spol. Hkrati pa smo ugotovili, da obstaja statistično pomembna razlika pri Podpori učiteljev, ki jo dobijo učenci in učenke pri pouku hrvaškega jezika: $t(648) = -3,39, p < 0.01$ in geografije: $t(648) = -2,29; p < 0.05$. Pri obeh učnih predmetih namreč večjo podporo dobijo učenke. Glede na dobljene rezultate lahko sklepamo, da sta pozornost in podpora učiteljev pri pouku hrvaškega jezika in geografije v večji meri usmerjena na dekleta kot na fante, pri pouku matematike pa rezultati kažejo, da enakovredno podporo učiteljev dobijo učenci obeh spolov.

Prav tako smo ugotovili, da obstaja starostna razlika na vseh podlestvicah razen na podlestvici Podpora učiteljev pri pouku geografije. V vseh navedenih primerih učenci šestih razredov ocenjujejo sodelovanje in podporo z višjimi ocenami kot učenci osmih razredov.

Če povzamemo, učenci so statistično pomembno nižje ocenili kakovost sodelovanja pri pouku matematike kot sodelovanje, ki se izvaja pri pouku hrvaškega jezika in geografije. Nižja ocena sodelovanja pri pouku matematike bi lahko delno bila pogojena z učnimi vsebinami, vendar avtorji menijo, da je treba okrepiti prizadevanja v boljši metodični zasnovi učne ure.

Glede podane podpore učencem, je najnižje bila ocenjena podpora učiteljev pri pouku geografije. Podpora učitelja je ključni element za kakovostno poučevanje (Bru in sodelavci, 2010) ker so tisti učenci, ki ocenjujejo, da so dobili podporo učitelja, pozitivno motivirani za učne dejavnosti (Wentzel, 1997).

Razlike med spoloma so bile ugotovljene na podlestvicah Podpora učiteljev – hrvaški jezik in Podpora učiteljev – geografija, kjer so na teh podlestvicah dekleta ocenila višjo kakovost podpore kot fantje. Rezultati raziskovanja ostalih avtorjev o razlikah glede na spol v oceni podpore učiteljev niso konsistentni. Del avtorjev navaja, da dekleta ocenjujejo višjo raven podpore učiteljev kot fantje (Furrer in Skinner, 2003; Gest idr., 2005), drugi avtorji medtem ne potrjujejo razlik med spolom pri podpori učiteljev (De Wit idr., 2011; Bru idr., 2010; Klasnić, 2014). Pridobljene rezultate, bi lahko učitelji uporabljali za zavedanje potrebe realne samoocenitve razmerja podpore fantom in dekletom in, če je treba, korigirali podporo v smislu zagotavljanja večje podpore fantom.

Učenci šestih razredov so dali višje ocene na vseh podlestvicah, razen na podlestvici Podpora učiteljev – geografija, kot učenci osmih razredov. Glede na rezultate je razvidno, da mlajši učenci menijo, da dosegajo kakovostnejše sodelovanje pri pouku hrvaškega jezika, matematike in geografije, kot so to ocenili učenci osmih razredov. Razvojne značilnosti učencev bi lahko vplivale na pripravljenost mlajših učencev na sodelovanje, težnja starejših učencev pa na večjo neodvisnost in avtonomijo pri sodelo-

valnem učenju. Možnost pojasnitve nižje ocene starejših učencev se lahko opazi tudi pri odporu učencev proti avtoriteti, ki vključuje učitelje.

Kljub dejstvu, da je raziskovanje izvedeno na velikem vzorcu, ki je vključeval učence 11 šol v Sisačko-Moslavački županiji, število učiteljev, ki poučujejo te učence, ni veliko (približno 15 učiteljev za vsak učni predmet). V prihodnjih raziskavah bi bilo moč preveriti, ali ti rezultati veljajo tudi za šole v drugih županijah. Prav tako bi bilo zanimivo preučiti kakšne so ocene učencev v srednjih šolah, ali so starostne razlike in razlike med spoloma glede sodelovanja in podpore učiteljev še nižje ali pa bi morda prišlo do pozitivnih premikov.

Rezultati raziskave tako kažejo na upravičenost premišljanja perspektive sodelovanja učencev in podpore učiteljev v osnovni šoli. Če želimo boljše in globlje razumeti kompleksno strukturo razmerij znotraj razreda, je treba upoštevati stališče učencev. To je izhodišče za zvišanje motivacije učencev, zadovoljstva s šolo, za doseganje boljših in kakovostnejših rezultatov učenja, in, nenazadnje, izboljšanje dela učiteljev.

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Developing research competence in pre-service teacher education

Znanstveni članek

UDK 378.6:37+001.8

KLJUČNE BESEDE: prihodnji učitelji, raziskovalno delo učiteljev, raziskovalna kompetenca, izobraževalni kontekst, strokovni razvoj

POVZETEK – Prispevek opisuje, kako sistem izobraževanja prihodnjih učiteljev v Sloveniji in na Kosovem podpira razvoj koncepta “učitelj raziskovalec”. Podatki so bili pridobljeni na vzorcu magistrskih študentov pedagoških študijskih programov v obeh državah. Podatki so bili zbrani z vprašalnikom z odprtimi vprašanji, ki so ga izpolnili študenti, na začetku izvajanja predmeta, namenjenega vsebinam s področja raziskovanja. Analiza podatkov temelji na induktivnem pristopu kodiranja in oblikovanja kategorij. Raziskava je pokazala, da je obstoječi sistem izobraževanja prihodnjih učiteljev usmerjen predvsem k poznavanju raziskovalnega procesa, manj pa k razumevanju smiselnosti raziskovalnega dela. Najmanj pozornosti se namenja motiviranju prihodnjih učiteljev za ukvarjanje z raziskovalnim delom in razumevanju prednosti, ki jih prinaša raziskovalno delo. Sporočilo raziskave je, da mora biti razvoj raziskovalne kompetence v izobraževanju prihodnjih učiteljev umeščen v širši kontekst, s ciljem izobraziti učitelje, ki znajo in so motivirani za ustvarjanje novega znanja v sodelovanju s kolegi, izobraževanje pa mora potekati v okolju, ki spodbuja izvajanje smiselnih in uporabnih raziskav.

Scientific paper

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KEYWORDS: pre-service teachers, teacher research, research competence, education context, professional development

ABSTRACT – This paper presents how the pre-service teacher education in Slovenia and Kosovo supports the development of the “teacher researcher” concept. The sample for our study consisted of students undertaking the Master’s level studies in Education in both countries. Data were collected through an open ended questionnaire when the students started attending the Master’s study programme’s course in research work. The analysis is based on the inductive method of data coding and forming categories. The study reveals that the current education system for future teachers is more oriented towards the processes of research work, and puts less focus on its purposes. The least attention is paid on motivating pre-service teachers to get involved in research work, as well as to the teachers’ understanding of the research work benefits. The study concludes that developing the teachers’ research competence at pre-service level should be seen from a broader perspective with the aim of educating teachers to become empowered, skilled and committed to creating new knowledge collaboratively with their peers. Nevertheless, the training should be organised in an environment that enables and demands the teachers to be engaged in performing purposeful and applied research.

1. Introduction

There is sufficient evidence that teacher research can be a powerful factor in the lives of teachers. Teacher researchers report learning more about their students, their schools, and about themselves, using this knowledge to modify their practice, to feel more professional, and to engage “authentically” with the profession of teaching in a

new way (Berger, Boles & Troen, 2005). A great impetus for the development of the “teacher as a researcher” movement was the work of David Schön (See: *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action* (1983), and *Educating the Reflective Practitioner* (1991)). The discourse of the reflective practitioner emphasises the particular skills needed to reflect constructively upon ongoing experience as a way of improving the quality and effectiveness of one’s work. The discourse encourages teachers to take into account the whole picture – analysing the effectiveness of a lesson or series of lessons through an attempt to evaluate what was learned, by whom, and how more effective learning might take place in the future. As such, it involves careful evaluation by teachers of their own classroom performance, planning, assessment, in addition to and in conjunction with evaluations of pupils’ behaviour and achievement. It also implies a sound understanding on the teacher’s part of relevant educational theory and research (Moore, 2007).

Teacher research is also seen as an important factor in promoting teachers’ professional development. Teachers’ professional development is a lifelong process in which teachers constantly acquire new knowledge, develop new skills and competences and they move towards a better quality of teaching performance and other professional work in the school. This process includes teachers’ individual, professional and social dimension, and it also means the teachers’ progress towards the direction of critical, independent, responsible decision-making and acting (Vogrinc & Valenčič Zuljan, 2009).

Practitioner research can be seen as an attempt to link teaching and research so that they are no longer dichotomous activities (Cole & Knowles, 2004). It can be defined as a process in which the teachers evaluate their own pedagogical work and the effects and processes linked to teaching in a managed, systematic, controlled (with clearly stipulated criteria) and critical manner, by means of the strategies, methods and techniques of pedagogical research (Seberová, 2010). It is essential that the practitioner research is conducted by teachers who work in practice, and that it is conducted in accordance with the standards of scientific research. Practitioner research involves “systematic, intentional inquiry by teachers about their own school and classroom work” (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993, pp. 23–24). This definition of practitioner research excludes practical, often ad hoc and unsystematic reflection in schools as a way of generating local practical solutions to immediate practical problems. Practitioner research is a “method of obtaining critical insight into a problem experienced in the real world and of solving that problem, in order to learn from the experience to future action. The method used should be systematic, and critical insight should – also – be obtained by using theory” (Lunenberg et al., 2007, p. 15).

In order for teachers to commit to research, it is vital that already during their pre-service education they become aware that research of educational practice is one of the instruments for establishing and ensuring the quality of this practice, that they recognise research as an important factor of the professional conduct of teachers, and that they should be educated for conducting research even as a part of their routine

job. It is therefore essential for student teachers to develop basic understanding of research and to gain their first specific experience in research work in order to frame their development of the concept of practitioner or teacher research.

During the recent years, the pre-service teacher education in Slovenia and Kosovo has upgraded the requirement of qualification for teachers, i.e. the Master's degree in education. This has been an attempt to raise the standard for professionalism of teachers overall, including the efforts to require higher standards of teacher performance in the in-service sector as well. This study is conducted as the part of a cooperation project, called "Modernizing Teacher Education at the University of Prishtina", funded by the European Commission, between the Kosovo Faculty of Education (University of Prishtina) and Slovenian Faculty of Education (University of Ljubljana). It was an attempt to reform teacher education including the advancement of the teacher professionalism in Kosovo. The purpose of the project was also to advance the quality of research skills training for pre-service teacher education in Kosovo. As such, discussions and comparisons between the teacher educators teaching research courses were performed and the course delivery was harmonized in both contexts. Given the participants in this study were the Master's level students, the aims of the research course included the attempts to

- expose the students to understanding the principles and processes of conducting research;
- understanding the relevance of conducting research for teacher practice, and
- providing students with the opportunity to practice the skills of conducting a research project by including more advanced analysis and sophisticated designs.

The research courses at the Bachelor's level in both contexts were aimed at qualifying students to understand the processes (data collection steps and tools) and the relevance of conducting research (why the research is performed and how good research problems are formulated), as well as to apply basic statistical analysis and qualitative data analysis. Participants in this study had all taken a research course at the Bachelor's level and at the time of data collection, they all started the Master's level course.

2. The broader framework of understanding teacher development realities

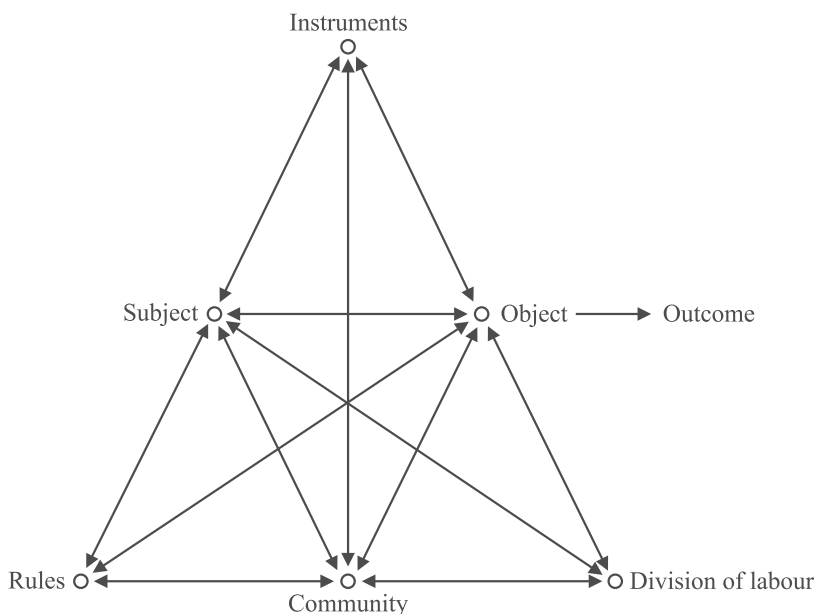
The theoretical approach used in this study can be framed along the lines of the Common European Principles of Teacher Competencies and Qualifications (2005) which emphasise competencies of "working with the knowledge", "working with others", and "working in and with the society". These principles represent a driving

force in ensuring that teachers are trained to be able to challenge the requirements demanded by the profession, as well as to meet the demands that derive from the societal developments.

There have been various ongoing discussions in the literature about the new modalities of teacher development and the need to move towards the research-based teacher education (Niemi, 1996). The framework of understanding the development of teacher research for this study consists of the literature inputs in the dimension of cultural-historical activity theory, and levels of teacher change.

In the last decades, there has been a growing interest in the literature to examine the activities under the complex learning situations. The cultural-historical framework has been referred to in the literature as social constructivism, socio-cultural theory or activity theory, and as such it has been deemed a very useful framework for identifying the situational factors that influence learning and development (Yamagata-Lynch & Haudenschild, 2009). The Activity Theory Model (Figure 1) was developed by Engenstrom (2001) and it has further developed over several stages known as generations. The figure below (Figure 1) presents the second generation of the Activity Theory Model. It simply places the subject of study in interaction with the object and outcome, as well as the instruments available for development and rules applicable, the community the subject belongs to, the modalities of dividing the labour and responsibilities in the actual activity.

Figure 1. Activity theory model (Engenstrom, 2001)



Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002) elaborated a similar model of placing teacher learning as a result of interaction between four domains – external, personal, practical and a domain of consequence – with the idea that *external* dimension refers to the input on teacher learning (e.g. the training), *personal* refers to the Subject's (e.g. the teacher) characteristics of motivation, beliefs and commitment, where the *practical* dimension refers to the actual try-out of the learning and then seeing the *consequences* of the innovations that occur as a result of the learning. This model is oriented towards the process and steps of teacher learning rather than towards the contextual view of it. The Activity Theory Model was modified for the purposes of this study in order to make it more practical and to serve the purpose of examining the general realities and context of the particular issue being addressed (See Hollenweger 2015 for the modification of activity theory model). The modification of the model leads to grouping the Rules, Community and Division of Labour into a single category of Context in order to make the analysis more practical.

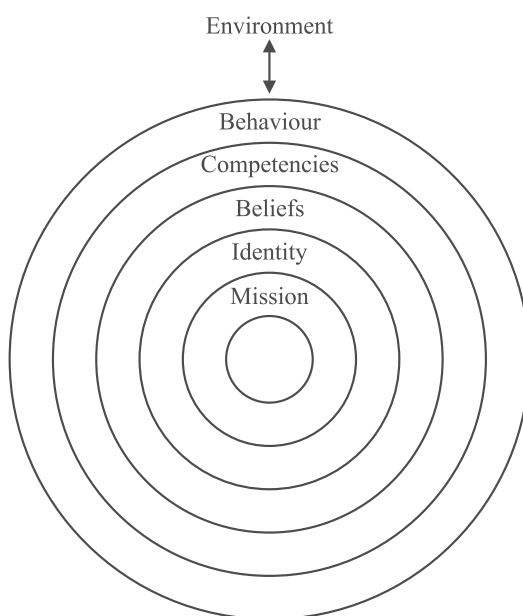
In the new modified version of the Activity Theory Model, “*Subject*” refers to the person or persons that is/are carrying out the activity. The activity is understood and analysed from his/her perspective (e.g. teacher educator or primary school teacher). The “*Object*” refers to the focus of the activity; it defines what the activity is directed towards. This can be another person, a problem, a topic or any physical object. The quality of the object will depend on the subject's understanding, attitude and experience as well as on the nature of the activity. “*Outcome*” refers to all wanted and unwanted results or impacts that are created as a result of carrying out an activity (e.g. achievement, failure). Outcomes are anticipated through statements of purpose or goals. “*Instruments*” (can be called otherwise as *Tools and Artefacts*) are physical and cognitive tools that are used to carry out the activity (e.g. text book, learning strategies, teacher education). “*Context*” refers to the characteristics of the social setting or environment in which the activity is carried out. This could refer to social values, beliefs, norms or to rules, but also to the climate in the classroom, the support given by peers or even broader context.

Understanding levels of teacher change

There are different levels of change when it comes to teacher change. Korthagen (2004) has developed a model of elaborating those levels and the ways it is connected to the work and broader environment where the teachers' work is embedded (Figure 2). Generally, education systems operate in such a way that the *environment* of teachers' work and the teacher *behaviours* are observed easily by others inside or even outside the system. Teachers in return, can very easily become aware of the environment they and their work are placed in. They can learn about the system policies, regulations and requirements placed on their work. They can also learn about the environment and culture of their school. On the other hand, the competences and beliefs of teachers can also be measured systematically, however, they are not neces-

sarily easily observed by others nor understood by teachers themselves. The latter is particularly true for beliefs. They are hidden and need to be explored.

Figure 2. The onion model of levels of change (Korthagen, 2004)



The performance of daily tasks in the classroom is usually connected with the level of *competences* in the first place. The term *competence* includes the level of knowledge and skills that are required within the domain of a particular ability to perform a task. When undergoing their training, the teachers (be it pre- or in-service teachers) immediately think of the competences or skills they need for conducting the work. This is why exposing pre-service and in-service teachers to the right competences for performing the role of the teacher in return remains a primary focus of teacher education.

The humanistic-based approach to teacher education is linked to the aspect of moving the thinking and practice to the level of teachers examining the beliefs, identity and mission of their work under the particular environment and context (Korthagen, 2004).

The focus of education systems has thus been placed on the efforts to study the teachers' skills, behaviours and competences that need to be developed in the pre-service and in-service teachers. The humanistic-based approach denied the claims that good teachers can be trained by only having teachers learn a number of pre-

defined competences, which could in fact be learned through short training programs (Korthagen 2004, p. 79). Hence, nowadays teachers are required to demonstrate more than the ability to act. Agency is more than action, indeed more than intentional action, it is also something that is experienced and the felt experience is significant for the individual and for an abstract conceptualisation of the phenomenon (Sullivan & McCarthy, 2004). This raises the demand to look at the dimensions of how teachers function within the school and its change context from a broader perspective.

As a *summary of the theoretical framework*, developing teachers' research skills and thinking at pre-service education should be examined by looking at the multi-dimensionality of the issue. Therefore, on the one hand, we examine the dimensions of teacher knowledge, skills and competences, overall beliefs, and identity of the subject being engaged in an activity, which is in this study presented as developing the concept of teacher as researcher at pre-service level.

On the other hand, the actual activity of developing teacher research should be examined in the broader framework of type and quality of the training pre-service teachers undergo (the dimension of instruments/tools and artefacts), the overall context and environment where this activity takes place, representing the context of teacher education.

Purpose and research questions

In general, teacher education reform in Slovenia and Kosovo followed the trends of raising the standards for qualifications of teachers (demanding Master's level qualification for teachers) as well as raising teacher professionalism bar (introducing teacher standards and expectations on professionalism). However, the question, whether the transition towards developing the desired teacher professionalism has been adequately resourced, professionally and administratively, remains, as well as whether pre-service teacher education is adequately planned and delivered to serve its purpose.

The purpose of this research is to identify the current status and challenges in introducing teacher practitioner research at pre-service education and the role of the wider context in transitioning towards a research-based teacher education.

More specifically, the study aims to answer the following research questions:

- What is students' understanding of the role of a teacher, of the definition of research, and the difficulties they face in research practice at this stage of their professional development?
- What are the challenges of developing teacher research during the pre-service education?
- What are the main factors that determine the development of teacher research in pre-service education?

3. Methodology

This study has a descriptive design (Mertler & Charles, 2004) as it is aimed at describing a general reality of how pre-service teachers understand teacher research at this stage of their development. The participants in this study were 57 student teachers undertaking the Master's level studies in Education at the University of Ljubljana and 53 student teachers undertaking the Master's level studies in Education at the University of Prishtina. All participants had some teaching experience and they had taken a prior introductory training on research skills at the Bachelor's level. Data were collected by an open ended questions survey.

The data analysis was performed by using the content analysis method by coding answers of participants (first step) and then following up with grouping codes into categories and drawing patterns (Matthews & Ross, 2004). The authors agreed to a standard coding scheme and they did the data analysis independently by eventually discussing the issues that were open for interpretation in order to come to a common arrangement for analysing the data.

4. Results and Discussion

The summary of the data analysis is presented in Table 1. The ordering of categories has been made based on the number of responses that were placed under each statement/category, hence the ordering also reflects the level of frequency, i.e. how many times each statement/category has appeared in the dataset.

The data are examined from the perspectives of pre-service teachers' need to be involved in an ongoing dialogue within themselves by addressing questions such as: Who am I as a teacher? What am I expected to do? Such questions are related to addressing the concept known as the teacher identity. The development of a professional identity has been defined as an ongoing and dynamic process which entails the making sense of and (re-)interpretation of one's own values and experiences that may be influenced by personal, social, and cognitive factors (Flores & Day, 2006, p. 220). In such a view, teacher education for research skills development needs to be planned in a manner enabling the participants to be involved in an ongoing review of their personal engagement with the research work and enabling the possibility of peer-cooperation in joint research tasks.

The study revealed that the differences in how the participants view the teachers' role are associated with the way they perceive the teacher research. In other words, we can conclude that the overall orientation of teachers towards their teaching role is a driver in determining the way teachers perceive the teachers' engagement in research.

Table 1. The summary of comparing teacher perceptions in Slovenia and Kosovo

	<i>Role of teachers</i>	<i>Defining research</i>	<i>Strengths in conducting research</i>	<i>Weaknesses in conducting research</i>
Slovenia	<p>Educational role (personal and social aspect)</p> <p>Educational role (transfer of knowledge, information)</p> <p>Motivating students</p> <p>Care for their own professional development</p> <p>Self-evaluation of school work</p> <p>Cooperation with parents, teachers and other institutions</p> <p>Administrative work</p>	<p>Research provides new insights, new information, explores the unknown topic that interested me</p> <p>Verifying hypothesis</p> <p>Research is the process of collecting the data (with interview, observation, survey, literature review) and making conclusions</p> <p>Formulation of the research problem, answering the research problem by using carefully designed research plan</p> <p>Research is the process of collecting the data, evaluation of our practical work with the aim to improve practice</p> <p>Connecting research with professional development</p>	<p>Review of the literature</p> <p>Ideas for research</p> <p>How to formulate hypothesis</p> <p>Interpretation of collected data</p> <p>Stages of the research process</p> <p>Prepare a questionnaire, an interview</p>	<p>Statistical analysis</p> <p>Drawing conclusions from the data</p> <p>Lack of practical experiences</p> <p>How to prepare the instruments (questionnaire)</p> <p>How to formulate the research problem</p> <p>How to formulate research questions, the hypothesis</p> <p>How to prepare a research plan</p> <p>Writing a research report</p>
Kosovo	<p>Educational role (transfer of knowledge, information)</p> <p>Motivating students</p> <p>Care for their own professional development</p> <p>Educational role (personal and social aspect)</p> <p>Cooperation with parents</p> <p>Administrative work</p> <p>Cooperation with teachers</p> <p>Cooperation with the Ministry, Cooperation with professional groups</p>	<p>A process of examining a problem through data collection and giving answers to questions</p> <p>Looking at problems in depth, pursuing new information and answering the unknown, studying issues of interest</p> <p>Formulating a research idea, analysing and making conclusions from the data</p> <p>Process of improving the reality in the ground</p> <p>Examining information</p>	<p>Formulating and refining the research problem</p> <p>Planning research</p> <p>Steps that need to be taken in research</p>	<p>Lack of practical experience</p> <p>Questionnaire design</p> <p>Data analysis and drawing conclusions</p> <p>Deciding on the sampling</p> <p>Interview design</p> <p>Lack of language skills to access broader literature</p>

Although the pre-service teachers in Slovenia look at the research activity elements in a more detailed way as the pre-service teachers in Kosovo, participants in both countries focus more on the processes of research work and less on the purposes of conducting research when defining what research means to them. When speaking about the meaning of research, they referred to the processes of undertaking certain steps to complete a task such as researching a problem of interest. The data reveals that participants place even less focus on the philosophical value of why teachers need to get involved in the research activity.

Another major topic revealed by the data in both countries, are the pre-service teachers' views on the need to be exposed to more practical experiences of the actual research activities during their training experiences. Such context of the lack of practical exposure to research steps leads to the superficial view of the research processes. From the perspective of the model developed by Clarke and Hollingsworth (2002), teacher education needs to make efforts (and provide the necessary time input) in making research training as practical as possible, enabling pre-service teachers examine the benefits of engaging themselves in learning about and conducting research.

In cases when such learning is obstructed, the inner contradictions in the learning framework should be examined. The inner contradiction that became obvious in this study occurred between the dimension of instruments and the context. The contradiction could have occurred due to the fact that pre-service education for research skills is embedded in a context, where the concept of practice-oriented and research-based teacher education is newly introduced and has to be embraced much more thoroughly by both teacher educators and pre-service teachers on the one hand, and demanded by the school culture while pre-service teachers transition to school life, on the other hand.

Developing teacher research is also understood as developing teacher identity – the way they feel about the particular task and issue. Teacher identity has become a common theme uniting previously divergent teacher research areas that share one or more basic assumptions about identity:

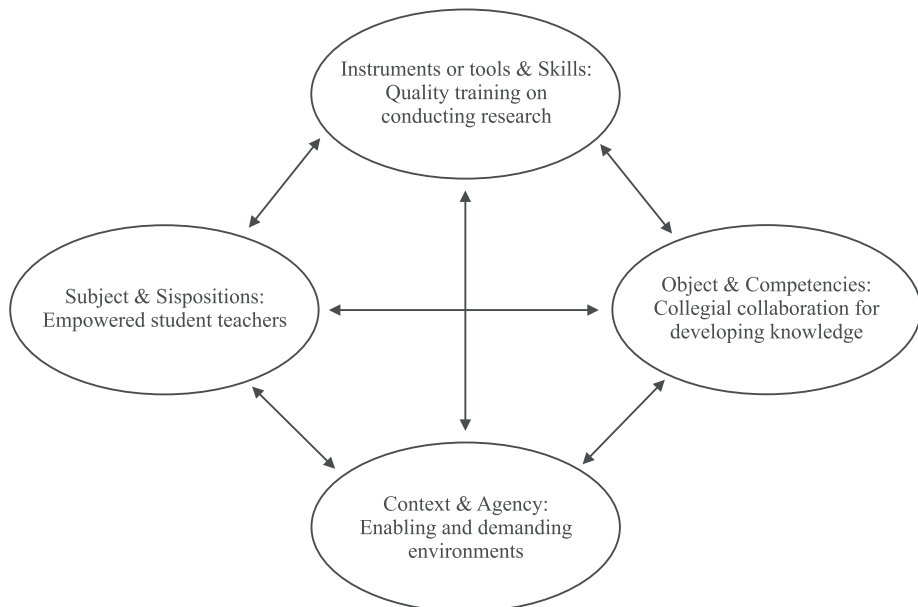
- identity is influenced by the context,
- identity is formed through the relationship,
- identity is changing, and
- identity involves the meaning-making (Rodgers & Scott, 2008).

Beijaard et al. (2004) consider the professional identity of teachers as being dynamic, consisting of sub-identities, involving agency and implying both person and context. The development of a teacher as a researcher in pre-service education should thus be planned and managed from the perspective that the research course's object and target are the development of the teacher's agency, the ability to perform the task in a specific context, as well as appropriately addressing the elements of personal dimensions of pre-service teachers engaged in the course, and that the course activities are planned collaboratively with peers.

5. Conclusion

This study has demonstrated commonalities and particularities of developing teacher research in the pre-service teacher education in Slovenia and Kosovo by outlining the importance of context and quality of pre-service teacher education and their impact on the level and quality of understanding teacher research. Figure 3 presents an outline of the model of developing teacher research at pre-service training. The model consists of the need to ensure empowered pre-service teachers, who are both committed and skilled in performing research work collaboratively with peers, and placing them in an enabling and demanding work environment. The quality of teacher work is determined not just by the quality of teachers, even though that is clearly very critical, but also by the environment in which they work (OECD 2005 as quoted by Day & Gu, 2010) which has showed to be an important factor in this research too. Among the prominent factors that influence the work of teachers, practice is the context in which their work is embedded (Day & Gu, 2010). The context reflects the work reality that the institutional values create in communication with the global developments and demands placed on the teachers' work.

Figure 3. The framework of developing pre-service teachers research competence



In this study, the context is understood as the circumstances in which student teachers are attending the training for developing research skills. Such circumstances

reflect the lack of direct experience in schools as they complete the Master's level studies, and the lack of possibilities for student teachers to be engaged in more practical and collaborative efforts with peers in conducting applied nature research tasks, which address the routine problems of teaching and increase the potential for empowering student teachers to engage in such research tasks.

In order to achieve the set objective (the research competence), teacher education in research should be seen as a continuum that starts at the Bachelor's level studies and continues at the Master's level studies, sustaining as the in-service education. However, teacher education in research should be tailored to school realities so that understanding the relevance and philosophical grounds of engaging in such activity is already nurtured at the pre-service level, rather than just developing the isolated understanding and skills for performing the narrow task.

Possibilities for pre-service teachers to conduct complex research projects on their own as course assignments are limited, while cooperation with peers would be one way of addressing that limitation with the view that joint projects would provide the opportunity to address the applicability issues, such as use of statistical analysis, issues in design and data analysis and interpretation, in much appropriate way and depth. It can be expected that pre-service teachers, who have gained positive experience and basic competences in research already during their studies, will be committed to increase their engagement during continuous professional development once they transition to school life. In the best case scenario, at that stage, they will already be aware of the benefits of acting as researcher of their own practice.

As an attempt to expand and deepen the research in this area, a further study of the provision and specifics of pre-service training should be conducted, most importantly, in terms of developing student perception of didactical and pedagogical training during pre-service teacher education and its correlation to the personal dimension of pre-service teachers, considering the strong links between them and their orientation towards the research work. In addition, this research implies the need to further examine the development of teacher research by examining the cross connections of the subject, instruments and context on one side, and the dispositions, skills, competencies and agency required for such work on another.

Dr. Blerim Saqipi, dr. Janez Vogrinc

Razvijanje raziskovalne kompetence v izobraževanju prihodnjih učiteljev

Obstaja veliko empiričnih dokazov, da je ukvarjanje z raziskovalnim delom pomemben dejavnik v strokovnem delovanju učiteljev. Učitelji, ki so se ukvarjali z raziskovalnim delom, so poročali o tem, da so na ta način bolje spoznali svoje učence, šolo, v kateri poučujejo, bolje so spoznali sebe kot učitelje, počutili so se bolj strokovne pri

svojem delovanju, lažje so se soočili z zahtevami sodobnega poučevanja, znanje, pridobljeno z raziskovalnim delom so uporabili pri spreminjanju svoje prakse ipd. (Berger, Boles in Troen, 2005).

Ukvarjanje z raziskovalnim delom je tudi pomemben dejavnik učiteljevega profesionalnega razvoja. Raziskovalno delo učiteljev definiramo kot proces, v katerem učitelji in drugi pedagoški delavci z raziskovalnimi pristopi, metodami in tehnikami na sistematičen, kontroliran (z jasno postavljenimi kriteriji) in kritičen način evalvirajo svoje pedagoško delo, rezultate, dosežke in postopke, ki so povezani s poučevanjem (Seberová, 2010, str. 167). Raziskovalno delo učiteljev lahko obravnavamo kot poskus povezave poučevanja in raziskovanja, s čimer to ne bi bili več dve ločeni, ampak povezani in dopolnjujoči se aktivnosti (Cole in Knowles, 2004).

V prispevku obravnavamo raziskovalno delo učiteljev v kulturno zgodovinskem kontekstu teorije aktivnosti (Engenstrom, 2001), ki velja kot zelo uporaben okvir za identificiranje situacijskih dejavnikov, ki vplivajo na učenje in razvoj (Yamagata-Lynch in Haudenschild, 2009).

Clarke in Hollingsworth (2002) sta oblikovala model, kjer je učenje učiteljev rezultat interakcije med štirimi domenami – zunanje, osebne, praktične in domene posledic. Zunanja dimenzija predstavlja vložek v učiteljevo učenje (kot je na primer izobraževanje), osebna predstavlja subjektive (npr. učiteljeve) lastnosti, kot so motivacija, prepričanja in predanost, praktična dimenzija pa predstavlja dejanski preizkus učenja, po katerem subjekt vidi posledice inovacij, ki nastanejo kot rezultat učenja.

V kolikor želimo, da se bodo učitelji ukvarjali tudi z raziskovalnim delom, je bistveno, da že v času svojega študija spoznajo, da je proučevanje pedagoške prakse pomemben dejavnik v procesu ugotavljanja in zagotavljanja kakovosti vzgojno-izobraževalnega dela in njihovega profesionalnega razvoja ter da je raziskovalno delo sestavni del njihovega vsakodnevnega delovanja.

Sistem izobraževanja prihodnjih učiteljev se je v Sloveniji in na Kosovem v zadnjih letih spremenil in za opravljanje pedagoškega poklica se zahteva magistrska stopnja izobrazbe. S tem so se tudi standardi izobraževanja prihodnjih učiteljev zvišali in v času študija naj bi pridobili tudi znanje s področja raziskovalnega dela, študijski programi pa naj bi bili bolj raziskovalno usmerjeni.

Namen empirične raziskave, v katero je bilo vključenih 57 študentov magistrske stopnje Pedagoške fakultete Univerze v Ljubljani in 53 magistrskih študentov iz Pedagoške fakultete Univerze v Prištini, ki se izobražujejo za prihodnje učitelje, je bil proučiti obstoječe stanje in izzive pri vpeljevanju koncepta učitelja raziskovalca v izobraževanju prihodnjih učiteljev.

Vsi udeleženci raziskave so imeli že na prvostopenjskem študiju predmet, pri katerem so obravnavali vsebine s področja pedagoške metodologije in statistike, znanje s področja raziskovanja so poglobili in razširili v okviru obveznega predmeta Metodologija znanstvenega raziskovanja na drugostopenjskem študiju, opravili pa so že tudi več tednov praktičnega usposabljanja v vzgojno-izobraževalnih inštitucijah.

Zastavljena so bila naslednja raziskovalna vprašanja:

- kako študenti razumejo vlogo učiteljev, kako definirajo raziskovanje in katere so težave, s katerimi se soočajo pri raziskovanju vzgojno-izobraževalne prakse na tej stopnji profesionalnega razvoja;
- kateri so izzivi pri razvijanju raziskovalne kompetence v času izobraževanja prihodnjih učiteljev;
- kateri so glavni dejavniki, ki določajo razvijanje raziskovalne kompetence prihodnjih učiteljev v času izobraževanja.

Podatki so bili zbrani s pomočjo vprašalnika z odprtimi vprašanji. Odgovori so bili analizirani z vsebinsko analizo, v prvem koraku so bili odgovori kodirani (uporabljeno je bilo odprto kodiranje), v drugem koraku pa so bile vsebinsko sorodne kode združene v kategorije (Matthews in Ross, 2004). Proces kodiranja in kategoriziranja odgovorov sta izpeljala avtorja prispevka, na osnovi sprotnega usklajevanja in opredeljevanja vsebinskih značilnosti posameznih kod in kategorij. Zaradi zagotavljanja večje notranje veljavnosti, so bili vsi odgovori analizirani dvakrat.

Pri analiziranju dobljenih podatkov smo izhajali iz koncepta učiteljeve identitete, ki je definiran kot kontinuiran in dinamičen proces, v katerem posameznik stalno (re)interpretira vrednote in predstave o svojem poklicu, na katere lahko vplivajo poleg izkušenj tudi osebni, socialni in kognitivni dejavniki (Flores in Day, 2006, str. 220). Prihodnji učitelji si morajo že tekom študija zastavljati vprašanja, kot sta: "Kdo sem jaz, kot učitelj?" in "Kakšne bodo moje delovne naloge?". V tem kontekstu mora biti izobraževanje prihodnjih učiteljev za raziskovalno delo organizirano sistematično, da bodo študenti že tekom študija lahko reflektirali svoje raziskovalne zmožnosti in da bodo imeli možnost pridobivanja prvih raziskovalnih izkušenj, npr. z izvajanjem raziskav na manjših vzorcih, v manjših raziskovalnih skupinah študentov.

Iz primerjave odgovorov študentov iz Slovenije in s Kosova o vlogi učitelja je razvidno, da slovenski študenti bolj poudarjajo vzgojno vlogo učitelja (skrb za osebni in socialni razvoj učencev), kosovski študenti pa vidijo učitelja bolj kot prenašalca informacij oz. znanja. Obe skupini študentov menita, da mora znati učitelj motivirati učence za učenje, skrbeti za svoj profesionalni razvoj, opravljati administrativne naloge, sodelovati s starši, učitelji in predstavniki drugih inštitucij. Slovenski študenti med pomembne naloge učitelja uvrščajo tudi samoevalvacijo šolskega dela, kosovski študenti pa sodelovanje z ministrstvom, pristojnim za šolstvo, in različnimi strokovnimi združenji.

Slovenski in kosovski študenti ocenjujejo, da so najbolj usposobljeni za načrtovanje empiričnih raziskav (stopnje raziskovalnega procesa), slovenski študenti pa v primerjavi s kosovskimi navajajo več področij, za katere ocenjujejo, da so dobro usposobljeni (npr. interpretacija zbranih podatkov, priprava tehnik zbiranja podatkov).

Obe skupini študentov si želita več znanja s področja statistične analize podatkov, oblikovanja zaključkov iz zbranih podatkov, oblikovanja instrumentov za zbiranje podatkov (vprašalnik, intervju) in več praktičnih izkušenj z izvajanjem raziskav. Slovenski študenti bi želeli še izpopolniti svoje znanje s področja načrtovanja raziskav (raziskovalni problem, vprašanja, hipoteze) in pisanja raziskovalnega poročila, kosovski stu-

denti pa s področja vzorčenja, želeli pa bi si tudi boljše znanje tujih jezikov, kar bi jim pomagalo pri proučevanju tuje literature.

Ugotovitve raziskave kažejo, da so razlike v tem, kako študenti definirajo raziskovalno delo učiteljev povezane s tem, kako vidijo vlogo učitelja na splošno. Pri definiranju raziskovalnega dela se študenti iz Slovenije in s Kosova osredotočajo predvsem na proces raziskovalnega dela (formuliranje raziskovalnega problema, raziskovalnih vprašanj, preverjanje hipotez, zbiranje podatkov, pri čemer je zaznati boljše poznavanje raziskovalnega procesa med slovenskimi študenti), manj pa na namen raziskovalnega dela, tj. kar naj bi z raziskovalnim delom dosegli (npr. redko se med slovenskimi in kosovskimi študenti pojavi povezava med raziskovalnim delom in izboljšavami v pedagoški praksi, povezava med raziskovalnim delom in profesionalnim razvojem učiteljev pa se pojavi le med slovenskimi študenti). Še manj pozornosti pa namenjajo vprašanju, zakaj bi se naj učitelji vključevali v raziskovalno dejavnost. Podatki obeh držav so pokazali skupno željo študentov po pridobivanju čim več praktičnih izkušenj s področja raziskovanja. Pomanjkanje praktičnih izkušenj lahko pripelje do površinskega razumevanja raziskovalnega procesa. Tudi model razvijanja raziskovalne kompetence, ki sta ga predlagala Clarke in Hollingsworth (2002), poudarja pomen praktičnih izkušenj, ki študentom omogočajo spoznati prednosti teoretičnega znanja o raziskovalnem delu in koristi izvajanja empiričnih raziskav za pedagoško prakso.

Raziskava je pokazala podobnosti in razlike pri razvijanju kompetence raziskovanja v izobraževanju prihodnjih učiteljev v Sloveniji in na Kosovem in pri tem izpostavila, kako kontekst in kakovost izobraževanja pomembno vplivata na nivo in kakovost razumevanja raziskovanja med študenti. Na podlagi ugotovitev je bil razvit model razvijanja kompetence raziskovanja v času študija. Model je sestavljen tako, da opolnomoči študente za raziskovalno delo v sodelovanju z drugimi študenti, kasneje, ko učitelji že začnejo opravljati svoj poklic, pa morajo biti vključeni v spodbudno delovno okolje, ki ceni raziskovalno delo. Kakovost učiteljevega dela ni namreč določena le s kakovostno izobraženostjo učiteljev, ampak tudi s kakovostjo okolja, v katerem učitelji poučujejo (Day in Gu, 2010) oz. s celotnim kontekstom delovanja. V raziskavi kontekst predstavljajo značilnosti študijskega programa, v okviru katerega študenti razvijajo tudi kompetenco raziskovanja. Študenti iz Slovenije in s Kosova o študijskem programu menijo, da imajo v času študija premalo praktičnega usposabljanja in premalo možnosti za izvajanje konkretnih raziskav, ki bi izhajale iz problemov, zaznanih v pedagoški praksi.

Za razvoj kompetence raziskovanja moramo prihodnjim učiteljem omogočiti kontinuirano izobraževanje s tega področja na prvostopenjskem in drugostopenjskem študijskem programu ter nadaljevati s tem izobraževanjem tudi, ko vstopijo v poklic, v okviru stalnega strokovnega spopolnjevanja. Izobraževanje pa mora biti zasnovano tako, da študenti ne bodo pridobivali le teoretičnega znanja s področja raziskovanja, ampak bodo že v času študija zaradi praktičnih izkušenj z raziskovalnim delom razumeli njegov pomen za kakovost pedagoške prakse. Pričakuje se, da bodo študenti, ki bodo v času študija imeli pozitivne izkušnje z raziskovalnim delom, z izvajanjem raziskav nadaljevali tudi, ko se bodo zaposlili v vzgojno-izobraževalni praksi.

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Evaluation of active learning in higher education teaching

Znanstveni članek

UDK 378.091.313

KLJUČNE BESEDE: aktivno učenje, visokošolsko izobraževanje, študenti, evalvacija

POVZETEK – Cilj študije je bil raziskati pedagoška načela in razvojne determinante aktivnega učenja ter kazalce kakovosti in učinkovitosti. Poudarek je bil na evalvaciji učenja in poučevanja pri seminarskih vajah iz Didaktike, ki je organizirana sodelovalno, vključenih pa je bilo 27 študentov študijskega programa Pedagogika. Namen je bil pridobiti vpogled v učinkovitost in determinante razvoja aktivnega učenja s formativno, diagnostično in sumativno evalvacijo (320 ocen). Rezultati so pokazali, da se aktivno učenje večinoma odraža v timskem delu in njegovem strukturiranju, v spodbujanju razvoja kritičnega mišljenja, ustvarjalnosti, radovednosti, v razvijanju refleksije in (samo)kritike, kot tudi v interesu za vsebino in uporabi naučenega. Upoštevali smo individualni pristop in dejstvo, da skoraj četrtina anketiranih študentov za aktivno sodelovanje potrebuje dalj časa in dodatne spodbude, vpetost in pobudo v razredu, kar pa je v pedagoški praksi pogosto prezrto ali celo zanemarjeno, čeprav dejansko predstavlja sestavni del izobraževalnega procesa.

Scientific paper

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KEYWORDS: active learning, higher education teaching, students, evaluation

ABSTRACT – The aim of the study was to explore the pedagogical principles and development determinants of active learning, and the indicators of its quality and effectiveness. It focuses on the evaluation of learning and teaching in Didactics seminar classes, organised on a cooperative basis with the participation of 27 students of undergraduate studies in Pedagogy. The intention was to gain an insight into the effectiveness of active learning and its development determinants with the formative, diagnostic and summative evaluation (320 assessments). The results showed that active learning was mostly reflected in teamwork and its structuring, in stimulating the development of critical thinking, creativity, curiosity, reflexivity and (self-) criticism, as well as in the preference of contents and applications of lessons learned. Individual approach was respected as well as the fact that nearly a quarter of the surveyed students need a longer time and additional incentives for active contribution, involvement and initiative in the classroom, which is often neglected in educational practice but actually an integral part of the educational process.

1. Introduction

The choice of teaching methods and strategies in higher education is an important determinant of contemporary education. Unlike the traditional learning methods, based on the transmission of knowledge, contemporary teaching methods allow for active involvement of students in the teaching process and its evaluation. It is still believed for the higher education teaching that it has to be of the so-called lecturing nature and that this actually reflects its higher scientific level. It even used to be con-

sidered that didactic knowledge applies only to schools, but not the college environment (Bognar, 2006, p. 7).

Knowledge has been rapidly becoming obsolete: new scientific information has been accumulating rapidly in all fields of science, and the students will be able to develop them further more optimally if they are trained for easy, fast, efficient and continuous learning. One of the prerequisites for such desirable development is putting students and their holistic development in the centre of the educational process, considering different needs, interests and development determinants of each individual, which requires continuous and formative evaluation of students' progress in the learning process. Formative evaluation includes all the participants in the educational process. In university teaching, these are mostly professors, their assistants and students. The analysis and evaluation of the teaching process provides for the improvement of its quality (Bognar & Matijević, 2002). In this context, Brown et al. (2003) emphasise the importance of creating a climate that will encourage students to reflect on the teaching process.

In addition to formative evaluation, Scriven (1966) emphasises the importance of summative evaluation in education. According to Bognar and Matijević (2002), summative evaluation involves the evaluation of educational achievements at the end of a given course, a teaching semester or a year. Summative evaluation rarely completely relies on the data collected by the qualitative research; nevertheless, the qualitative approach to summative evaluation does give the data a certain depth, detail, as well as refinement to the quantitative data.

The evaluation of active learning in higher education teaching, being the topic of this paper, indicates the unity of the processes of learning and teaching, their interdependence and complementarity. The overall education process, from the theoretical standpoints, is viewed as interactive communication with the key question: how to plan, model, implement, and evaluate teaching in which students will be as active as possible? This paper has tackled these challenges by evaluating the effects of active learning through 13 seminar sessions with students, organised in the winter semester of the academic year 2013/2014 in the Didactics (teaching methodology) seminar classes.

Active learning, set as an imperative of contemporary education, implies the knowledge of effective learning, critical thinking, and the creation of the need for learning as a lifelong and ongoing process. Although the benefits of active learning have been vastly proven and researched (Taylor, 2000; Nikčević-Milković, 2004; Machemer & Crawford, 2007; Cavanagh, 2011), traditional teaching is still prevalent in the educational practice.

Kyriacou (2001) points out that active learning involves activities in which the participants are provided a high degree of autonomy and control over the organisation and the course of activity. Such activities usually include problem solving and research, and can be individualised or expanded into collaboration. Previšić (2007) defines teaching as an organised process of active and partnership-like acquisition

of knowledge in institutional and non-institutional environment. This has been supported by the results of a number of studies, including the study conducted by Jurčić (2012), the results of which indicate insufficient participation of students in the lessons structuring.

Buljubašić-Kuzmanović (2007) also points out that there is still a lot of misunderstanding and mistrust in educational practice with regard to the teaching methodology concepts of experiential, problem, group and cooperative teaching that take integrative learning as a principle of action. Active learning in higher education teaching has been less researched in comparison to primary and secondary schools. Nevertheless, the research conducted has shown positive effects. In their research, Klarin (1998) and Nikčević-Milković (2004) concluded that students who learn in an active way express significantly higher satisfaction with teaching than those who are taught in a traditional way. Greene (1996) states that 90 of what one learns is the result of learning by experience which necessarily involves active participation of the individual.

As a phenomenon and a pedagogical concept, evaluation has always aroused the attention of various experts in the field of docimology (Jordan, 1953; Wrightstone et al., 1956; Pidgeon & Allen, 1974; Grounlund, 1985; Grounlund & Linn, 1990; Logar, 1990; Matijević, 2004). From the docimology and didactics point of view, it is important to conduct formative, normative and summative evaluations (Kyriacou, 2001). Experts also talk about the diagnostic evaluation, which overlaps with formative or diagnostic evaluation which specifically identifies learning difficulties. Likewise, both initial and summative evaluation are considered to be an integral part of formative evaluation, depending on which “initial” level of achievement the current achievement is assessed, and the differences at the beginning and at the end of the learning process.

Formative evaluation refers to the assessment of educational process, and summative evaluation refers to the assessment of educational achievements. Whereas the purpose of formative evaluation is to provide an opportunity for students/pupils to receive feedback on their progress (and is process oriented), the purpose of summative evaluation is to assign a grade and thereby rank the knowledge of the students/pupils (result oriented). More specifically, formative evaluation helps the students to identify their strengths, weaknesses and target areas that should be further developed. In the context of higher education, the above mentioned is pointed out by Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick (2006) whose research confirmed that in higher education, formative evaluation and feedback should be used to empower students as self-regulated students. It involves teaching in which students manage their learning and metacognitive processes including the self-regulation of the learning process, i.e. the modification of procedures in case of difficulty in achieving the set goals.

As the study included students of the third year of the double major study programme in Pedagogy and different teaching specialisations (History, Philosophy, Croatian Language and Literature, English Language and Literature, German Language and Literature), the learning was achieved through multidisciplinary, interdis-

ciplinary and transdisciplinary topics related to active teaching, in which different strategies of education were applied and their effects evaluated. The seminar topics were initially developed based on the start-off literature (Terhart, 2001; Marzano et al., 2005; Mattes, 2007), and were then further elaborated by the student leaders of individual topics with the help of the teaching assistant.

2. Methodology

Using formative, diagnostic and summative evaluation, the aim of this study was to explore the pedagogical principles and development determinants of active teaching, and the indicators of its quality and effectiveness. Deriving from the stated aim, the following research problems were defined:

- to conduct the formative, and, thereby, diagnostic evaluation of all the 13 topics of active learning discussed over 13 seminar sessions with students, and to compare the differences in the assessments given by the students, student leaders and the teaching assistant;
- to conduct the final evaluation of active teaching and analyse which of its principles, development guidelines, indicators of quality and efficiency were (in)sufficiently stimulated and developed during the learning process, as a roadmap for future work and learning.

The study included 27 students of the third year of the undergraduate double major study in Pedagogy at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences in Osijek. All students, student leaders and the teaching assistant assessed the teaching and learning process (formative evaluation) 13 times. Afterwards, the students gave one more assessment again at the very end of learning (summative evaluation). Altogether 320 assessments (256 by students, 27 by student leaders, 13 by the teaching assistant and 24 final assessments) were performed. The differences in the students' assessments with respect to gender were not taken into account as the sample consisted from predominantly female population.

For the purposes of this study, two questionnaires were designed (adapted in accordance with Tečić, 2006; Bezinović et al., 2010), one for the formative and another for the summative evaluation. The formative evaluation consisted of two scales: the first scale with a total of 15 items focused on the student leaders of each session – their skills, personal involvement and initiative in active learning and teaching. The other scale, with a total of six items, focused on the elements of active teaching (relevance, applicability, user-friendliness, transparency, coherence and personal contribution). The task of the students, student leaders and the teaching assistant was to evaluate the effects of active learning on a Likert-type scale from 1 to 6, where number one represented the smallest, minimal impact, and number six, the maximum impact. The summative evaluation consisted of four scales. The first focused on the assessment

of pedagogical principles of active learning (12 items), the second focused on the assessment of its development determinants (14 items), the third referred to the quality indicators (13 items), and the fourth to the effectiveness (14 items).

Same as in the formative evaluation, the students were asked to assess the effects of active teaching on a scale from 1 to 6. The aim of the final assessment was to get an answer to the question which determinants of active learning were “sufficiently” stimulated and developed in teaching, and which “insufficiently”, or which seek additional incentives. Due to the fact that the assessments of one and two at the scale of six degrees did not appear, in the final processing of the results, the assessments of three and four were taken as “insufficiently” and the assessments of five and six as “sufficiently” stimulated and developed. This more rigorous approach to summarising data was taken deliberately in order to obtain as clear a roadmap for further learning as possible.

The study was conducted at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences in Osijek, in the winter semester of the academic year 2013/2014, in the seminar classes in Didactics. The students were divided into thirteen pairs (in one group there were three students because they were a total of 27), and each pair managed one of the thirteen envisaged sessions. The learning approach consisted of three work phases: the theoretical framework of the topics, the practical assignment and the assessment. The resulting data are presented descriptively with the use of nonparametric statistics (absolute, relative and average values and their ranking).

3. Results and discussion

For the purposes of learning optimisation, the formative and diagnostic evaluation were integrated into the teaching process, and the summative evaluation was conducted at the end of the teaching and learning process. Table 1 presents the average assessments (M) given by the students (N = 15–25), student leaders (N = 2–3) and the teaching assistant of all the thirteen topics on active learning, obtained in the thirteen sessions, including the rankings of their effectiveness, according to the fifteen assessment criteria given.

As can be seen in Table 1, of the 13 topics on active learning and teaching, the one that was the most popular (rank 1) among the students was the last, thirteenth session with the topic *Superlearning and Megateaching* (M = 5.82). High average assessments were also achieved by the sessions ranked from the second to the fifth place, i.e. the topics *Learning to Learn* (M = 5.81), the *Choice of Teaching Methods Based on Research* (M = 5.73), *Integrative Learning* (M = 5.72) and *Focus on Students* (M = 5.55), with the assessments nearest to 6 on the scale of 1 to 6.

Table 1. Results of formative evaluation of active learning and teaching

Assessment criteria	Number of topic and (students)												
	M1 (25)	M2 (25)	M3 (24)	M4 (21)	M5 (17)	M6 (17)	M7 (21)	M8 (21)	M9 (19)	M10 (15)	M11 (15)	M12 (15)	M13 (21)
1. Topic introduction	5.88	5.76	5.92	5.90	5.88	5.88	5.95	5.95	5.89	5.93	5.93	6.00	6.00
2. Learning outcomes	5.82	5.48	5.79	5.81	5.82	5.82	5.86	5.90	5.95	5.93	5.60	5.80	5.81
3. Giving instructions	5.76	5.80	5.62	5.24	5.76	5.65	5.67	5.90	5.95	6.00	5.80	5.93	5.90
4. Materials	5.82	5.88	6.00	5.95	5.82	5.94	5.95	5.95	5.95	5.93	5.93	5.93	6.00
5. Strategies	5.82	5.80	5.50	5.48	5.82	5.76	4.81	5.76	5.47	4.87	4.87	5.73	5.95
6. Explanations	5.70	5.48	5.54	5.76	5.70	5.82	4.76	5.90	5.74	5.80	5.40	5.73	5.90
7. Key terms	5.47	5.36	5.54	5.43	5.47	5.59	5.33	5.57	5.63	5.60	5.53	5.67	5.72
8. Dynamics	5.53	5.56	5.67	5.52	5.53	5.65	5.14	5.81	5.74	5.20	5.07	5.53	6.00
9. Lesson structure	5.65	5.80	5.67	5.24	5.65	5.47	5.05	5.81	5.79	4.93	5.13	5.47	6.00
10. Involvement	5.41	5.44	5.62	5.33	5.41	5.53	4.95	5.71	5.63	4.60	5.00	5.60	5.86
11. Interest	5.47	5.36	5.17	4.81	5.47	5.18	4.71	5.76	5.53	4.47	4.73	5.60	5.81
12. Initiative	5.12	4.52	4.79	4.95	5.12	5.12	4.86	5.67	5.58	4.33	4.53	5.73	5.57
13. Discussion	4.88	4.52	4.96	4.95	4.88	5.06	4.95	5.81	5.63	4.27	4.47	5.60	5.48
14. Learning success	5.35	5.32	5.29	5.33	5.35	5.53	5.43	5.81	5.68	5.00	5.33	5.73	5.57
15. Support	5.47	5.44	5.33	5.43	5.47	5.53	5.33	5.81	5.84	5.47	5.33	5.73	5.76
Theme/ Session assessment	5.26	5.43	5.49	5.41	5.54	5.55	5.25	5.81	5.73	5.22	5.24	5.72	5.82
Theme/ Session ranking	10	8	7	9	6	5	11	2	3	13	12	4	1
Student leaders' assessment	5.13	4.26	5.40	5.43	5.10	5.10	4.76	5.73	5.23	4.57	4.60	5.30	5.80
Teaching assistant's assessment	5.46	5.13	5.73	5.60	5.60	5.70	4.60	5.93	5.00	5.20	4.13	5.87	5.73

As formative evaluation does not affect the final grade, but is in the function of learning, its developmental and diagnostic context is mostly reflected in a further aggregate analysis of the assessment criteria. The analysis showed that, in the course of active teaching, the students learned the most on how to prepare didactic materials for active learning ($M = 5.93$), to introduce a topic ($M = 5.92$) and learning objectives ($M = 5.72$), to give instructions ($M = 5.72$) and explanations ($M = 5.57$), to adjust the dynamics of teaching ($M = 5.53$), to highlight the key concepts ($M = 5.52$), to provide support ($M = 5.51$), to successfully structure ($M = 5.50$), and methodically shape ($M = 5.48$) the course of a lesson. By somewhat lower assessments, the students have pointed out that, in active teaching, they also stimulated the learning success ($M = 5.43$), involvement ($M = 5.40$), interest ($M = 5.18$), initiative ($M = 2.50$),

and discussion ($M = 5.00$), which are the development determinants of active teaching requiring encouragement and support, especially for students who are more difficult to activate. It is evident from the analysis of the assessments that the student leaders assessed their own performance in eight sessions (61.5) lower than the teaching assistant, and in eleven sessions (84.6) lower than the students, which can be explained by their lack of experience in leading and teaching roles.

Table 2. Results of formative evaluation of the elements of active teaching

(students) Assessment criteria	Number of topic and (students)												
	M1 (25)	M2 (25)	M3 (24)	M4 (21)	M5 (17)	M6 (17)	M7 (21)	M8 (21)	M9 (19)	M10 (15)	M11 (15)	M12 (15)	M13 (21)
1. Topicality	5.56	5.72	5.63	5.52	5.71	5.35	5.57	5.81	5.74	5.73	5.60	5.87	5.90
2. Applicability	5.48	5.76	5.54	5.48	5.76	5.35	5.52	5.81	5.74	5.67	5.40	5.87	5.71
3. User-friendliness	5.64	5.88	5.58	5.71	5.82	5.59	5.38	5.81	5.79	5.73	5.13	5.80	5.76
4. Transparency	5.52	5.52	5.58	5.48	5.76	5.41	4.95	5.81	5.79	5.73	5.33	5.53	5.86
5. Coherence	5.08	5.24	5.5	5.52	5.59	5.29	4.95	5.76	5.58	5.73	5.07	5.53	5.81
6. Personal contribution	4.88	5.08	5.17	5.14	5.24	5.06	5.19	5.52	5.74	4.87	4.93	5.60	5.38
Theme/ Session assessment	5.4	5.53	5.5	5.48	5.64	5.34	5.26	5.75	5.73	5.58	5.24	5.7	5.74
Theme/ Session ranking	9	7	8	10	5	11	12	1	3	6	13	4	2
Student leaders' assessment (2)	4.92	4.08	5.55	5.33	5.25	5.17	4.75	5.5	4.42	4.75	4.75	4.75	5.5
Teaching assistant's assessment (1)	4.83	4.33	5.17	5.5	5.17	5.17	4.33	5	4.67	4.83	3.83	5.67	5.33

Same as in the previous analysis, the elements of active teaching were most prominent in the topics/sessions focused on learning – how to learn, super learning and mega learning, the optimal choice of learning strategies, action-oriented teaching and the use of multimedia, whereas the methods of moral teaching and the creation of a positive atmosphere were somewhat less prominent, which suggests that in addition to educational influences, the influences related to upbringing education should be more stimulated as well.

In the course of active learning, the most stimulated were user-friendliness ($M = 5.67$), topicality ($M = 5.67$), applicability ($M = 5.62$), and transparency ($M = 5.56$) of learning, and somewhat less: coherence ($M = 5.42$) and personal contribution to learning ($M = 5.21$). The student leaders assessed their performance in six sessions (46) lower than the teaching assistant, and in eight sessions (61.5) lower than the students, which is a significant increase in relation to the previous assessments.

The final assessment was conducted at the end of the seminar classes, and it sought students' feedback on how much the pedagogical principles (Table 3) and development determinants of active teaching (Table 4) were stimulated and developed, as well as how prominent the indicators of its quality (Table 5) and effectiveness (Table 6) were.

Table 3. Assessment of the pedagogical principles of active learning and teaching (N = 24)

No.	<i>The following pedagogical principles of active teaching were stimulated and developed in the course of learning</i>	No		Yes		Rank
		f	f%	f	f%	
1.	Purposefulness – ongoing contributions to the improvement of teaching	6	25.0	18	75.0	10
2.	Striving for development – motivation for work and progress	5	20.8	19	79.2	4
3.	Involvement – all students, the teacher and the teaching assistant are involved	4	16.7	20	83.3	2
4.	Constructive criticism – positive and well-intentioned communication focused on behaviour that needs to be changed	5	20.8	19	79.2	4
5.	Opportunity for (self-)reflection and stimulating dialogue about teaching and own performance	5	20.8	19	79.2	4
6.	Support to students for better achievement of learning objectives	5	20.8	19	79.2	4
7.	A sense of responsibility for the quality and co-structuring of lessons	7	29.2	17	70.8	12
8.	Improving own theory and practice	6	25.0	18	75.0	10
9.	Verification of own work, satisfaction and recognition of successful performance	5	20.8	19	79.2	4
10.	Continuous (self-)assessment and formative evaluation	4	16.7	20	83.3	2
11.	Development of cooperation and partnerships	2	8.3	22	91.7	1
12.	Empowering learning communities	5	20.8	19	79.2	4

The analysis of the results showed that the principles of cooperation, partnership and involvement contribute to the successful implementation of active learning and teaching the most. In the course of learning, a relationship was developed in which all the participants were satisfying their needs, but also adapting to each other, which resulted in contributions at the individual and collective level. Similar findings have been presented by other authors who emphasise that those who have the opportunity to learn in an active way learn faster and easier, and their knowledge is longer-lasting (Johnson et al., 1998, Meredith et al., 1998; Buljubašić-Kuzmanović, 2009). In addition to the above, the students highlighted the contribution of continuous (self-)

assessments and formative evaluation which is evident in the assessments of support in the course of learning, the opportunities for self-reflection and constructive criticism as part of the process. Therefore, the fact that some students need a longer time to achieve the set principles should not be ignored, which is shown by an average of six (22) of the surveyed students.

Table 4. Assessment of the development determinants of active learning and teaching (N = 24)

No.	In the course of learning, the focus was on the following development determinants of active teaching...	Insufficiently		Sufficiently		Rank
		f	f%	f	f%	
1.	Understanding rather than memorising concepts	7	29.2	17	70.8	2
2.	Asking thought-provoking questions	10	41.7	14	58.3	7
3.	Teaching on how to approach learning, problem solving	10	41.7	14	58.3	7
4.	Encouraging presentation of what has been learned in one's own words	10	41.7	14	58.3	7
5.	Promoting explanation of the steps applied in solving a task	10	41.7	14	58.3	7
6.	Promoting the monitoring and checking of own work (e.g. identifying and correcting errors, incompleteness, incorrect answers...)	13	54.2	11	45.8	13
7.	Stimulating the assessment of own work and progress	8	33.3	16	66.7	6
8.	Encouraging giving own opinions and critical reviews	7	29.2	17	70.8	2
9.	Linking educational content with real life examples	6	25.0	18	75.0	1
10.	Giving tasks that allow for the application of knowledge and skills to everyday situations	10	41.7	14	58.3	7
11.	Encouraging individual note-taking and content organisation	10	41.7	14	58.3	7
12.	Stimulating linking contents of different subjects	7	29.2	17	70.8	2
13.	Transparency of evaluation (evaluation and achievement criteria)	14	58.3	10	41.7	14
14.	Development determinants (used to highlight progress and learning success, not just the shortcomings, positive substantiation and support)	7	29.2	17	70.8	2

Of the development determinants that were particularly prominent in active learning, three quarters of the students put the following in the first place: the linking of the contents with everyday life examples and previous knowledge and experience, the stimulation of students to give their own opinions and critical, constructive reviews, understanding rather than memorising concepts, encouraging the linking of contents of different courses and positive substantiation and support to development and progress (70.8). These determinants of active teaching were emphasised by Terhart

(2001) as well, as part of the analysis of the methodological problems of teaching, i.e. teaching and learning methods, where he specifically emphasises action-oriented teaching, i.e. integrative learning as the basis of learning from life for life. In addition, more than half of the students (58.3) highlighted the diversity of methods, i.e. the ways of setting and solving tasks with clear explanations and steps for their application in learning and practice, and that the questions that encourage thinking and application of knowledge to everyday situations were sufficiently represented. Since these are very complex development determinants of active learning and teaching, which are still at the development stage with the students, it was expected that the remaining students (41.7) would assess the guidelines as not sufficiently represented in the course of learning as well as the encouragement of students in identifying and correcting errors, ambiguities, incorrect responses (54.2) and the explanation of assessment criteria and achievement (58.3).

Table 5. Assessment of the indicators of active learning and teaching (N = 24)

No.	At the end of the seminar classes, I feel stronger and more competent in...	Insufficiently		Sufficiently		Rank
		f	f%	f	f%	
1.	...the organisation and structuring of lessons	3	12.5	21	87.5	2
2.	...the use of new methods of (self-)learning and teaching	4	16.7	20	83.3	3
3.	...the introduction of new technologies in teaching	6	25.0	18	75.0	4
4.	...improving the climate and relationship among students in the classroom	7	29.2	17	70.8	5
5.	...better motivation of students to learn	11	45.8	13	54.2	11
6.	...stimulating greater involvement of students and active learning	8	33.3	16	66.7	6
7.	...more efficient class management and maintenance of good order and discipline	14	58.3	10	41.7	13
8.	...better adaptation of teaching to the individual differences among students	9	37.5	15	62.5	9
9.	...organising problem teaching and encouraging thinking	8	33.3	16	66.7	6
10.	...stimulating students for self-regulated learning	8	33.3	16	66.7	6
11.	...stimulating the development of metacognitive skills in students	11	45.8	13	54.2	11
12.	...the use of formative evaluation of the process	9	37.5	15	62.5	9
13.	...more efficient provision of feedback to students	2	8.3	22	91.7	1

The assessment of the active learning indicators focused mostly on providing feedback (rank 1), and it was expected that priority would be given to the skills related to organising and structuring lessons, which was slightly less prominent (rank 2).

Furthermore, the students highly ranked the development of skills for using new strategies and methods of (self-) learning and teaching, the introduction of new technologies in teaching and improving the environment and the relationships among students in the classroom and encourage self-regulated learning of students as significant indicators of growth and development. The determinants which did not take enough momentum in the course of active teaching and learning mostly relate to the skills of effective and efficient class leadership and maintaining order, work and discipline, and somewhat weaker, but still insufficient, the issues of students' motivation and encouraging the development of meta-cognitive skills in students. In order to explain the above indicators, as well as all the others which are related to pedagogical principles and determinants of active teaching, we analysed students' assessments related to the core elements and the backbones of active learning and teaching (Table 6).

Table 6. Core elements and backbone of the effectiveness of active learning and teaching

No.	The core elements and backbone of the effectiveness of active learning and teaching were reflected in...	Insufficiently		Sufficiently		Rank
		f	f%	f	f%	
1.	...the orientation – emphasis on learning objectives	0	0.0	24	100	1
2.	...structuring – clear dynamics and structure of teaching	1	4.2	23	95.8	3
3.	...modelling – the strategies, methods and procedures for problem solving, higher order thinking, self-regulated learning	9	37.5	15	62.5	14
4.	...the application of what has been learned	6	25.0	18	75.0	11
5.	...proactive management of the education process	4	16.7	20	83.3	9
6.	...supportive and stimulating learning environment	3	12.5	21	87.5	5
7.	...adaptation of learning and teaching to individual needs	5	20.8	19	79.2	10
8.	...reflectivity of teaching and learning	3	12.5	21	87.5	5
9.	...formative evaluation and feedback	3	12.5	21	87.5	5
10.	...facilitating the development of functional knowledge (thinking)	3	12.5	21	87.5	5
11.	...facilitating teamwork	0	0.0	24	100	1
12.	...stimulating creativity and intellectual curiosity	2	8.3	22	91.7	4
13.	...increasing the satisfaction of teaching	8	33.3	16	66.7	12
14.	...empowerment for inter-linking contents	8	33.3	16	66.7	12

Active learning was mostly reflected in teamwork and its orientation (clearly defined learning objectives), structuring (clear dynamics and structure of the teaching process), stimulating creativity and intellectual curiosity, enabling the development of functional knowledge (opinions), the reflectivity of teaching and learning, the

stimulating learning environment, formative evaluation and providing feedback on learning with proactive management of the educational process and the adjustment of learning and teaching methods to the different needs of pupils/students. What was also recognised as a good element of active teaching and learning, was the application of the acquired knowledge, the strengthening of inter-connectivity of contents and the increase of satisfaction with the teaching. Somewhat weaker footholds of active learning for one-third of the students were, same as in the previous analyses, the very modelling of classes, especially when involving the strategies, methods and procedures of problem solving, higher order thinking and self-regulated learning.

4. Conclusion

Taking into consideration all the elements of formative and summative evaluation, it can be concluded that, in addition to cooperation and involvement, the success of active learning in higher education teaching is also influenced by the feedback students receive in the learning process, as well as clearly defined learning objectives and evaluation criteria. In the development of functional knowledge, creativity, intellectual curiosity and reflectivity of learning, the most prominent factor was the adaptation to the individual, i.e. it was acknowledged that some students need a longer time to achieve the set goals. The results thus showed that a quarter of the surveyed students seek additional incentive in the development process of active teaching. Similarly, the strategies of moral teaching should be given more attention.

Through the implementation of the envisaged activities, this paper has contributed to the implementation and evaluation of active learning in higher education and serves as encouragement to future teachers to apply active learning, and to develop different strategies and methods of active learning that are not sufficiently present or stressed in formal education, but are an integral part of quality education.

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Evalvacija aktivnega učenja v visokošolskem poučevanju

Znanje relativno hitro zastara zaradi kopičenja novih znanstvenih informacij na področju znanosti in študenti lahko svoje znanje optimalno razvijajo le, če se usposobijo za hitro, učinkovito in kontinuirano učenje. Eden od pogojev za celostni razvoj študentov je, da jih postavimo v središče izobraževalnega procesa, upoštevajoč različne potrebe, interese in razvojne dejavnike vsakega posameznika. Vse to pa zahteva neprekinjeno, formativno evalvacijo napredka posameznika pri učenju. Evalvacija aktivnega učenja v visokošolskem poučevanju nakazuje na enotnost procesov učenja in poučevanja, nju-

ne soodvisnosti in komplementarnosti. S teoretičnega vidika lahko celoten proces izobraževanja opredelimo kot interaktivno-komunikacijski proces, pri katerem je ključno vprašanje: kako načrtovati, modelirati, izvajati in evalvirati pouk, pri katerem bodo študenti kar se da aktivni? Prispevek predstavlja evalvacijo učinkov aktivnega učenja, ki je bilo organizirano pri trinajstih (13) seminarskih vajah iz Didaktike v zimskem semestru 2013/2014. Z vidika dokimologije in didaktike je pomembno, da je evalvacija znanja formativna, normativna in sumativna (Kyriacou, 2001). Namen formativne evalvacije (usmerjena v proces) je ustvariti priložnost, da študenti/učenci prejmejo povratne informacije o svojem napredku, namen sumativne evalvacije (usmerjena v rezultat) pa je dodeliti oceno in v skladu z njo opredeliti znanje študentov/učencev. Natančneje, formativna evalvacija zajema poučevanje, pri katerem študenti upravljajo s svojimi učnimi in metakognitivnimi procesi, vključno s samoregulacijo učenja oziroma s spreminjanjem postopkov učenja v primeru težav pri doseganju zastavljenih ciljev.

V raziskavo je bilo vključenih 27 študentov tretjega letnika dvopredmetnega študija Pedagogike in različnih pedagoških disciplin (zgodovina, filozofija, hrvaški jezik in književnost, angleški jezik in književnost, nemški jezik in književnost) na Filozofski fakulteti v Osijeku. Učenje je bilo tematsko vezano na multidisciplinarne, interdisciplinarne in transdisciplinarne teme v povezavi z aktivnim poučevanjem, uporabili pa smo različne strategije poučevanja in evalvirali njihove učinke. S pomočjo formativne, diagnostične in sumativne evalvacije, je bil cilj raziskati pedagoška načela in razvojne determinante ter kazalce kakovosti in učinkovitosti aktivnega poučevanja. Izhajajoč iz cilja smo opredelili dva raziskovalna problema:

- napraviti formativno, in posledično, diagnostično evalvacijo vseh trinajstih tem o aktivnem poučevanju, obravnavanih pri trinajstih seminarskih vajah s študenti in primerjati razlike v ocenah, ki so jih podali študenti, študenti-vodje in pomočnik (asistent),
- izvesti končno oceno aktivnega poučevanja in analizirati, katera načela, razvojne usmeritve, kazalniki kakovosti in učinkovitosti aktivnega poučevanja so se v (ne)zadostni meri spodbujali in razvijali med učnim procesom ter podati smernice za nadaljnje delo in učenje.

Vsak študent, študent-vodja in asistent je 13-krat ocenil proces poučevanja in učenja (formativna ocena) in na koncu seminarskih vaj je vsak študent še enkrat podal svojo oceno (sumativno ocenjevanje). To pomeni, da smo dobili 320 ocen (256 študentov, 27 študentov – vodij, 13 asistentov in 24 končnih ocen). Formativna evalvacija je potekala na podlagi dveh lestvic. Prva lestvica je bila osredotočena na študente-vodje vsakih seminarskih vaj, njihove veščine in osebno vpletenost ter pobude pri aktivnem učenju in poučevanju. Druga lestvica je bila usmerjena na elemente aktivnega učenja. Sumativna evalvacija je zajemala štiri lestvice. Prva se je nanašala na ocenjevanje pedagoških načel aktivnega učenja, druga na ocenjevanje njegovih razvojnih smernic, tretja na indikatorje kakovosti in četrta na učinkovitost aktivnega učenja. Pristop k učenju je bil sestavljen iz treh delovnih nalog, in sicer: teoretični okvir teme, praktična naloga in ocenjevanje. Analiza je pokazala, da so se študenti pri učenju aktivnega poučevanja

najbolje naučili kako: pripraviti didaktično gradivo za aktivno učenje, napraviti uvod v temo in cilje učenja, dati navodila in pojasnila, prilagoditi dinamiko poučavanja, izpostaviti ključne koncepte, dati podporo, dobro strukturirati in metodično oblikovati potek učne ure. Značilnosti aktivnega poučavanja so prišle v ospredje pri seminarjih, povezanih z naslednjimi temami: učenje učenja, superučenje in megaučenje, najoptimalnejša izbira strategij učenja, poučavanje usmerjeno na dogajanje in uporaba multimedije. Teme o metodah moralnega poučavanja in ustvarjanju pozitivnega vzdušja so bile manj v ospredju, kar implicira na dejstvo, da je poleg izobraževalnega vpliva potreben tudi vzgojni vpliv pri poučavanju. Med procesom aktivnega učenja je bila najbolj spodbujena prijaznost do učečega, aktualnost, uporabnost in preglednost učenja.

Končna ocena je bila podana ob koncu seminarskih vaj, študenti pa so podali povratno informacijo o tem, kako so se spodbujala in razvijala pedagoška načela ter razvojni dejavniki aktivnega poučavanja, in v kolikšni meri so bili izraženi indikatorji kakovosti in učinkovitosti. Analiza rezultatov je pokazala, da so načela sodelovanja, partnerstva in vključevanja najbolj prispevala k uspešni realizaciji aktivnega učenja in poučavanja. Med učenjem se je razvil odnos, v katerem so vsi udeleženci zadovoljevali svoje potrebe, a hkrati so se drug drugemu tudi prilagajali, kar je bil prispevek na individualni in kolektivni ravni. Nenazadnje, študenti so še pozitivno izpostavili prispevek kontinuirane (samo)ocene in formativne evalvacije, kot je razvidno iz ocen podpore pri učenju, možnosti za samorefleksijo in konstruktivne kritike.

Tri četrtine študentov je na prvo mesto razvojnih determinant, ki so se po njihovem mnenju zadostno razvile v procesu aktivnega učenja, postavilo povezavo vsebine s primeri iz vsakdanjega življenja in predhodnega znanja in izkušenj. Prav tako so izpostavili: spodbudo za izražanje lastnih mnenj in konstruktivne kritike, razumevanje namesto mehničnega učenja pojmov, spodbujanje povezovanja različnih predmetov in vsebin ter podporo razvoju in napredku (70,8%). Ocena kazalnikov aktivnega učenja je bila najbolj osredotočena na dajanje povratnih informacij (rang 1), medtem ko smo pričakovali, da bodo tukaj v prednosti spretnosti v povezavi z organizacijo in strukturiranjem učnih ur (rang 2). Najmanj razvite determinante med procesom aktivnega učenja in poučavanja so po mnenju študentov bile upravljanje in vzdrževanje reda, dela in discipline; nekoliko bolje, a še vedno nezadostno razvite determinante pa so bile motivacija študentov in spodbujanje razvoja njihovih metakognitivnih sposobnosti. Aktivno učenje se je najbolj odražalo v timskem delu in njegovi usmerjenosti, strukturiranju in spodbujanju ustvarjalnosti in intelektualne radovednosti, omogočanju razvoja funkcionalnih znanj, refleksivnosti učenja in poučavanja, spodbudnem okolju za učenje, formativni evalvaciji in zagotavljanju povratnih informacij o učenju z proaktivnim upravljanjem izobraževalnega procesa ter prilagajanju metod učenja in poučavanja potrebam posameznikov. Nekoliko manjša vloga aktivnega učenja je bila po mnenju tretjine študentov strukturiranje učnih ur, še posebej z vidika strategij, metod in postopkov reševanja težav, mišljenja na višji ravni in samoreguliranega učenja.

Ob upoštevanju vseh elementov formativne in sumativne evalvacije lahko sklepamo, da je ob sodelovanju in vključenosti študentov, uspeh aktivnega učenja v visokošolskem

izobraževanju odvisen od povratnih informacij, ki jih študenti dobijo ter od jasno opredeljenih učnih ciljev in kriterijev ocenjevanja. Z vidika razvoja funkcionalnega znanja, ustvarjalnosti, intelektualne radovednosti in refleksivnosti učenja, je v naši raziskavi bil najbolj izstopajoč dejavnik prilagajanje posamezniku, oziroma priznavanje dejstva, da nekateri študenti potrebujejo več časa za doseganje ciljev. Rezultati so pokazali, da je četrtnina anketiranih študentov iskala dodatno spodbudo v razvojnem procesu aktivnega poučevanja. Prav tako bi bilo treba nameniti več pozornosti strategijam poučevanja moralne vzgoje. S pomočjo izvajanja načrtovanih aktivnosti lahko ta prispevek služi kot doprinos k izvajanju in evalvaciji aktivnega učenja in poučevanja v visokošolskem izobraževanju in je spodbuda visokošolskim učiteljem za aplikacijo ter razvijanje različnih strategij in metod aktivnega učenja. Nenazadnje, aktivno učenje in poučevanje ni dovolj prisotno v formalnem izobraževanju, je pa sestavni del kakovostne vzgoje in izobraževanja.

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Pomen in spremljanje prostorske predstave študentov arhitekture

Strokovni članek

UDK 378:72:159.937.52

KLJUČNE BESEDE: prostorska predstava, izobraževanje, opisna geometrija, arhitektura

POVZETEK – Prostorska predstava predstavlja eno od področij človekove sposobnosti. Ključna je za razumevanje okolja, v katerem se gibamo in smo. Posebej je pomembna pri odločanju o načinu urejanja prostora, zato je ključna za vse, ki v tem procesu sodelujejo. Raziskave, katerih rezultati skušajo odgovoriti na različna vprašanja, povezana s tem področjem, hkrati odpirajo celo vrsto novih. Fakulteta za arhitekturo Univerze v Ljubljani je institucija, ki izobražuje ljudi za delo s prostorom. V ta namen izvajamo dva študijska programa: Magistrski študij arhitekture in Dvostopenjski študij urbanizma. Na Fakulteti za arhitekturo zato že od leta 1999 vsako leto izvajamo testiranje prostorske predstave pri začetnikih. Prispevek (ki je del širše večletne raziskave o oblikovanju kvalitetnega bivalnega okolja v Sloveniji) analizira študentsko prostorsko predstavo ter vpliv le-te v pedagoškem procesu pri predmetu opisna geometrija.

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KEYWORDS: spatial perception, education, descriptive geometry, architecture

ABSTRACT – Spatial perception is an area of human abilities. It is vital for understanding the environment in which we move and exist. It is particularly important in decision-making on methods of spatial organisation, therefore, it is crucial for all the participants in the process. The research results, focused on answering a range of questions related to this phenomenon, also open up a series of new questions. The Faculty of architecture at the University of Ljubljana is an institution educating people to work with space. To this end, it performs two study programmes: a Master's study programme in Architecture and a 2-level study programme in Urban planning. Since 1999, every year the Faculty of architecture has tested first-year students for spatial perception. The paper (which is part of a wider several-year-long research study on designing a quality living environment in Slovenia) analyses the students' spatial perception and its influence in the education process, i.e. in the subject of Descriptive geometry.

1. Uvod

Zagotavljanje kvalitetnega bivalnega okolja je primarni cilj vsake družbe. To je vrednota, ki jo je treba stalno razvijati. Vsak rad živi, biva in dela v urejenem, človeku prijaznem okolju. Čeprav je splošno pričakovano, da so glavni kreatorji urbanisti in arhitekti, naj bi v demokratičnih razmerah pri oblikovanju le-tega sodelovali vsi. Žal imamo ljudje različne poglede in kriterije za to, kaj je lepo, kvalitetno. Zato je gradnja v demokratičnih razmerah bolj zahtevna. Ljudje v demokratični družbi imajo namreč za dosego svojih ciljev različne pravne možnosti. Lahko ustavijo gradnjo, zahtevajo spremembe in podobno. Takih primerov je v Sloveniji v zadnjih letih bilo kar precej. Če k temu dodamo še možnost lažnih računalniško generiranih predstavitev ter željo

kapitala po gradnji predvsem dobičkonosnega okolja, je razumljivo, da so konflikti neizogibni.

Pri ustvarjanju bivalnega okolja so udeležene različne stroke s svojimi interesi, željami in tudi sposobnostmi. Prav sposobnost razumeti določen projekt v realnem prostoru z vsemi posledicami, ki jih bo povzročil, je zelo zahtevna naloga. Današnja tehnologija sicer omogoča izvrstne računalniške simulacije prihodnosti, vendar je za razumevanje umeščenosti objekta v prostor nujna dobra prostorska predstava.

Prostorska inteligenca, katere sestavni del je prostorska predstava, je sestavni del človeške sposobnosti. Poleg nje jo tvorijo še: lingvistična, matematična, gibalna, naravna in glasbena ali osebna inteligenca. Proučevanje prostorske predstave je relativno mlada disciplina. Kot začetnika raziskav s tega področja omenimo sira Francisa Galtna (Mohrer, 2008), ki je leta 1880 poročal o svojih eksperimentalnih raziskavah na področju miselne predstavljenosti. Za nadaljnje obdobje raziskav je pomembna potrditev obstoja prostorske predstave, ločene od splošne inteligence, in sicer s pomočjo psihometričnih študij.

J. P. Guilford (1996) je tako ugotovil štiri sestavine prostorske predstave (orientacijo v prostoru, zmožnost predstavitve tridimenzionalnega objekta na dvodimenzionalni medij in zmožnost določitve celotne kompozicije na osnovi poznavanja delcev, zmožnost iskanja prostorskih rešitev s pomočjo skic in sposobnost izražanja v tridimenzionalnem prostoru po verbalnih navodilih in zmožnost hitrih zaznav ter obnašanja v prostoru).

McGee (Gorska, 2005) je združil te elemente v dve močni skupini: prostorsko vizualizacijo in prostorsko orientacijo. Hkrati je ugotovil, da je težko postaviti ostro ločnico med posameznimi komponentami prostorske predstave oziroma določiti osnovne pojme. Štiri osnovne pojme sta tako določila Linn in Peterson (1986). Eden izmed pojmov je tudi miselno vrtenje, ki zajema sposobnost predstave hitrega in natančnega vrtenja dvo- ali tridimenzionalne slike oziroma predmeta. Kasneje so k temu dodali še peti pojem, in sicer "dinamično prostorsko sklepanje", ki vključuje presojo relativne hitrosti in razdalje (Law et al., 1993). Na osnovi analiz prostorske predstave je Yilmaz (2009) naredil model, ki predstavlja glavne komponente prostorske predstave. Te so:

- zaznavanje navidezno neorganizirane skupine delov v celoto (ang. *Closure speed*),
- prostorska orientacija oziroma orientacija v prostoru (ang. *Spatial orientation*),
- sposobnost dojetanja naravnih in umetnih objektov ter površin v posameznikovi okolici (ang. *Environmental ability*),
- sposobnost usmerjanja pozornosti na določen nabor elementov v različnih okoljih (ang. *Flexibility of closure*),
- prepoznavanje enakih objektov, četudi so prikazani pod drugim zornim kotom (ang. *Spatial relations*),

- sposobnost miselnega razvijanja plašča telesa oziroma miselno sestavljanje telesa na osnovi plašča (ang. *Spatial visualizations*),
- zmožnost predvidevanja posledic gibanja v prostoru (ang. *Spatiomemorial ability*),
- sposobnost hitre in natančne zaznave elementov prostoru, tudi če si sledijo v časovnem zaporedju (ang. *Perceptual speed*).

Kot vidimo, izraz “prostorska predstava” torej pokriva širše področje, ki ga tvori nabor različnih veščin. Posledica tega je tudi poimenovanje, ki združuje različne kombinacije besed “vizualno” in “prostorsko” s “predstavo”, “sposobnostjo”, “orientacijo”, “percepcijo”, zaznavo in podobno z namenom, da bi bolj natančno opredelili vsak element prostorskih sposobnosti. Ob tem nastane tudi zmeda zaradi različnih poimenovanj sestavnih delov, kar je verjetno posledica uporabe različnih tehnik analiz, ki se vleče tudi v sedanji čas. Zato v članku uporabljamo izraz “prostorska predstava” kot splošno priznani izraz, ne glede na dejstvo, da izbrani test miselnega vrtenja (*Mental rotating test*, v nadaljevanju MRT) pokriva le del širšega področja prostorske predstave – to je miselno vrtenje.

Po mnenju strokovnjakov sodeluje pri dojemanju prostora desna polovica možganov (Soros, 2010), saj je že vrsto let znano, da je desna hemisfera pri moškem spolu večja in se prej razvije kot pri ženskah (de Lacoste et al, 1991). To pa je verjetno tudi razlog, ki potrjuje razlike med spoloma pri rezultatih testov prostorske predstave. Razlika je najbolj očitna pri nalogah miselne rotacije, manj v orientaciji in nič v vizualizaciji (Haris, 1978; Linn in Peterson, 1986). Večina strokovnjakov priznava, da se razlike ne pokažejo do konca obdobja pubertete in da ima odraščanje velik vpliv na razvoj te sposobnosti (Nyborg, 1983).

Razvoj preučevanja prostorske predstave je zahteval tudi razvoj instrumentov za merjenje. Prvi bolj znani test je bil leta 1931 razvit *Mental Cutting Test* (v nadaljevanju MCT), leta 1971 pa sta Shepard in Metzler razvila rotacijski test (MRT) (1971). Oba testa sta splošno uporabljiva ne glede na dejstvo, da sta precej specializirana na določena področja. MRT je bolj specializiran za prostorske zaznave rotacije in zrcaljenja, MCT pa za odnose med ravnino in objektom. Celostno vrednotenje prostorske predstave želita pokriti DAT (*Differential Aptitude Test*, razvit leta 1990) in TPS (*Spatial Imagination Test*, razvit leta 2003) (Juscakova in Gorska, 2007). Vsi testi so izpostavljeni razvoju in izboljšavam. Suzuki in Shiina (1999) sta MRT transformirala in prečistila ter poenotila težavnost vsakega primera.

Pri raziskavah prostorske predstave gre običajno za enkratni dogodek, ki skuša zajeti določeno populacijo v določenem in krajevno omejenem območju. Rezultati testov so si večinoma podobni in kažejo razliko med spoloma in napredek po letu študija (Leopold et al., 2001). Dolgoročnih raziskav s področja prostorskih predstav ni veliko, pa še te so omejene na krajše časovno obdobje, npr. dveh let (Takeyama et al., 1999). Vzroki za tako stanje so v velikem številu dejavnikov, ki vplivajo na razvoj prostorske predstave generacij. Hkrati je za realno primerjavo treba imeti enake pogoje testiranja, kar pomeni, da so različne izboljšave testiranja v tem primeru vpra-

šljive, ne glede na prednosti, ki jih sicer prinašajo. Pogoje izvajanja testa smo zato na Fakulteti za arhitekturo Univerze v Ljubljani (v nadaljevanju FA) postavili že leta 1999 in se jih nato ves čas držali. To nam je omogočilo realno primerjavo generacij.

Testirana populacija študentov prvega letnika FA je zanimiva tudi zaradi tega, ker na FA izobrazimo največje število arhitektov v Sloveniji. Interes za vpis je velik, in to ne glede na slabo situacijo glede zaposlitev. Zaradi tega ima FA sprejemne izpite, na katerih sprejme le najboljše kandidate oziroma kandidate z najboljšo prostorsko predstavo (Kušar, 2004). Zato lahko upravičeno sklepamo, da predstavljajo študenti FA verjetno najboljši del svoje generacije glede prostorske predstave.

Dolgoročna analiza je pomembna tudi glede mnenja, da naj bi raven znanja matematike in tehnike pri novih študentih upadal po vsej Evropi. Ali temu padcu sledi tudi padec ravni prostorske predstave? Razloge za pritrditev teze bi verjetno našli v okolju, kjer živimo. Nova informacijska tehnologija je prinesla tudi nove vzorce obnašanja mladine. Tradicionalnih iger otrok in mladostnikov je vse manj, saj jih nadomeščajo digitalne in virtualne igre. Posledica tradicionalnih prostorskih iger je bila razvijanje prostorske predstave, ki so ga te igre vsebovale. Kakšne posledice ima ta menjava, je težko reči, saj po drugi strani informacijska tehnologija omogoča lažje dojetje prostora in odnosov v njem. Zato so rezultati, ki bi pokazali dolgoročne trende na tem področju, še kako pomembni (Kušar in Volgemut, 2014).

Leta 2010 je bil pri vhodnih podatkih vključen tudi podatek o desničarjih in levičarjih. Glede na že opisano, naj bi obstajala razlika med eno in drugo skupino ljudi. Kot trdi Santrock (2008), naj bi imeli levičarji bolj razvito prostorsko predstavo kot desničarji. Tudi delež levičarjev med arhitekti naj bi bil večji glede na delež, ki ga imajo v celotni populaciji.

2. Materiali in metode

Hipoteze

H1: Podatki različnih strokovnjakov kažejo na padanje prostorske predstave. Sodobni način življenja zahteva po eni strani manj spretnosti za gibanje in orientacijo v prostoru, saj različne elektronske naprave nadomeščajo to spretnost. Hkrati pa pri mladini opazamo, da več časa preživijo pred različnimi slikovnimi zasloni. Posledično ga porabijo manj za različne igre, kjer je potrebna prostorska predstava. Zato predvidevamo, da v daljšem časovnem obdobju prostorska predstava pada.

H2: Večina raziskav potrjuje razlike med žensko in moško populacijo (Tutsumi et al., 2005) ter med levičarji in desničarji (Holder, 1997). Slednjo utemeljujejo z razliko v uporabi možganov. Tako naj bi imeli levičarji boljše prostorsko predstavo od desničarjev. Prav zato naj bi bil med arhitekti tudi večji delež levičarjev kot v ostali populaciji. V raziskavi smo zato želeli preveriti te trditve.

H3: Opisna geometrija je predmet, ki naj bi pomagal razvijati prostorsko predstavo (Saito et al., 1998). Gre predvsem zato, da je za uspešno delo pri tem predmetu treba razvijati spretnosti, ki so zajete v širšem smislu obvladovanja prostora, manipulaciji z elementi znotraj prostora in predstavitvi prostora in elementov v prostoru na običajno dvodimenzionalni medij. Rezultati raziskav uspešnosti različnih metod za izboljšanje prostorske predstave kažejo, da je možno prav z nekaterimi nalogami, ki so blizu konstrukcijam v opisni geometriji, izboljšati to večščino. Problem je bil tu zastavljen obratno. Ali imajo študenti z boljšo prostorsko predstavo tudi boljšo oceno vaj oziroma kolokvijev in izpitov?

Na Fakulteti za arhitekturo Univerze v Ljubljani vsako leto v začetku študijskega leta izvedemo test prostorske predstave. Testiranje izvajamo v začetku študijskega leta. Pri tem sodelujejo študenti prvih letnikov. To testiranje izvajamo že od leta 1999. V ta namen uporabljamo t.i. MRT. Ne glede na možnosti, ki nam jih ponuja informacijska tehnologija, ostaja način izvedbe vsa leta enak. S tem zagotavljamo ustrezne pogoje za vrednotenje in primerjavo rezultatov. Do sedaj je test reševalo skupaj 2419 študentov. Rešene pole ocenimo glede na kriterije, podanih v navodilih za reševanje. To storimo ne glede na dejstvo, da bi drugačen način ocenjevanja dal morda boljše rezultate – kar zadeva normalno razporeditev rezultatov (Bolcskei et al., 2013), ki jih za to področje lahko pričakujemo.

Rezultate smo nato statistično ovrednotili glede na postavljene hipoteze. Trendno črto naraščanja/padanja prostorske predstave smo naredili glede na povprečno oceno populacije oziroma segmenta ženske in moške populacije.

Primerjavo med levičarji in desničarji smo naredili s pomočjo podatkov, ki jih zbiramo in obdelujemo od leta 2010 dalje. Primerjava je narejena s pomočjo frekvenčne porazdelitve v 20 razredov doseženih točk (prvi razred 40, 39; drugi 38, 37; tretji 36, 35...). Ugotavljali smo, koliko študentov se uvrsti v kateri razred. Tu je treba poudariti, da je bilo število levičarjev majhno (84), desničarjev pa veliko (762), vendar še vedno v okviru deleža v populaciji.

Razvrščanje v razrede smo uporabili tudi razporeditvi rezultatov zadnje obravnane populacije – za leto 2014. Na enak način s pomočjo frekvenčne porazdelitve v 20 razredov smo skušali ugotoviti tudi normalno porazdelitev rezultatov.

Uspešnost pri predmetu v letu 2014 smo ugotavljali na dva načina. Prvi način je bil ugotavljanje povezav med uspešnostjo na kolokvijih in rezultati prostorske predstave. Pri opisni geometriji imamo vsak semester prvega letnika en sklop kolokvijev, ki zajema tri krajše kolokvije. Kolokvijske naloge so pripravljene na listih in jih študenti rešujejo z risarskim priborom brez uporabe dodatnih informacij oziroma gradiva. Prvi sklop kolokvijev obravnava t.i. Mongeovo projekcijo. Drugi sklop pa obravnava poševno projekcijo (sence), aksonometrijo in centralno projekcijo. Pri rezultatih kolokvija smo upoštevali končno oceno kolokvijev, ki pomeni povprečno oceno vseh treh kolokvijev. Kolokviji so ocenjeni z 1–10 (ocene od 1–5 so negativne, najvišja ocena je 10). V tabeli smo razdelili uspešnost pri MRT na 20 razredov (kot je že predhodno opisano). Študentom, uvrščenim v posamezni razred, smo določili

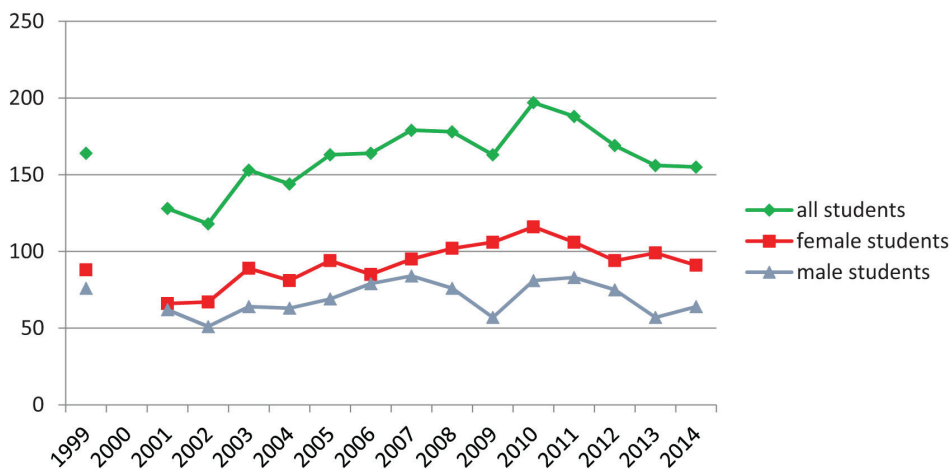
skupno povprečno oceno kolokvijev. Primerjavo smo naredili tako za prvi semester – 1. sklop kolokvijev, kot tudi za drugi semester – 2. sklop kolokvijev.

Drugi način preverjanja povezave rezultatov MRT z rezultati pri predmetu smo izvedli s primerjavo ocen dveh vaj, katerih vsebina je podobna MRT. Gre za vaje, kjer se zahteva uporaba vrtenja (določitev prave velikosti kota, oddaljenost točke do premice...). Vaje študenti izdelajo doma in jih nato prinesejo v oceno. Pri vsaki vaji je možno dobiti največ 2 točki – torej za obe vaji skupaj 4. Zopet smo uspeh pri MRT razdelili na 20 razredov. Za vsak razred pa ugotovili uspešnost pri vajah.

3. Rezultati in diskusija

Testiranja se je v letih od 1999 do 2014 udeležilo 2419 študentov, od tega je bilo 1379 študentk in 1041 študentov (graf 1). Število študentov po letnikih niha od 128 leta 2002 do 197 leta 2010. Po tem letu opažamo zniževanje števila študentov. Testiranja se je vsa leta udeležilo več študentk kot študentov. To je posledica dejstva, da se na FA vpiše več študentk.

Graf 1: Število študentov, ki opravijo test po letih

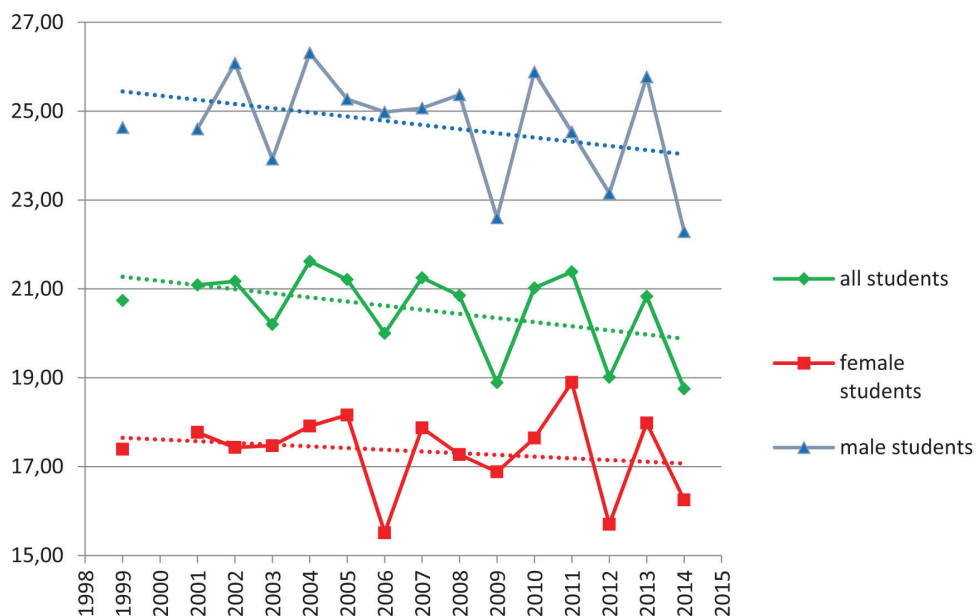


Trend rasti/padanja ravni prostorske predstave na FA

Primerjava rezultatov kaže nihanje prostorske predstave pri celi populaciji (graf 2). Zanimiv je bil trend velikega padca vsake tri leta, vendar je razlika statistično dokazljiva le za leti 2009 ($P < 0.05$) in 2012 ($P < 0.05$). V letih 2003 ($P = 0.969872$)

in 2006 ($P = 0.389689$) razlika statistično ni dokazljiva. Rezultati iz leta 2014 ne potrjujejo rednega triletnega nihanja, saj je bil leta 2014 nepričakovano velik padec, ki je tudi statistično dokazljiv ($P < 0.05$). Temu dejstvu lahko pritrdijo tudi delni rezultati glede na spol, kjer tovrstno nihanje ni bilo izrazito.

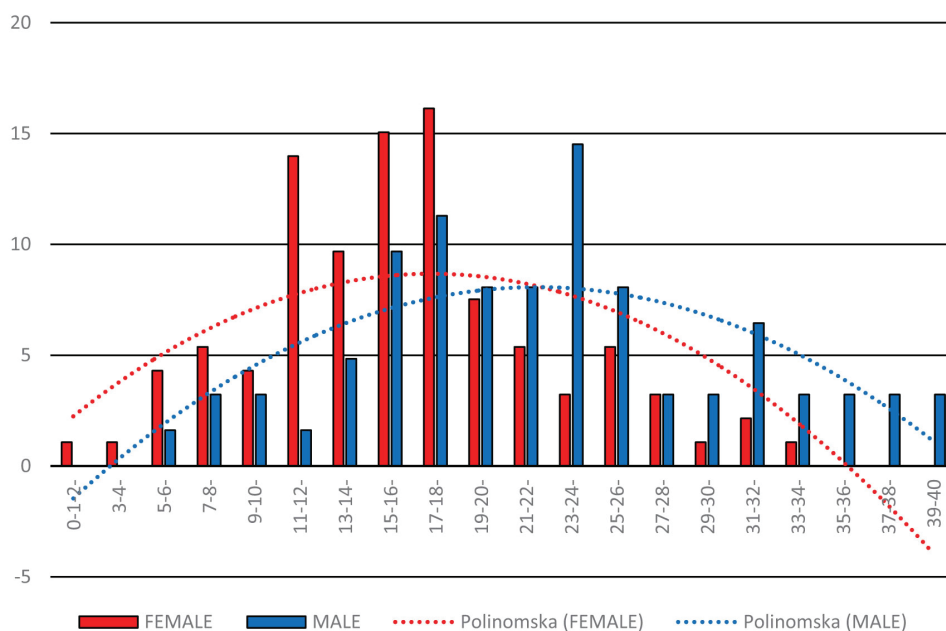
Graf 2: Doseženo število točk po skupinah: celotna generacija, moški, ženske v letih 1998–2014



Razlika med spoloma se kaže skozi vsa leta testiranja. Razlika se kaže tako v povprečju kot tudi pri razvrstitvi študentov glede na doseženo število točk v 20 razredov (graf 3). Pri ženski populaciji prevladuje razvrstitev v razrede doseženih 11–18 točk, ki izstopajo glede na ostale. Pri moški populaciji je ta razlika manj izrazita, večina pa se giblje v razredih, doseženih 15 do 25 točk. Ali je to posledica prostorske predstave ali pa ima to drug vzrok, je težko reči. Ne glede na trditve nekaterih znanstvenikov (Hooven et al., 2008) rezultati, pridobljeni po novem ocenjevanju (Bolcskei et al., 2013), ki naj bi bolj objektivno ocenilo primere, kadar je vsaj en odgovor pravilen, potrjujejo razliko.

Trendna črta v vseh primerih nakazuje nižanje nivoja prostorske predstave.

Graf 3: Rezultati študentov pri MRT. Primerjava deležev (%) moških in žensk glede na razrede doseženih točk



Razlika med desničarji in levičarji

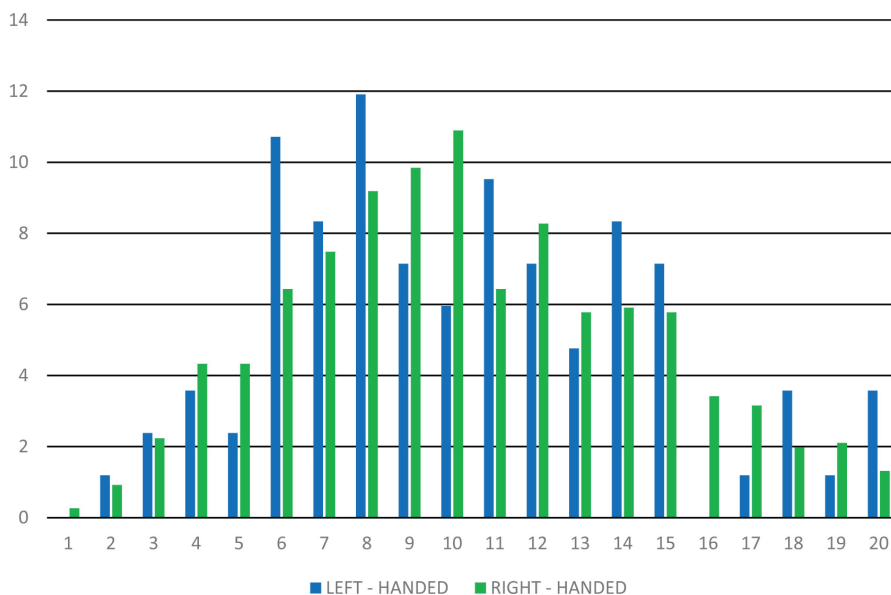
Raziskava uspešnosti levičarjev in desničarjev je v letih 2010–2014 pokazala le majhno razliko (20.283 : 20.404) v korist levih (graf 4). Razlika ni statistično dokazljiva. Tu je treba tudi opozoriti, da je bilo število levičarjev proti desničarjem majhno (84 : 762). Vendar delež testiranih levičarjev (9,9%) ustreza deležu v populaciji, ki ni natančno določen, gibal naj bi se okoli 10 odstotkov, oziroma med 5 in 30 odstotki (Holder, 1997).

Vrednotenje ocene pri predmetu opisna geometrija in MRT

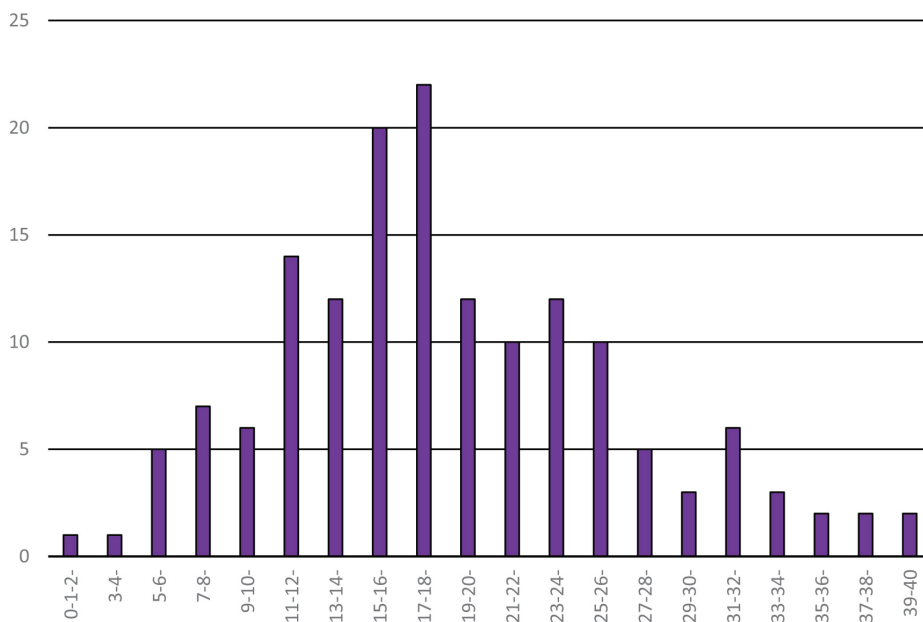
Pri obravnavanju povezav med uspešnostjo reševanja MRT in uspehom pri predmetu opisna geometrija smo obravnavali le tiste študente, ki so opravili oboje, se pravi MRT ter kolokvije in/oziroma vaje.

Frekvenčna porazdelitev uspešnosti študentov pri MRT v 20 razredov kaže, da je največji delež študentov dosegel med 15 in 18 točk (graf 5). Porazdelitev ne ustreza normalni porazdelitvi vzorca. Glede na število testiranih ($n = 155$) normalne razporeditve ni pričakovati.

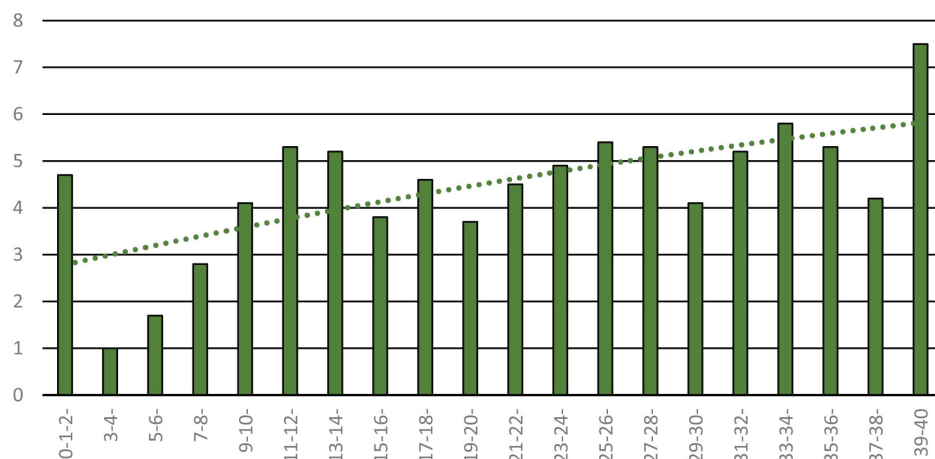
Graf 4: Rezultati študentov pri MRT. Primerjava deleža (%) študentov – levičarjev in desničarjev glede na razrede doseženih točk



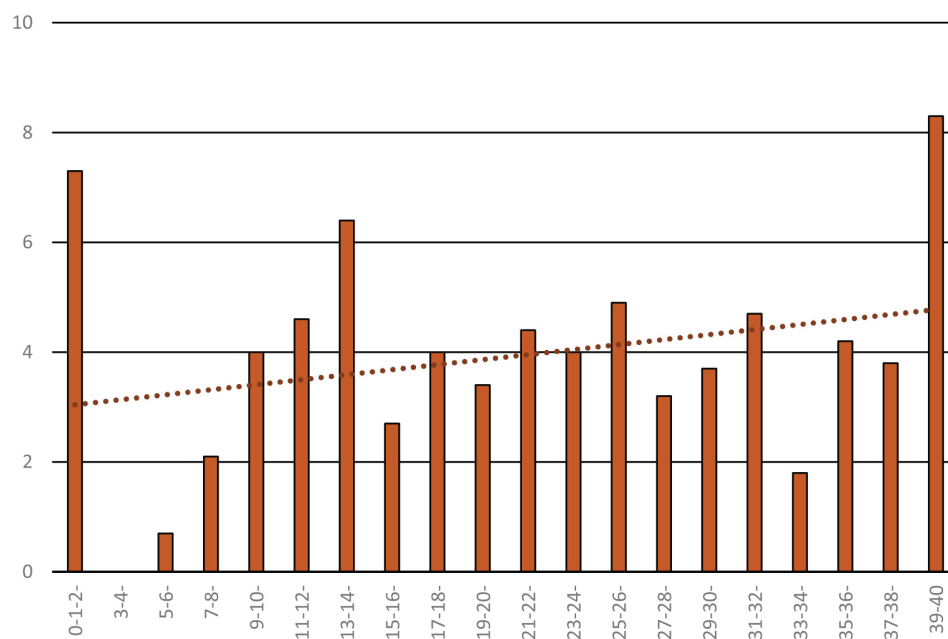
Graf 5: Delež (%) študentov po razredih glede na doseženo število točk pri MRT v letu 2014



Graf 6: Povprečna ocena 1. sklopa kolokvijev glede na razrede doseženih točk pri MRT v letu 2014



Graf 7: Povprečna ocena 2. sklopa kolokvijev glede na razrede doseženih točk pri MRT v letu 2014



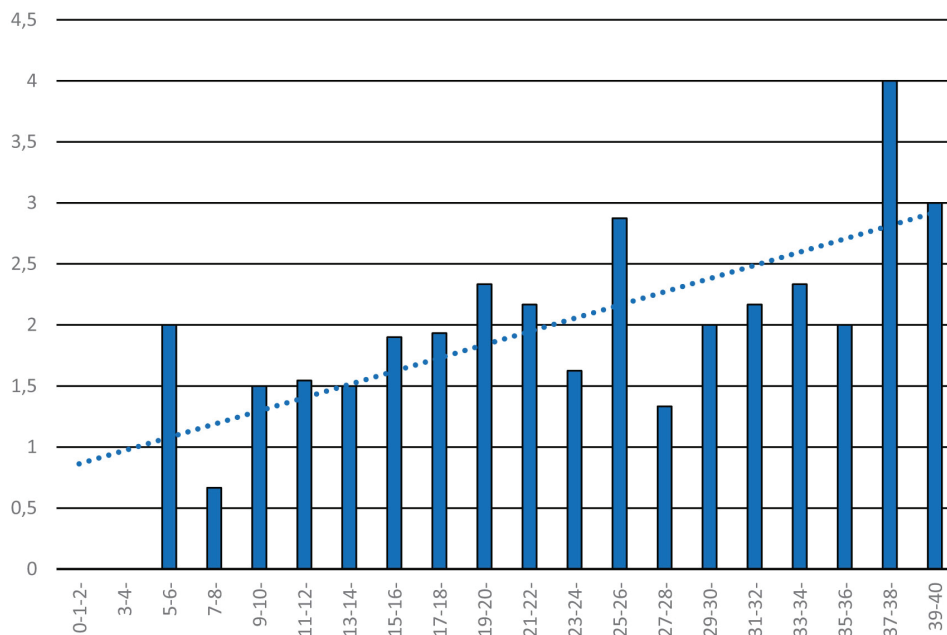
Graf rezultatov (graf 6) kaže, da so pri prvem kolokviju najmanj uspešni tisti, ki so pri MRT dosegli od 3 do 10 točk, najbolj pa tisti, ki so dosegli največ točk. Trendna

črta sicer kaže, da so boljši pri MRT tudi boljši pri kolokviju. Kljub temu pa velik uspeh tistih z najnižjim številom točk pri MRT postavlja dvom v pravilnost prejšnje trditve. K temu pripomorejo tudi rezultati primerjave drugega kolokvija z rezultati MRT (graf 7). Ti kažejo bolj ali manj podoben uspeh v vseh skupinah z izjemo najboljših pri MRT. Ti so najboljši tudi pri kolokviju. Kolokviji ne vsebujejo samo nalog, kjer je potrebna miselna rotacija. Vsebujejo tudi druge elemente prostorske predstave. Zato je razumljivo, da rezultati MRT niso v neposredni povezavi.

Vrednotenje 14. in 15. vaje ter MRT

14. in 15. vaja prvega semestra sta izrazita primera vaj, kjer je potrebna uporaba miselnega vrtenja. Zato je bilo pričakovano, da bodo boljši pri MRT tudi boljši pri teh vajah. To se je tudi pokazalo v raziskavi (graf 8). Povezava med obema je tu očitna in logična glede na podobno tematiko. Rezultati raziskav primerjave kolokvijskih nalog in vaj potrjujejo tezo o obstoju različnih področij prostorske predstave. Ni nujno, da je študent dober na enem področju tudi dober pri drugem. Poleg tega ne smemo zanemariti dejstva, da na delo pri predmetu vplivajo ne samo prostorska sposobnost, temveč tudi druge človeške lastnosti, kot so delavnost, natančnost, organiziranost (redna oddaja), študij literature, spletnih aplikacij in podobno.

Graf 8: Rezultati študentov pri oddaji 14. in 15. vaje v letu 2014. Povprečna ocena vaje glede na razrede doseženih točk



4. Sklep

Raziskava je potrdila prvo hipotezo o padanju prostorske predstave. Trend padanja ni strm niti zvezen, pač pa gre za velika nihanja med generacijami.

Raziskava je pokazala pričakovano razliko med moško in žensko populacijo in s tem potrdila ta del hipoteze. Ne glede na rezultate nekaterih drugih raziskav razlike med levičarji in desničarji zaenkrat nismo zaznali.

Primerjava z rezultati pri delu na FA je pokazala zanimiva dejstva. Vpliv na kolo-kvije, zlasti drugega je majhen. To lahko deloma pripišemo dejstvu, da MRT pokriva področje miselne rotacije, ostala pa ne oziroma bistveno slabše. Temu pritrjujejo tudi primerjava rezultatov vaj, kjer je potrebna spretnost prostorske rotacije. Tam študenti, ki so se izkazali pri MRT, bolje rešijo tudi šolske vaje. Tretja hipoteza je torej deloma potrjena, a le v delu, ki je bližje vsebini MRT.

Raziskava je pokazala tudi omejitve, ki jih prinaša MRT test zaradi ozkosti področja prostorske predstave, ki ga pokriva. Področje prostorske predstave tako še naprej predstavlja izziv za raziskave, v katere bo treba vključiti še nekatere druge teste glede zagotavljanja celostnega pogleda na to področje.

Domen Kušar, PhD, Mateja Volgemut

Significance and monitoring of spatial perception in students of architecture

Spatial perception is an area of human abilities. It is vital for understanding the environment in which we move and exist. It is particularly important in decision-making on methods of spatial organisation, therefore, it is crucial for all the participants in the process. The research results, focused on answering a range of questions related to this phenomenon, also open up a series of new questions.

The Faculty of architecture at the University of Ljubljana is an institution educating people to work with space. To this end, it performs two study programmes: the Master's study programme in Architecture and the 2-level study programme in Urban planning. Since 1999, every year the Faculty of architecture has tested first-year students for spatial perception. The paper (which is part of a wider several-year-long research study on designing a quality living environment in Slovenia) analyses the students' spatial perception and its influence in the education process, i.e. in the subject of Descriptive geometry.

The creation of a living environment entails different professions and their interests, wishes and capabilities. Hence, the ability to understand a certain project in real space with all the resulting consequences is a very demanding task. The current technology enables excellent computer simulations of the future; however, to understand the spatial placement of a structure, it is also vital to have a sound spatial perception.

Spatial intelligence, which includes spatial perception, is an integral part of human abilities. These also comprise linguistic, logical-mathematical, bodily-kinaesthetic, naturalistic, musical-rhythmic and harmonic, and personal intelligence. The study of spatial perception is a relatively young discipline. The pioneer in researching this area was Sir Francis Galton (Mohrer, 2008), who reported his experimental research on mental perception in 1880. For the next period of research, it is essential to confirm the existence of spatial perception as separated from the general intelligence, namely by using psychometric studies.

The expression “spatial perception” covers a wide area comprising a range of skills. The result is an appellation combining different combinations of the words “visual” and “spatial” with “notion”, “ability”, “orientation”, “perception”, “detection” and similar in order to more accurately define each spatial ability element. This has produced some confusion due to the different appellation of component parts, most likely as a result of using different analysis techniques, extending to this day. Hence, this article uses the term “spatial perception” as a generally recognised term, irrespective of the fact that the selected Mental Rotation Test (hereinafter: MRT) covers only part of the broader area of spatial perception, i.e. mental rotation.

The development of the spatial perception study also entailed the development of measuring instruments. The first better known test, i.e. the Mental Cutting Test (hereinafter: MCT), was developed in 1931, while Shepard and Metzler developed the rotation test (MRT) in 1971 (1971). Both tests are generally applicable, despite the fact that they were quite specialised for certain areas. The MRT is more specialised in the spatial perceptions of rotation and mirroring, while MCT specialises in the relations between plain and structure. The DAT (Differential Aptitude Test, developed in 1990) and TPS (Spatial Imagination Test, developed in 2003) (Juscakova and Gorska, 2007) aim to cover the overall evaluation of spatial perception. All the tests have been subjected to development and improvements. Suzuki and Shiina (1999) transformed and refined the MRT, standardising the difficulty of each case.

Spatial perception research normally involves a one-time event aiming to capture a certain population in a defined and locally limited area. Test results are mostly similar and show a difference between genders and progress after a year of studies (Leopold et al., 2001). There have been only a few long-term research studies in spatial perception, and even these are limited to a short period of time, e.g. 2 years (Takeyama et al., 1999). The reasons for this situation lie in the multitude of factors influencing the development of spatial perception over generations. At the same time, to make a realistic comparison, it is necessary to have the same testing conditions, meaning that the various improvements to the tests may be questioned in such a case, irrespective of the advantages gained. For these reasons, the conditions for performing the test at the Faculty of architecture of the University of Ljubljana (hereinafter: FA) were set in 1999 and have been strictly followed since then, enabling us to make a realistic comparison of generations.

The tested population of the first-year FA students is interesting, because the FA educates the largest number of architects in Slovenia. There is a great interest in en-

rolment in the FA, despite the poor employment situation. Consequently, the FA holds additional qualifying examinations, based on which only the best candidates or, rather, the candidates with the best spatial perception are admitted (Kušar, 2004). It may, therefore, be reasonably inferred that the FA students represent the best part of its generation in terms of spatial perception.

In our research, three hypotheses were set up.

H1: The data provided by various experts show a decrease in spatial perception. On the one hand, the modern lifestyle requires fewer skills to move and orientate in space, since various electronic devices have replaced that skill. On the other hand, however, it has been noticed that young people spend more time in front of display screens, and as a result, less time is spent on games requiring spatial perception. It is therefore expected that spatial perception decreases over a long period of time.

H2: Most research studies confirm the differences between the female and male population (Tutsumi et al., 2005), and between left- and right-handed persons (Holder, 1997). The latter is substantiated by the difference in the use of brain hemispheres. Hence, left-handed persons are considered having better spatial perception than right-handed persons, and due to this fact, there should also be a larger share of left-handed persons among architects than in the remaining population. The researched sought to verify these claims.

H3: Descriptive Geometry is a subject that aims to develop spatial perception (Saito et al., 1998). This primarily means that in order to be successful in the subject, it is necessary to develop the skills captured in the broader sense of spatial management, in manipulation of elements within a space, and in the presentation of space and elements within a space on what is normally a 2-dimensional medium. The research on the success of different methods to improve spatial perception proved that it is possible to improve the skill with certain tasks that come close to structures in descriptive geometry. Here, the problem was set vice versa, i.e. whether students with better spatial perception also have better grades in tutorials, midterm exams or exams.

Annually, at the beginning of the academic year, the FA conducts a spatial perception test with first-year students. The testing has been conducted since 1999. To this end, the MRT has been used. Regardless of the possibilities provided by information technology, the method of performing the test has remained the same since its beginning, providing suitable conditions for evaluation and comparison of results. Test sheets are assessed using the criteria given in the instructions for completion. This is done despite the fact that some other method of assessment may provide better results, considering the normal distribution of results (Bolcskei et al, 2013), than expected for the area.

The results were statistically evaluated according to the set hypotheses. The trend line showing an increase/decrease in spatial perception was made with respect to the average grade of the population or the segments of female and male population.

Between 1999 and 2014, 2419 students took the tests, 1379 of whom were female and 1041 were male. The number of students by year fluctuated from 128 in 2002 to 197 in 2010. Since 2010, the number of students has decreased. Throughout the period, more

female students than male students attended the tests. This is due to the fact that more female students enrol in the FA.

The research confirmed the first hypothesis on the decline of spatial perception. The declining trend is not steep or continuous, but involves significant fluctuations between generations.

The research revealed the expected difference between the male and female population, thus confirming that part of the hypothesis. Regardless of the results of some other studies, no differences were detected between left-handed and right-handed persons.

The comparison with the results achieved during work at the FA revealed some interesting facts. The influence on midterm exams, particularly the second one, is small. This can partly be attributed to the fact that the MRT covers the area of mental rotation, while other areas are not covered at all or only slightly. This was also confirmed by comparing the results achieved in exercises requiring the spatial rotation skills. Students who performed well at MRT also performed the exercises better. The third hypothesis was thus partially confirmed, but only in the part closer to the MRT content. The research also revealed the limitations of the MRT due to the narrow area of spatial perception it covers. The area of spatial perception hence continues to pose a challenge for research studies, which will need to include some other tests in terms of providing an overall perspective of the area.

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Citizenship education in Great Britain

Strokovni članek

UDK 37.016:172(410)

KLJUČNE BESEDE: državljanska vzgoja, nacionalni kurikulum, Crickovo poročilo, T.H. Marshall-ov koncept, Velika Britanija

POVZETEK – Namen prispevka je predstaviti filozofsko, politično in psihološko razpravo o državljanski vzgoji v Veliki Britaniji. Ključni argument prispevka je, da je bila uvedba državljanske vzgoje politično dejanje, ki zahteva podporo vseh sektorjev družbe. Kljub temu, da državljanska vzgoja predstavlja pomemben cilj šolanja, obstaja razkorak med načelnim in dejanskim izvajanjem. Da bi podprli slednjo trditve, je v prispevku uporabljena teoretično deskriptivna in empirično komparativna metoda. Razprava o sodobni državljanski vzgoji v Veliki Britaniji je pokazala, da še vedno obstajajo pomisleki v kontekstu zahodnih liberalnih demokracijah, kjer univerzalna ideja državljanstva zagotavlja prostor za demokratično udeležbo v družbi, in verjetnost, da bodo nekatere etnične skupine še vedno spregledane, marginalizirane in diskriminirane.

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ABSTRACT – The aim of the study is to discuss philosophical, political and psychological debates concerning citizenship education in Great Britain. The key argument of the study is that the introduction of citizenship education was a political act requiring the support of all sectors of society and even when civics and citizenship education is recognised as an important aim of the school, there is a gap between declarations of principle and actual implementation of civic-related policies. To support this argument, we will draw on relevant research literature as well as contemporary research findings from major studies. In the discussion of contemporary citizenship education in Great Britain, the study has shown that these considerations are still very relevant in the context of Western liberal democracies where universalist notions of citizenship certainly ensure a space for democratic co-participation in society. However, the study has pointed out that there is likely to be a majoritarian bias in this approach that will discriminate certain groups in society.

1. Introduction

The report, entitled “Education for Citizenship and the Teaching of Democracy in Schools” (Advisory Group on Citizenship 1998, widely known and hereafter referred to as the Crick’s Report) was issued in September 1998. The report proved influential and the subsequent launch of citizenship education in schools, on a pilot basis from 2000 and with a permanent status in secondary schools from September 2002, drew on many of the report’s recommendations. The Crick Report defines citizenship education in terms of social and moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy and argues that citizenship can be taught as a separate subject or as

a cross-curricular dimension in, for example, personal, social and health education, history, geography or religious education (Advisory Group on Citizenship, 1998).

The report sparked many and diverse reactions. Among those more celebratory, Kisby (2007, p. 84) optimistically declares that the ambitious aim of citizenship education “is no less than a change in the political culture of this country both nationally and locally: for people to think of themselves as active citizens, willing, able and equipped to have an influence in public life”.

First, we will provide a brief historical overview of ideas related to citizenship education. Next, the development of political education, including citizenship education, in the British context during the 20th century will be reviewed on the basis of literature research. Afterwards, we will present T.H. Marshall’s conception of citizenship and some of the critiques that arose against it. However, Marshall’s ideas have proven particularly trenchant in the British context since it provided the basis for the Crick Report. This report, its translation into citizenship education in the National Curriculum is the subject of the subsequent section where the critique will also be discussed. Finally, the conclusion will be drawn from the implications of the findings, with deductions based on the facts described in the main body.

2. A brief historical overview

The hubristic character of statements such as Kisby’s (2007) is revealed when they are assessed against the historic development of the idea of citizenship education. Citizenship as an educational aim of the state is not a new idea and debates surrounding it have a very long history. The study of politics and civil life began with Aristotle who observed that the “nature of citizenship ... is a question which is often disputed: there is no general agreement on a single definition” (Aristotle, n.d., in: Oliver & Heater, 1994, p. 11). Indeed, the term and not least its purpose in the context of education has remained ambiguous as well as contested ever since.

The distinctive approaches to education in ancient Sparta and Athens highlight the historical connections between education, warfare and the power issues at play in democratic development. Heater (2002) points out that Sparta was the first state to devise a coherent programme of training for its cadet-citizens with the purpose to prepare them for their military duties. Here they learnt about past heroic deeds and were submitted to demanding training in military skills. As a consequence, the Spartiates became a cadre of citizens of unquestioning loyalty and at the peak of their physical fitness. On the other hand, in Athens, which was the rival of Sparta, education for citizenship was traditionally the responsibility of the family and the wealthier employing tutors. However, as Athens became a democratic state, schools were founded to cover the basic need for education.

Much later, in the Middle Ages, Plato's and Aristotle's still powerful works were revived in Latin translations (for example, Plato's "Republic" and Aristotle's "Politics") and secular teachers in Florence informed their pupils about citizenship as practised in Sparta, Athens and Republican Rome.

In the 18th century, the writer Livy coined an idea about the concept of civic virtue for the boys in secondary schools in France. Furthermore, a flowery (it was written for an oratory competition) presentation of the case for citizenship education was given by a priest Father Navarre: "Why should our children not learn from their teachers to be not only sociable beings and Christians, but also citizens? Why should not literacy education serve to multiply the prodigy of political virtues? Why should so many arid and so unfruitful studies neglected the sublime duty to one's country?" (Navarre, n.d., in: Heater, 2002, p. 462). Although the schemes of these writers were echoed in the plans produced during the French Revolution, they were not that radical. Even though Napoleon Bonaparte was very benevolent to moral and political education during the "Revolution" it took another century before civic education was introduced in schools.

In the end of 19th century, Jules Ferry, then a Minister of Public Instruction, created a national system of secular primary schools and helped introduce the secular moral education and the subject *l'instruction civique* which was two years later announced as mandatory. Referring to the law, he wrote a letter to all primary school teachers: "Of the diverse obligations it imposes on you, assuredly the one nearest your heart, the one which brings you the heaviest increase in work and anxiety, is your mission to instruct your pupils in ethics and citizenship." (Buisson and Farrington, 1920, pp. 5–6, in: Heater, 2002, p. 465).

3. British approaches to citizenship education in the 20th century

Heater (2001) argues that England has no tradition of asking relevant questions about citizenship at the level of serious political discussion. He suggests that there are three causes for the failure of England to establish a tradition of citizenship education. These causes may be understood as associated with political, social and pedagogical issues respectively. Obviously, these issues are closely intertwined, feeding on each other. The political causes include the limited nature of democracy in Great Britain, the lack of any developed consciousness of citizenship, and the fear that schools might become the forums of destabilizing indoctrination. Political traditions in Great Britain are thus based on a limited model of democracy and quite different from the "educated public" that is a precondition for a more developed democratic society based on the agency of the individual citizen. The social causes include the country's class divisions which are replicated in the education system with its separate elitist educational institutions. This division nourish a general apathy towards political matters, especially among young people. Finally, the pedagogical causes include

the absence of any specialist professional training for teachers, and teachers' general nervousness about handling controversial subject-matter that might provoke accusations of bias or indoctrination.

During the 1970s, political education began to develop in Great Britain. Davies (1999) argues that the lowering of the age of maturity to 18 in 1970 was an important factor for this development. For the first time, sixth formers and others in full-time education were to be allowed to vote. In addition, research relating to political socialisation, in general as well as focusing specifically on children, constituted an important basis. These research findings indicated the notion that politics was something that children knew nothing about and should at best be left to be discussed within the private world of families. Therefore, it should be dispelled since political messages were contained in school texts, and children could also understand political concepts. Against this background, acceptance of the need for more explicit political education began to be taken more seriously, not least when key politicians finally took note of the alarming research findings pointing to the widespread political ignorance among young people.

Furthermore, as part of a bottom-up development, schools in especially the urban areas of England from the 1970s began to consider the political dimension in curriculum developments such as "peace education", "anti-sexist education", "multicultural education" and "anti-racist education" (McLaughlin 2000). These "adjectival" forms of political education reflected that schools sought to address contemporary societal issues and to negotiate the discrepancy between the traditional Anglo-centric school curriculum and the increasing diversity among pupils (Davies 1999).

Citizenship education was indeed introduced as a cross-curricular element in the National Curriculum with the Education Reform Act 1988. However, like the other cross-curricular elements (economic and industrial understanding; careers education and guidance; health education and environmental education), citizenship education did not have any real impact in school practices throughout the 1990s due to the statutory requirements of the overloaded and otherwise subject-based National Curriculum and the competitive pressures stemming from the expansive assessment framework (Ball, 1990; Chitty, 2004; Figueroa, 2004; Wolf, 2002).

T.H. Marshall's concept of citizenship

In the mid-20th century, the historical development of the sociological concept of citizenship began with the theories of Thomas Humphrey Marshall (1893–1982). Marshall was a significant British sociologist, mostly noted for his essays (e.g. *Citizenship and Social Class*, 1950). He associated the notion of citizenship as being closely related to the gradual and contested development of civil, political and social rights. Marshall's theory was thus specifically focused on the relations between social class, the welfare state and the transformation of capitalism from the years of industrialisation to the booming economy after the Second World War. Marshall argued

that civil and political rights established before the end of the 19th century, such as freedom of expression and the right to vote, were augmented in the 20th century by the development of social rights, which were institutionalised through the creation of the welfare state, the National Health Service and public education. For Marshall, the inequalities of capitalism were in this way both reduced in significance and legitimised by the addition of social rights to the citizenship “package” (Faulks, 2006).

Marshall distinguished between the three dimensions of civil, political and social citizenship in this package. Marshall’s approach to citizenship was based upon the idea that membership in a society rests on the principle of formal equality. The development of citizenship rights is thus closely related to the increase of societal equality. In the 18th century, Marshall identified the development of individual civil rights and the civil dimension of citizenship, including the rights to property, individual freedom and legal protection. He saw the 19th century as crucial for the development of political rights and the political dimension of citizenship, including participation in the public arena, the right to vote, and participation in the political decision-making process. Finally, in the 20th century, the development of social rights took place. The social dimension of citizenship for example included the right to income and decent housing, health care and basic education for all.

However, Marshall’s view of citizenship has been criticised on a number of grounds. First, the spatial limits of his conceptualisation have been pointed out. Turner (1990), for example, argued that Marshall’s ideas were Anglo-centric since they synthesised the growth of citizenship rights in the particular British context. Second, Marshall’s focus on formal equality was attacked for disguising the structural inequalities and discrimination inherent to capitalist society (Hindes 1993). Third, and related to the second criticism, Marshall’s ideas were accused of an emphasis on liberal universalism. These criticisms might be seen as related to the particular “cultural politics” of class, gender, sexuality and “race” emerging from the late 1960s in Western liberal democracies. In this manner, Turner (1990, 1997) argued that Marshall’s account of the development and maintenance of citizenship is inadequate since he viewed citizens as a homogenous group and did not consider the pluralist nature of most societies, including the conditions for indigenous people and women. In the same manner, Hindes (1993) raises the question of whether there is only one view of citizenship and put forward the idea that Marshall’s model misrepresents the role of values in social life.

Despite these criticisms, which together might be understood as misguided readings of Marshall’s conceptualisation as a generalised teleology of democratic development, Marshall’s theory has remained influential in setting an agenda concerning the study of citizenship. Bachman and Staerkle (2003) thus argue that many scholars equate genuine citizenship with the full possession of civil, political and social rights, and thereby use Marshall’s conceptualisation as a framework for the study of political rights and democratic governance. As will be shown in the following chapter, Marshall’s ideas also provided the basis for the Crick Report which proved crucial for the

introduction of Citizenship Education as a mandatory subject in the English National Curriculum.

The Crick report, citizenship education and the critiques

Bernard Rowland Crick (1929–2008) was one of the leading figures in the political education initiatives of the 1970s. Already at this point, and unlike his often more particularistic contemporaries, Crick was oriented towards the more universalist approach of supporting young people in becoming “politically literate” (Davies, 1999). Crick’s orientation was also clearly visible in the Crick Report (Advisory Group on Citizenship, 1998), which presents Marshall’s conception of citizenship as its centre-piece.

In addition to Marshall’s conception of citizenship, Kerr (2003) points out that the working group took into consideration the definitions of citizenship education put forward from the late 1980s by the Conservative Government as well as the reflections of contemporary social theorists such as Will Kymlicka, Anthony Giddens, and Ulrich Beck. The Crick Report is therefore the end result of reconciling somewhat contradictory elements. The former Conservative Government championed the self-interested consumer culture of the neo-liberal market place as well as the good-natured emphasis on the civics obligation of “active citizenship”. These priorities were to be merged with the philosophical re-definition of the concept of citizenship for a more contingent and self-reflective post-modern world. On this shaky ground, the Crick Report’s conception of citizenship education focused on four particular aspects, namely: rights and responsibilities, access, belonging, and other identities.

Kerr (2003) and Landrum (2002) both point out that the Crick Report is based on three interdependent strands for the “effective education for citizenship”. Firstly, there is social and moral responsibility, with children learning from the very beginning and exercising self-confidence as well as socially and morally responsible behaviour both in and beyond the classroom, both towards those in authority and towards each other. This is essentially a pre-condition for the other two strands. Secondly, the community involvement, with pupils learning about and becoming involved in the life and concerns of their communities, including learning through the community involvement and service. Thirdly, political literacy, with pupils learning about conflict resolution and decision-making and how to make themselves effective in public life through knowledge, skills and values. “Public life” should here be understood in its broadest sense, that is, encompassing issues at local, national, European or global level, as the quotation above also indicates.

Although the Crick Report was criticised on various grounds, its content and recommendations were generally well received (McLaughlin, 2000). Subsequently, the report proved crucial for the introduction and formation of the subject Citizenship Education in the National Curriculum in 2002. The recommendations of the Crick Report thus provided a basis for guidelines and programmes of study in primary and

secondary education. For primary level, i.e. key stages 1 and 2 (ages 5–7 and 7–11) only non-statutory guidelines without attainment targets were issued for Citizenship Education. At the secondary level, guidelines are statutory with programmes of study prescribing knowledge about matters such as: rights and responsibilities, justice systems, diversity of identities, mutual respect and understanding, government, the public services, elections and democracy, conflict resolution, the media, international relations, and global interdependence (Figueroa, 2004).

In that respect, Osler and Starkey (2006) make an interesting point that it is significant that the publication of the Crick Report and introduction of citizenship education took place during a major period of constitutional reform. They point to three important events: implementation of the Human Rights Act in 1998, which incorporates the European Convention on Human Rights into the UK law; devolved Government with the establishment of a Scottish Parliament and a Welsh Assembly, the new settlement between Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and, finally, further devolution at the regional level as evident in the creation of an assembly and elected mayor for London, as well as in the election of mayors for other major towns and cities. Against this background, Osler and Starkey (*ibid.*) argue that these political and constitutional developments encourage and even call for debate about the meanings of nationality, national identity and citizenship and the extent to which individuals and groups from both majority and minority communities feel a sense of belonging to the nation and State.

Not surprisingly, due to its philosophical basis, the various critiques which have been raised against the Crick Report's conception of citizenship education and its subsequent institutionalisation in the school curriculum recall the most common critiques of Marshall's ideas and their emphasis on universal formal equality. In that respect, it is somewhat ironical, that authors like Kiwan (2008) employ Marshall's ideas to criticise the Crick Report on the same grounds as the most common critiques of Marshall's ideas. Thus, Kiwan (*ibid.*) claims that Marshall's central concern with social inclusion is not adequately developed or emphasised in the report, despite its potential for broadening the scope of citizenship through active participation.

The more substantial critiques of the Crick Report discuss the shortcomings of the universalist notion of citizenship, the straitjacket it imposes on "identities" and social values in society and the associated risks for institutional and personal discrimination. In the following section some of these critiques will be presented and discussed. We have chosen to focus on the critiques referring to the implications of the multicultural development of the British society. Many of these critiques draw on philosophical currents such as (multi-)interculturalism, which have been elaborated by scholars such as Bhikhu Parekh (2000) and Jagdish Gundara (2000). The central argument of both Parekh and Gundara is that the fact of cultural diversity in Western liberal democracies makes it necessary, in a democratic perspective, to question the bias in the societies' cultural orientation in order to address the connections between ethnicity, social rights and discrimination.

Concerning the Crick Report, the critique from a multicultural perspective address the effects of “colour-blindness” stemming from the report’s emphasis on the Universalist notion of citizenship education. Osler (2000) and Olssen (2004) thus both argue that the Crick Report downplayed the respect for cultural diversity and the need for recognition of minority cultures since the report does not explicitly consider the implications of ethnic and religious diversity for citizenship education. They propose the substantial criticism that this approach reflect the liberal underpinnings of the report. Thus, Osler (*ibid.*) and Olssen (*ibid.*) suggest that “iberals” like Bernard Crick were suspicious of the demand to preserve sub-cultures, the “politics of recognition” and group-differentiated rights. In the same manner, Osler and Starkey (2006) criticise that the Crick Report makes very few references to cultural diversity and minorities. This also implies that there are very few references to racism. Osler and Starkey (*ibid.*) argue that the report indeed treats certain ethnicities with an arrogant cultural paternalism when it finally discusses “cultural diversity”. In this way, the report links diversity with problems and conflicts. The aspirations of the Report to be “inclusive” thus fall flat since the spirit of inclusion does not extend to ethnic minorities who are represented as not necessarily reliable in conforming to laws, standards, customs and conventions of a democratic society.

Against this background, Figueroa (2004) recapitulates the various criticisms when he argues that the Crick Report fails to address what citizenship education means in a society with cultural diversity. The result is that minorities are not presented as an integral part of British society and the “common sense” national identity. Furthermore, power issues and discrimination are toned down and minorities are silenced and have no role in determining the shape of the society and its ideals, values and rules. Thus, while the ideas of active participation as part of citizenship education would seem to hold some theoretical potential for a gradual accommodation of ethnic and religious diversity in society, the criticisms mentioned above all refer to the basic argument that the universalist notion of citizenship put forward by the Crick Report disguises the majoritarian bias in the cultural orientation of British society and therefore might exacerbate tensions in British society and ultimately prove counter-productive for democratic development.

4. Conclusion

Citizenship as an educational aim of the state is not a new idea, and debates surrounding it have a very long history. The beginning of this study referred to the ancient roots of education for citizenship in Sparta and Athens. Following a long period of general neglect towards political education in Great Britain during the mid-20th century, various particularistic forms of political education emerged as part of a bottom-up development from the 1970s, focusing on gender, peace and “race” issues. In response, Margaret Thatcher’s Conservative government passed the Education Re-

form Act in 1988 (widely regarded as the most important single piece of education legislation in England, Wales and Northern Ireland), which introduced citizenship education as a cross-curricular element. However, this element remained marginalised in practice during the 1990s due to the combination of a subject-based and prescriptive National Curriculum, strengthened assessment and market exposure. In 1998, under the New Labour government of Tony Blair, the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority issued “Education for Citizenship and the Teaching of Democracy in Schools”. This report, which became known as the Crick Report after the chairman of the working group/commission, was generally received well. Subsequently, the recommendations of the Crick Report were translated into a non-statutory subject in primary and a statutory subject in secondary schools since September 2002. However, a number of criticisms have been raised against the Crick Report. This study has argued that these criticisms to a great extent recall those also raised against T. H. Marshall’s conception of citizenship, mainly pointing out the shortcomings of a Universalist notion of citizenship in dealing with cultural diversity. In that respect, the study for example referred to Figueroa (2004) who argues that the Crick Report failed to address ethnic minorities as an integral part of the British society and constitutive of its national identity.

The study points out that it is very likely that there are tensions between ensuring the loyalty of (future) citizens and democracy, since the latter is shot through with power issues concerning the continuous definition of values and social norms of society. Through the discussion of contemporary citizenship education in Great Britain, the study shows that these considerations are still very relevant in the context of Western liberal democracies where universalist notions of citizenship certainly ensure a space for democratic co-participation in society. However, the study also points out that there is likely to be a majoritarian bias in this approach that will discriminate certain groups in society. Thus, in contemporary “knowledge society”, education does not primarily serve the classical military aims. However, loyalty to and identification with the common national project must still be ensured to facilitate the smooth operation of the national business unit and enhance its competitiveness in the global marketplace. In an increasingly borderless and contingent world, citizenship education thus serves to maintain a sense of social order and make people actively engaged in working in the same direction, also in public life. In order to secure the best citizenship outcomes for young people, there is a need to adopt a holistic approach that includes not just educational measures, but also some initiatives to tackle the broader social, political, and cultural challenges to citizenship.

Dr. Andreja Sinjur

Državljska vzgoja v Veliki Britaniji

Državljanstvo kot izobraževalni cilj države v Veliki Britaniji ni nova ideja. Razprave, ki potekajo okrog tega, niso značilne le za današnji čas, temveč imajo že dolgo zgodovino. Začetki segajo že v čas Špante in Aten. Značilni pristopi do izobraževanja v antični Šparti in Atenah izpostavljajo zgodovinske povezave med vprašanji izobraževanja, blaginjo in močjo v razvoju demokracije. Heater (2002) opozarja, da je bila Šparta prva država, ki je razvila usklajen program usposabljanja svojih kadetov (državljanov) z namenom, da bi jih pripravili za vojaške dolžnosti, medtem ko je bilo izobraževanje za državljanstvo v Atenah tradicionalno stvar in odgovornost družine. Kljub temu so šole v Atenah pokrivalo osnovne potrebe po izobraževanju. Veliko kasneje, v srednjem veku, so oživela Platonova in Aristotlova dela v latinskih prevodih (npr. Platonova "Republika" in Aristotlova "Politika"). Tako so učitelji svoje učence v Firencah obveščali (učili) o državljanstvu na način, ki je bil značilen za Šparto, Atene in Rim. V 18. stoletju je pisatelj Livy skoval idejo o konceptu državljskih vrednot za dečke v srednjih šolah v Franciji, duhovnik Navarre pa je rekel: "Zakaj se ne bi naši otroci učili tudi tega, da nismo samo družabna bitja in kristjani, temveč tudi državljani?" (Navarre, b. d, v: Heater, 2002, str. 462). Tudi Napoleon Bonaparte je bil zelo naklonjen vzgoji za državljanstvo, pa vendar je trajalo še dobro stoletje, preden so državljsko vzgojo uvedli v šolah. Ob koncu 19. stoletja je takratni minister za javno šolstvo Jules Ferry ustanovil nacionalni sistem posvetnih osnovnih šol in pomagal pri uvedbi moralne vzgoje in predmeta Navodila za državljanstvo, ki je dve leti pozneje postal obvezen predmet v šolah (Buisson in Farrington 1920, str. 5–6, v: Heater, 2002, str. 465). Po dolgem obdobju splošnega zanemarjanja političnega izobraževanja v Veliki Britaniji do sredine 20. stoletja – v smislu poučevanja in učenja, so se pojavile različne oblike političnega izobraževanja s poudarkom na enakosti spolov, miru in etnične enakopravnosti. Državljska vzgoja v Veliki Britaniji se je delno enačila z moralno vzgojo, kjer naj bi se zavest o vzornem državljanu prenašala v predmete medkurikularno. Državljska vzgoja se je v sedemdesetih letih 20. stoletja izvajala v okviru družboslovnih predmetov, s čimer so želeli izobraziti in navdušiti mlade ljudi za aktivno vlogo v družbi. Izraz državljanstvo in državljan so v angleški kurikulum vnesli šele konec devetdesetih let. Državljska vzgoja je v kurikulum stopila najprej kot projekt politične pismenosti, utemeljena na pojmu aktivni državljan. Pomemben premik je bil tudi razvoj ideje o aktivni vlogi učencev in dijakov. V Beli knjigi Odličnost v šolstvu je takratni državni sekretar za izobraževanje in delo David Blunket poudaril potrebo po vzgoji za državljanstvo in poučevanju o demokraciji v šolah.

Ključen trenutek za vpeljavo državljske vzgoje, kot predmeta v del izobraževalnega programa, je bila uvedba sistema nacionalnega kurikuluma, ki ga je britanska konservativna vlada pod vodstvom Margaret Thatcher vpeljala z reformnim zakonom o izobraževanju leta 1988. Državljska vzgoja kot predmet takrat sicer še ni bil uveden, vendar je nacionalni kurikulum postavil osnovni temelj, ki je bil nekakšna osnova sistematičnosti

izobraževalnega sistema, institucije pa je pri izvajanjih predmeta usmerjala tudi v vsebinskem smislu. Kljub temu je državljanska vzgoja ostala zapostavljena v praksi. Leta 1998 je Nova delavska stranka pod vlado Tonyja Blaira izdala dokument *Vzgoja za državljanstvo in učenje demokracije v šolah*, ki je bil zelo dobro sprejet. To je dokument, ki je znan tudi kot *Crickovo poročilo*. Crickovo poročilo je izpostavilo razliko med pasivnim in aktivnim državljanstvom ter definiralo tri pomembne niše vzgoje za državljanstvo:

- družbeno in moralno odgovornost,
- učenje v skupnosti in
- politično pismenost.

Crickovo poročilo temelji na treh neodvisnih sklopih "učinkovitega izobraževanja za državljanstvo", in sicer na:

- socialni in moralni odgovornosti, pri kateri je poudarek na vzpodbujanju in prepričanju v lastne sposobnosti, ki bi lahko vplivale in spreminjale okolje ter skupnost, v kateri živimo;
- na vključitev v skupnost, pri kateri je poudarek na vključevanju v lokalno in drugo okolje; na pridobivanju osnovnega znanja o "primernem" obnašanju v družbi in prevzemanju odgovornosti za svoja dejanja, kjer se učenci seznanjajo z različnimi pogledi, vrednotami in potrebami ljudi ter se (na)učijo ponuditi pomoč, ko jo drugi potrebujejo ter
- na politični pismenosti, pri kateri je poudarek na reševanju konfliktov in uporabi znanja, veščin in vrednot v javnem življenju.

Javno življenje je tu treba razumeti v najširšem pomenu besede – vključevanje in reševanje vprašanj na lokalni, nacionalni, evropski in globalni ravni (Kerr, 2003; Landrum, 2002). Figueroa (2004) trdi, da *Crickovo poročilo* ne obravnava etničnih manjšin kot sestavnega dela britanske družbe. Osler (2000) in Olssen (2004) pa *Poročilu* očitata tudi "barvno slepoto", saj *Poročilo* ne naslavlja izrecno etnične in verske raznolikosti.

Državljska vzgoja je v okviru nacionalnega kurikulumata tako postala obvezen predmet na sekundarni stopnji izobraževanja leta 2002. V času primarnega izobraževanja pa so osnove državljanske vzgoje vključene v neobvezni predmet *Osebnostno, družbeno in zdravstveno izobraževanje*. Najpomembnejša splošna cilja predmeta sta moralni, kulturni, duhovni in osebni razvoj učencev v šolskem in širšem družbenem okolju ter priprava učencev na izkušnje in priložnosti, ki jih bodo imeli v življenju ter prevzemanje odgovornosti v obdobju odraslosti (Eurydice, 2005). Sklep, ki je določil uvedbo predmeta, je na dveh straneh besedila določil štiri elemente predmeta:

- znanje in razumevanje,
- kako postati obveščeni državljan,
- veščine raziskovanja in komunikacije ter
- veščine vključenosti in odgovornega vedenja.

Kljub temu so bile izražene številne kritike. Te kritike v veliki meri spominjajo že na kritike T. H. Marshall-ovega koncepta državljanstva, kjer so opozarjali na pomanjkljivosti univerzalističnega pojma državljanstva, ki se ukvarja s kulturno raznolikostjo.

Marshallov koncept državljanstva sloni na univerzalnih (socialnih) pravicah, ki naj bi zagotavljale "enakost statusa" in tako zmanjševale neenakosti kot posledice kapitalističnega tržnega sistema. Marshall je delil državljanstvo oz. državljanske pravice v tri skupine, in sicer na:

- civilno državljanstvo, ki izpostavlja predvsem posameznikove temeljne pravice in svoboščine,
- politično državljanstvo, ki se osredotoča na posameznikovo udeležbo v javnih zadevah in njegove pravice ter
- socialno državljanstvo, ki temelji na posameznikovih pravicah do življenja.

V Veliki Britaniji se zavedajo, da je v nekaterih elementih državljanska vzgoja kot predmet premalo natančna ali eksplicitna. V ospredju tako ni velikega poudarka na spoznavanju (demokratičnih) političnih sistemov, političnih institucij in pravnih sistemov. Kljub temu in kljub zgornjim kritikam, pa poročilo o Državljanški vzgoji v šolah po Evropi, ki ga je izdal Eurydice (2005), kaže, da je Crickov (in s tem tudi v Marshall-ov) koncept državljanske vzgoje, zelo skladen z idejami državljanske vzgoje Eurydice-a. Na podlagi različnih praks v Evropi, to Poročilo povezuje državljansko vzgojo s tremi sklopi, in sicer

- s kritičnim mišljenjem in razvojem nekaterih stališč in vrednot,
- z aktivno udeležbo in
- s politično pismenostjo.

Državljanška vzgoja naj bi učence preskrbela z znanjem, veščinami in razumevanjem, ki bi jim pomagali pri uspešnem vključevanju v družbo na lokalni, nacionalni in globalni ravni. S tem jim pomaga, da postanejo informirani, razmišljajoči in odgovorni državljani, ki se zavedajo svojih pravic in dolžnosti. Obenem podpira duhovni, moralni in kulturni razvoj učencev s ciljem, da postanejo bolj samozavestni in odgovorni posamezniki v učilnici in izven nje. Nadalje jih spodbuja, da postanejo pomemben in koristen dejavnik tako v svoji šoli, kakor tudi v ožji in širši lokalni skupnosti ter svetu (*The National Curriculum for England: Citizenship, 1999, str. 12*). Na ta način angleška državljanska vzgoja v osnovi temelji na republikanskemu (Civic Republican) konceptu državljanstva, pri tem pa se osredotoča predvsem na državljansko participacijo (Kerr, 2003). Tako zastavljena državljanska vzgoja torej temelji na treh elementih državljanstva, ki odražajo Marshallovo klasično definicijo državljanstva – na civilnem, političnem in družbenem elementu. Vendar pa državljanska vzgoja v Angliji presega omenjeno Marshallovo definicijo državljanstva prav s tem, ko poudarja aktivno in odgovorno participacijo. To je tudi eden od treh glavnih ciljev in predviden rezultat uspešne državljanske vzgoje (*ibid.*). Druga dva cilja pa sta doseganje znanja in razumevanja, ki je potrebno za oblikovanje informiranih državljanov ter razvijanje veščin in komunikacije (*The National Curriculum for England: Citizenship, 1999, str. 6*).

Razprave o sodobni državljanski vzgoji v Veliki Britaniji kažejo, da še vedno obstajajo pomisleki v kontekstu zahodnih liberalnih demokracijah, kjer univerzalna ideja državljanstva sicer zagotavlja prostor za demokratično udeležbo v družbi, pa tudi verjetnost, da bodo nekatere etnične skupine še vedno spregledane, marginalizirane in

diskriminirane. Izsledki različnih empiričnih raziskav (npr. The 1999 IEA Civic Education Study, The International Civic and Citizenship education Study) tudi kažejo, da se državljanske prakse mladih spreminjajo. Na eni strani mladi ljudje sodelujejo kot odrasli aktivni državljani, na drugi strani pa prihaja do slabitve navezanosti na skupnost in do nihanja zaupanja v politični areni. Da bi državljanska vzgoja zagotovila najboljše rezultate, je treba upoštevati celosten pristop, ki bo vključeval ne le vzgojne ukrepe, temveč tudi nekatere pobude za reševanje širše družbene, politične in kulturne izzive državljanstva.

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