

Vsebina Contents

- Dr. Sonja Rutar* 3 **Spodbujanje participacije otrok v predšolski vzgoji in izobraževanju**
Promoting Children's Participation in Early Childhood Education and Care
- Bine Devjak,
dr. Sanja Berčnik* 22 **Pomen zdravstvene vzgoje in preventive v boju proti kariesu v predšolskem obdobju**
The Importance of Health Education and Prevention in the Fight against Caries in the Preschool Period
- Dr. Ana Kašček Bučinel* 37 **Glasba kot motivacijsko sredstvo za boljše gibalne rezultate otrok**
Music as a Motivational Tool for Better Motor Outcomes in Children
- Alja Krevel,
dr. Marjan Blažič,
dr. Bojan Kovačič* 53 **Glasbeno ustvarjalni učenci (6–11 let): vidik študentov razrednega pouka**
Musically Creative Pupils (Aged 6–11): Perspectives of Elementary Education Students
- Ada Pirš* 75 **Preizkusi znanja in nacionalna preverjanja znanja iz slovenščine**
Assessment Papers and National Assessment Papers in the Slovenian Language
- Dr. Biserka Kostadinovska-Stojchevska,
mag. Elena Shalevska* 93 **Vloga umetne inteligence pri podpori učencem z disleksijo, ki se učijo tujega jezika**
The Role of AI in Supporting Dyslexic Students in the Language Classroom
- Dr. Rea Lujčić Pikutić,
dr. Ivana Zovko,
Vesna Poljak* 103 **Vživetost in digitalno pripovedovanje zgodb pri poučevanju francoščine kot tujega jezika**
Flow and Digital Storytelling in Classes of French as a FL

- Jernej Čelofiga* **121 Študija motivacije srednješolcev in prepričanj učiteljev o motivaciji**
Learning Motivation and Function of Pronunciation for Students in German and English Classes
- Dr. Mojca Kukanja
Gabrijelčič,
Anja Zupanc,
dr. Maruška Željznov Seničar* **137 Razvoj kompetenčnega modela za svetovalne delavce**
Development of a Competency Model for School Counsellors
- Martina Kovačič,
dr. Jurka Lepičnik Vodopivec* **151 Starševska vpletenost kot dejavnik enakosti in pravičnosti v šoli**
Parental Involvement as a Factor of Equality and Justice in School
- Dr. Jerneja Jager,
mag. Mateja Režek* **164 Opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom v visokošolskem prostoru**
Observation with Reflective Discussion in a Higher Education Context
- Dr. Joca Zurc* **179 Kvalitativna paradigma pedagoškega raziskovanja v evalvaciji visokega šolstva**
A Qualitative Paradigm of Pedagogical Research in Higher Education Evaluation

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Promoting Children's Participation in Early Childhood Education and Care

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KLJUČNE BESEDE: kakovost v predšolski vzgoji, profesionalni razvoj, refleksija

POVZETEK – Participacija otrok je temeljno načelo sodobne vzgoje in izobraževanja. Za zagotovitev participacije otrok je bil razvit Model spodbujanja participacije otrok v predšolski vzgoji, ki vzgojiteljem omogoča samorefleksijo njihove prakse, analizo participacije otrok, poslušanje glasov otrok in staršev ter povezovanje participacije otrok s kakovostjo predšolske vzgoje. Namen prispevka je predstaviti rezultate raziskave – spoznanja o pomenu modela pri zagotavljanju priložnosti za participacijo otrok in o stanju participacije otrok v vrtcu. Izvedli smo kvalitativno študijo, ki je temeljila na večperspektivnem participatornem pristopu spodbujanja participacije otrok. Ugotovitve raziskave kažejo, da ima model velik potencial za raziskovanje in spodbujanje participacije otrok v vzgojno-izobraževalnih ustanovah v smislu omogočanja izražanja otrok in profesionalne refleksije strokovnih delavcev.

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ABSTRACT – Children's participation is a fundamental principle of contemporary education. To ensure children's participation, a Model for Promoting Children's Participation in Early Childhood Education and Care has been developed that enables educators to self-reflect on their practice, analyse children's participation, listen to children's and parents' voices, and link children's participation to the quality of early childhood education and care. The aim of the paper is to present findings regarding the importance of the model for promoting children's participation in early childhood education and care and the current state of children's participation. The qualitative study is based on the multi-perspective participatory approach to promoting children's participation in action. The findings suggest that the model has great potential for researching and promoting children's participation in early childhood education and care (ECEC) settings, especially children's expression and teachers' professional reflection.

1 Introduction

One of the greatest pedagogical challenges since the adoption of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) is the question of how to ensure and promote children's expression and participation in education from preschool onwards. In particular, this requires promoting teachers' reflection on practices while also providing adequate expertise and support for all kindergarten practitioners. In the discourse on children's needs, where adults have control and power over relations in education, children cannot become the agents or subjects of their own lives. Rather, adults are often seen as experts and masters of children's lives. This is especially true in traditional teaching practice in kindergartens and schools, where teachers start the lesson with the motivation prepared for children, continue to teach new things, and end by checking how much the children have understood and retained from the activity. This didactic structure has a history of achiev-

ing results: knowledge, skills, attitudes and values acquisition, which is planned and expected as a result of the teaching/learning process. So, why should this be changed?

The need for change is grounded in the assertion that children have the right to participate in education and other areas of private or public life as the subjects and agents of their own lives. Children should be the subject of the educational process as well as the subject of their everyday and public lives (health care, media, social care, etc.). Becoming subjects or agents (Oswell, 2013) in everyday life and learning situations, where the difference between teachers and children is not just declarative or symbolic but obvious because of children's biological need to be cared for, is complicated. Further, children yearn for positive recognition, but also for comfort, warmth and close relationships (Smith et al., 2017). They want to be visible, listened to, heard, and to relate to others (Allen et al., 2022).

It is commonly acknowledged that children's participation starts with the teachers' reflection on their role in the classroom (Kangas et al., 2016), especially regarding their values, professional identity, the goal of education (Korthagen, 2017) and what they believe is important in children's lives.

Theoretically, children's participation depends on the aim and purpose of education; on the image of the child (Malaguzzi, 1994); on the way we (teachers, researchers and society) understand the learning process; on the way we (teachers, researchers and society) understand the nature and development of children; on the role of children in society; and on the way we understand and interpret children's ability to feel things and to understand relationships and situations that happen to them or to others around them (empathy).

Even if there is agreement on the importance of children's participation and what is important for its realisation (the aim of education, the image of a child, children's role in society, etc.), it is also important to determine how to improve children's participation, especially in education. Indeed, we cannot expect significant changes in teachers' actions if, as stated by Syslová (2019), the professional reflections are limited to teachers' mere self-awareness, are not supported by a deeper analysis, and are based solely on subjective theories.

The multi-perspective approach to promoting children's participation in early childhood education and care – *Model for Promoting Children's Participation in Early Childhood Education and Care*, presented in this article, is based on action research, which we propose as a way to research and promote children's participation in early childhood education and care in the future. The main objective of the model is to involve children, educators, parents and counsellors in early childhood education and care settings in way that promotes children's participation through their own reflections.

The paper presents findings regarding the importance of the *Model for Promoting Children's Participation in Early Childhood Education and Care* for promoting children's participation, particularly opportunities for children to express themselves.

Interdependence of Quality in ECEC and Child Participation

The revolutionary book *Valuing Quality in Early Childhood Services* (Moss & Pence, 1994) elicited an important discussion about quality and the importance of quality in ear-

ly childhood education and care (ECEC). An industrial discourse about quality that only involves measurement and evaluation by someone in charge of evaluation is not appropriate in ECEC. Quality itself is rather subjective in ECEC and depends on how children, teachers, pedagogical professionals, parents, head teachers, the local community and the administrations involved in the organisation of ECEC understand the concept. Quality is therefore context dependent and can only be developed within the context and meaning of all who participate in ECEC. We know from previous theorising and early research on quality (Katz, 1999; Sheridan, 2001) that a single perspective is not sufficient when defining and discussing quality-related issues in early childhood education.

Since the 1990s, the whole world has recognised that it is no longer possible to measure quality in early childhood care without reflecting on the values that are part of and define the concept of quality (Moss & Pence, 1994). Consequently, reflection – including subjective reflection (practice and relationships) – has become even more important in early childhood education than the measurement of quality. The reasons for this are obvious. Measurement implies that responsible experts measure quality (Dahlberg et al., 2007), while reflection in education means that educators themselves reflect on their practice and experiences. Accordingly, the reflective cycle is naturally structured as a process of thinking about experiences (Dewey, 1986), reflecting on how the experiences came about and why the situation is the way it is. Most importantly, the reflection process involves issues and authentic professional situations that are relevant to those reflecting and to their professional communities.

The concept and definition of participation in professional reflection include the opportunity to express and reflect, but it is also important that what is expressed is taken into account in decision-making regarding plans and changes in the future. This (i.e., planning actions for the future) is also the most challenging and proactive part of the reflection process. Real participation is not only talking or dealing with something but also an action that is part of something. This means that measuring quality (observing, measuring and reporting) and reporting to someone about quality are not the same as participating in that whose quality is being measured. This process, in which teachers are objects of the observation process, does not give teachers the opportunity to become aware of their attitudes, values, wishes, hopes and problems unless they have the opportunity to reflect, talk and discuss.

However, it has also been shown that children participate more in high-quality kindergartens, (quality assessed using ECERS by Sylva et al., 2010), than in other kindergartens (Sheridan, 2007). Nevertheless, we should expect equal opportunities for all children (Urban et al., 2012). Importantly, quality and professional development are two very closely related concepts (Urban et al., 2012). Professional development could lead to high-quality practices in kindergartens, but both the assessment of quality and professional development could be organised and implemented as a participatory process or as a process organised by others for others, without the involvement of educators, children and parents.

So, the question is always who decides for whom and why? The right question is no longer am I doing it right but rather am I doing the right thing (Peeters & Vandebroek, 2011) – not just in practice, as a practitioner, but also as a researcher or expert (Bijuklič, 2022)? Further, it is also important to ask who is organising this kind of process and why, as well as who am I with my values, attitudes, thoughts and experiences in this pro-

cess – the object or subject? Am I someone who can express themselves, or am I expected to regulate and control myself based on certain norms and expectations (Rose, 2016)?

2 Theoretical background and structure of the Model for Promoting Children's Participation in ECEC

The development of the model was based on an analysis of relevant sources in the fields of assessment and quality assurance in ECEC (Laevers, 2005; Marjanovič Umek & Fekonja, 2005), the evaluation of participation (Lansdown, 2000, 2001, 2005a, 2005b, 2006; Shier, 2001) and the promotion of children's expressive abilities (Clark & Moss, 2001; Clark et al., 2003; Clark et al., 2005).

The model is based on the assumption that a higher level of quality of the ECEC process in ECEC settings, as conceptualised by Laevers (1994, 2005), leads to a higher level of child participation in education. Laevers (2005) argued that the level of children's involvement and their well-being in ECEC settings are indicators of quality. Specifically, the *Model for Promoting Children's Participation in ECEC* is based on the following:

- Professional development as an exploratory and participatory process in which teachers, counsellors, parents and children must be involved with their own observations, reflections and discussions.
- The concept of children's participation with recognised levels of involvement (Lansdown, 2000, 2001, 2005a, 2005b, 2006; Shier, 2001).
- The belief that a single method of reflecting and/or measuring quality does not guarantee quality improvements and changes in early childhood practice; rather, a clearly structured action research process is needed in which information and experiences (including feelings) of all partners in the process (teachers, parents, children, counsellors) are collected and reflected upon.
- The belief that the starting point for discussing preschool quality must be the individual child and his or her well-being and participation (Laevers, 2005), which provides an opportunity to reflect on the process components of quality (learning environment, interaction, parent involvement, meaningful learning, inclusion, assessment and planning, professional development) that need to be changed for a particular child or group of children.

In the development of the *Model for Promoting Children's Participation in ECEC*, we sought to identify and investigate the current state of children's participation and quality, integrate children's voices with strategies for expressing and listening to children in the process of investigating the state of the situation, and encourage teachers and counsellors to plan change based on their involvement in the research process. In doing so, we linked the identification of levels of participation to the concept of quality, where the starting point for identifying quality is the well-being, involvement (Laevers, 2005) and voice of the individual child. The purpose of this was to plan change in the cycle of professional development and ensure children's participation.

The model was designed as an action research process involving the child/children, educators, counsellors and parents. Through different forms of learning (questionnaires

or checklists, analysis of videos, children's statements, analysis of pedagogical preparations/planning), it allows educators to explore their own practices, children to reflect and express themselves, and counsellors to actively support professionals in ensuring children's participation.

In the following, a multi-perspective participatory approach is presented as an action research model for promoting children's participation in ECEC.

Table 1

A Multi-Perspective Participatory Approach to Promoting Children's Participation in ECEC: Model for Promoting Children's Participation in ECEC

<i>Phases</i>	<i>Process</i>
Teachers' self-reflection on existing pedagogical practices concerning child participation	Teachers' and preschool counsellors' self-reflections on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Their own understanding/meaning of participation; <input type="checkbox"/> Self-reflection on the opportunity for children to participate; <input type="checkbox"/> Reflection on participatory situations in groups of children, in preschool and the local community in which teachers are employed.
Reflection on child participation and opportunities for child participation, based on children's well-being and involvement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Preschool counsellors (employed in preschools) observe the well-being and involvement of all children in the group (using the Laevers scale, 2005), identifying the level of involvement and well-being of each child in the preschool group. <input type="checkbox"/> Videotaping children and their interactions with the teacher and children in the group (children with high and low levels of well-being and involvement). <input type="checkbox"/> The preschool teacher and preschool counsellor together discuss the videotape using a checklist to evaluate the participation of children. The levels of participation have been developed and adapted from Lansdown (2004) and Shier (2001). <input type="checkbox"/> Comparing children's interactions and participation (children with high and low levels of well-being and involvement) based on differences in topics in which the children participate, the level of children's participation, and teachers' interactions with children.
Reflection, based on children's voices	In groups of children preschool teachers implement the following methods of listening to children (Clark & Moss, 2001; Clark, 2005): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> interview/talking to children (what they can and cannot decide on, whether they want to decide); <input type="checkbox"/> children's work; <input type="checkbox"/> children taking photos and videos (symbolic play, dramatisation with puppets, making plans, dancing). They compare and identify differences between the responses of children with different levels of involvement and well-being.
Reflection, based on children's participation in planning	Preschool teachers, together with preschool counsellors, look at long-term written plans that have already been applied in the preschool classroom. They assess how many times, in which content, and in what way children are involved in planning, implementation, evaluation and reflection (children with high and low levels of involvement and well-being).
Reflection, based on parents' views	Analysing expectations regarding children's participation in preschool for each child (parents of children with lower and higher levels of well-being and involvement).

Table 2

A Multi-Perspective Participatory Approach to Promoting Children's Participation in ECEC: Model for Promoting Children's Participation in ECEC – Planning for Changes

<p>Guided recognition of existing practices, informed by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> children's well-being and involvement, <input type="checkbox"/> children's voices, <input type="checkbox"/> children's participation in planning, <input type="checkbox"/> parents' voices and planning for changes for an individual child and for a group of children.
<p>Planning for changes in the educational process – preschool teachers and counsellors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> For an individual child and/or for a whole group of children, based on the findings of the listening process, to address the need to improve the well-being and involvement of the child(ren) and to improve the participation of children in groups of children. Changes are planned based on indicators of the quality of the process (interaction, learning environment, teaching strategies, etc.). <input type="checkbox"/> Incorporating the suggestions, views, opinions obtained from listening to children into decisions at the institutional level. <input type="checkbox"/> Incorporating the suggestions, views, opinions obtained from listening to children into decisions at the local and national levels.
<p>Professional reflection after change implementation – preschool teachers and counsellors</p>
<p>Professional reflections of counsellors and teachers are included in the model for promoting children's participation.</p>

The purpose of the multi-perspective participatory approach to promoting children's participation in ECEC (the model for promoting children's participation in kindergarten) is to ensure and promote children's participation in ECEC through

- the self-reflection of educators and other professionals;
- observing the well-being and involvement of individual children in the preschool group;
- analysing children's participation based on videos;
- listening to children's voices through interviews and other listening techniques;
- listening to parents; and
- drawing on the professional reflection by practitioners (educators and counsellors) to improve children's involvement and well-being – or quality, as defined by Laevers (2005), and their participation in education.

In this paper, we present the insights obtained from preschool counsellors regarding the importance of the model in promoting children's participation, especially in terms of providing opportunities for children to express themselves. In addition, we present findings regarding children's participation in early childhood education and care based on the implementation of the *Model for Promoting Children's Participation in ECEC*.

3 Method

To evaluate the model, we carried out a qualitative study, based on a multi-perspective participatory approach to promoting children's participation in action.

Participants involved in the model for promoting children's participation

In testing the *Model for Promoting Children's Participation in ECEC*, we included counsellors/persons responsible for providing teachers' professional support in ECEC (n = 20) and preschool teachers (n = 20), working with groups of five-year-old children, who were actively involved in the testing of the model. There were 20 children with high levels of well-being and involvement (Laevers, 2005) and 20 children with low levels of well-being and involvement. In addition, parents of children with low levels of well-being and involvement (n = 20) and parents of children with high levels of well-being and involvement (n = 20) were included. As preschool counsellors were involved in the entire process of implementing the *Model for Promoting Children's Participation in ECEC*, this article presents the results of the counsellors' questionnaire from the last phase of the model implementation and evaluation.

Procedures of the multi-perspective participatory approach to promoting children's participation

- *Teachers' self-reflection on existing pedagogical practices in relation to children's participation*

Questionnaires were administered to teachers and counsellors with both closed and open-ended questions. This provided an insight into their opinions, assessments and beliefs about the current situation and the possibilities of children's participation in ECEC. The questionnaire was tested in advance on a small sample of counsellors and teachers. After testing, the questionnaire was also reviewed by experts in the field of early childhood education and research methodology, who also assessed the clarity of the criteria, the unambiguousness of the categories and their scope.

- *Reflection, evaluation of child participation and opportunities for children's participation, based on children's well-being and involvement*

The second phase of the model involved determining the children's degree of involvement and well-being according to Laevers (2005). A scale was used to determine the level of involvement and well-being of each child (range 1–5). The circumstances and events during the observation were normal (Laevers, 2005, p. 12), and the school day was organised according to the daily routine. Each child was observed in the group. The observation was repeated in the same week, possibly the next day, one hour later. After determining the level of involvement and well-being of all children in each group, one child was randomly selected with high involvement and well-being and one with low involvement and well-being from each group for the next phase.

Here, the starting point for assessing the quality of ECEC is the child – as described by Katz (1993), or in Slovenia by Marjanovič Umek and Fekonja (2005), in Sweden by Sheridan (2001, 2007) and in New Zealand by Podmore (2006). According to Laevers (2005), insights can be obtained into the situation of each individual child by using involvement and well-being as indicators of the quality of the approaches and activities that enable and promote different areas of children's development, and by determining whether the approaches enable and promote the development and learning of all children or only of some.

□ *Videotaping of selected children with low involvement and well-being and children with high involvement and well-being in the group*

First, one child with low involvement and well-being and one child with high involvement and well-being were selected from each group. Both children were filmed once, one child on one day and the other on the next day at the same time. We began by video recording the child in action in the morning while interacting with the material, the adults, and the children. The recordings were then analysed deductively (Vogrinc, 2008, p. 63) using two prepared coding tables.

The first coding table indicates how many of the initiatives are given to adults and other children by children with low and high levels of involvement and well-being, respectively, and how many of these initiatives are listened to, supported, and incorporated into decisions. The coding table contains the modified levels of participation defined by Shier (2001). The second coding table shows how and to what extent teachers involve children in decision-making in activities and in their interactions with children. The coding table contains the adapted levels of participation defined by Lansdown (2005b).

We investigated whether there were differences between children with low and high levels of involvement and well-being in terms of the number of initiatives presented to children and adults. At the same time, we were interested in whether teachers encouraged children to express themselves. If the children's expressions are only dependent on their spontaneous initiatives and the teacher's consideration, this would relieve the teacher of the responsibility of ensuring that all children have the opportunity to express their views and opinions.

□ *Reflection based on children's voices*

Using listening methods, we listened to children with both high and low levels of involvement and well-being, comparing and differentiating between their responses. Sheridan (2001) emphasised the importance of the child's perspective, particularly in monitoring quality, and found that children's opportunities to participate were related to the quality of ECEC. To ensure the validity of the results, all children were interviewed twice. The semi-structured interviews with the children were based on questions that have been asked of children in other studies to gain the child's perspective (Langsted, 1994; Sheridan & Pramling Samuelsson, 2001; Marjanovič Umek & Fekonja, 2005). The interviews were conducted in groups of children. Upon arrival, we introduced ourselves to the group, explained the purpose of the group visit, and asked the children if we could join them in the activities. We invited the two children involved in the further exploration to talk to us. We wrote down answers in front of the children, read them out, asked questions, and checked that we had written them correctly. We also asked if there was anything else to add.

□ *Reflection based on children's participation in planning*

The plans for the pedagogical work for the period when the monitoring of the children in the group took place were analysed. This was done to determine which and how many initiatives targeting children with low and high levels of involvement and well-being, respectively, were included in the written preparations/plans for the pedagogical work.

□ *Reflection based on parents' views*

The questionnaire was distributed to parents of children with both high and low levels of involvement and well-being. It provided an insight into the parents' perceptions of the children's competence, reflected in the parents' expectations of the children in terms of decision-making and participation in ECEC. Parents' expectations can provide contextual guidance for the planning of subsequent educational work.

□ *Guided recognition of existing practice and planning for changes for individual children and for groups of children*

A discussion was held with the teachers involved in the study after video recording children with high and low levels of involvement and well-being, and following the implementation of the child listening methods (implemented by the teachers in the group within the framework of the *Model for Promoting Children's Participation in Kindergarten*). The discussions focused on the differences observed in the initiatives of children with high and low levels of involvement and well-being, respectively, and the possible reasons for these differences. By the time the discussions took place, the teachers had already gained an insight into the differences that were evident between these children. They received information about the children mainly through listening strategies (photographing the children, symbolic play of the children, children's products, interviewing the children) that were part of the *Model for Promoting Children's Participation in ECEC* and through the insights gained from the analysis of the video recordings.

□ *Professional reflection after change implementation*

The open-ended question survey collected professional reflections of counsellors who were involved in all phases of the model of promoting child participation. After the model implementation, we wanted to hear their views concerning the impact of the model on promoting children's participation and any new insights regarding children's participation in ECEC. The data were processed according to the principles of qualitative pedagogical research with open coding (Vogrinc, 2008), which allowed us to gain an insight into the meanings that practitioners developed during the process of implementing the model.

4 Results

Below, we present the findings, including the insights obtained from preschool counsellors on the importance of the child participation model for providing opportunities for children to express themselves. In addition, we present the findings on children's participation in kindergarten, based on the implementation of the *Model for Promoting Children's Participation in Early Childhood Education and Care*.

Table 3

Impact of the Model in Terms of Promoting Children's Participation and Providing Children with Opportunities to Express Themselves

<i>Category</i>	<i>Code</i>	<i>Examples</i>
Listening to children – the listening method	High communicative value of children's suggestions obtained through listening methods	"... a surprising communication of suggestions, ideas, feelings, based on a strategy of listening to children – during interviews, role-plays, photo shoots."
	An important source of messages for children's initiatives – the importance of multimodality	"... when the children took photos, I was surprised how many initiatives could be observed through the comments on the photos."
	Focusing on children's initiatives improves the level of children's participation	"... I was surprised that the very attention paid to the child's initiatives and to the consistent observance of the child's participation showed visible changes in the child with a low level of involvement."
Professional reflection	Provides the knowledge to foster children's participation	"... that educators would do it if they knew how and were not afraid of losing their authority in the group."
	Professional reflection requires video recording and reflecting on practice	"... each teacher should videotape herself several times a year and accurately assess the children's participation according to the criteria. They should especially overlook the average children, which make up the majority ... ignore the facial expressions, overhear the words...provide the help that the child needs and expects from you."
	Professional focus on participation has to be ensured every day in pedagogy in planning, implementing and evaluating activities	"... there is no evidence of jointly planned activities in the teacher's annual work plan." "... to write in our plans, in concrete terms, where we have taken into account the children's suggestions, how they have been implemented."

The counsellors involved in the study recognised that the model gave the children the opportunity to express themselves. When implementing the model, they perceived a high willingness on the part of the children to express themselves through the different means of expression (listening strategies), but they also noted that "*... the children with low levels of involvement and well-being became more autonomous and more confident in all areas after all the activities had been carried out*".

The results point to two fundamental components of the model:

- the provision of expressive opportunities for children, including those who rarely express themselves verbally or are not yet able to do so, and
- the provision of professional reflection opportunities, professional knowledge and professional development for preschool professionals.

The model enables children to express themselves – even those with lower levels of well-being and involvement. Thus, the model improves the quality of the educational process by listening to children and improving their participation in the process itself.

Table 4

Insights into Children's Participation in ECEC Based on the Implementation of the Model for Promoting Children's Participation in Early Childhood Education and Care

<i>Category</i>	<i>Code</i>	<i>Examples</i>
Expression depends on development, learning and the ability to articulate initiatives	The ability to take initiative depends on the individual social context and the development of children	“... that initiative skills depend on the individual (influence of the environment, socialisation, emotional development), that some children almost never take initiative – these children are little or hardly noticed.” “... I was particularly struck by the influence of temperament ...”
	Children also need to learn to take the initiative	“... children “have to” learn to cooperate (if they haven’t learnt it in the beginning, at home), because they cannot move from cooperating under the guidance of an educator to cooperating on their own if they haven’t been taught to do so.”
	Children have different needs and interests in taking the initiative	“Different children show different levels of interest in inclusion. Some do not need to be encouraged to participate (assuming the conditions are provided), while others need to find the ways and means to make them want to participate and contribute their views (possibility to participate at home?).”
Expression depends on organised pedagogical opportunities to express initiatives	Children make meaningful suggestions for change	“Children’s participation is reflected in many ways (if the conditions are right) ...children paid attention to the whole kindergarten (not just their playroom) and made very meaningful suggestions for changes in the kindergarten as a whole.”
	Children are often ignored in the expression of initiatives	“I was surprised to observe that the child is relatively often ignored in his or her attempts to take the initiative. While this is probably to be expected in such a large group, I have never observed it in a group in the way that I had in the survey.”
	Planning for children without involving children	“... we analysed the annual work plan and found that we plan activities for the children without taking them into account (pyjama parties, trips, meetings for parents, children’s week...). The activities are planned by the teacher and presented to the parents at the parents’ meeting, where they give their consent, suggestions and ideas for their children. But where is the voice of those for whom we have prepared all this?”

In examining their own practices, teachers and counsellors also gain insights into the educational process through reflection guided by the tools and activities in the model for promoting children’s participation. Deep self-reflection increases practitioners’

participation in co-creating the meaning of children's participation and how it should be implemented. The knowledge and meaning-making of teachers and counsellors is shaped during the process of exploring participation based on the insights of those involved in the process.

The counsellors noted that children's expressions and participation depend on their developmental characteristics, as well as on the opportunities they have to express initiatives in the home environment, to learn participation or initiative skills, and on the different needs and interests of individual children in taking the initiative. On the other hand, it was expressed "... *that the teachers are too attentive to children who are strong in the language area*".

We found that expressiveness also depends on planned and organised educational opportunities fostering initiative. Children make meaningful suggestions for change when they have the opportunity to take the initiative, and they are eager to participate in planning and evaluating the process when they have the opportunity to do so. At the same time, according to the counsellors, children are also often ignored when expressing initiatives, and the planning of pedagogical processes often takes place without children. They noted that "... *too little consideration is given to each child's individual initiatives in the planning process*".

The counsellors indicated that close and systematic observation of children, opportunities for children to express themselves, and the recording of children's and professionals' work are needed to determine the level of children's participation and well-being, and to review children's participation in decision-making. At the same time, they emphasised the need to give children the opportunity to express themselves. A child who is deprived of this opportunity, or who has been deprived of this opportunity during their socialisation, is not able to provide it for himself or herself. The general conclusions are that there are still many opportunities for children's participation in planning and self-evaluation and that children are often ignored when it comes to expressing their initiatives. Finally, the counsellors indicated that temperament has a strong influence on children's ability to express themselves. The children whose temperament leads them to take less initiative should be given extra support.

In addition, we have found that expression depends on planned and organised pedagogical opportunities to express initiatives. Children make meaningful suggestions for change when they have the opportunity to initiate them, and they are happy to participate in the planning and evaluation of the process when they have the opportunity to do so. Based on the implementation of the model so far, we have found that the joint participation of the teacher and counsellor as explorers of their own process is key to ensuring reflection and reflection on change in the pedagogical process. It has been shown that self-assessment based on current knowledge does not allow for change and that educators at all professional levels need new specific knowledge (Komočar & Čotar Konrad, 2022, p. 5). Moreover, self-evaluation without new knowledge and insights does not provide an understanding of the perspectives of different stakeholders. As the model foresees the involvement of the counsellor as professional support in carrying out professional reflection and promoting children's participation in education, it provides an appropriate theoretical basis for implementing the counsellor's tasks in ECEC, including the support of practitioners and head teachers.

5 Discussion

The model for promoting children's participation makes it possible to bring about changes in the educational process and thus, indirectly, in its quality. First, it can provide insights into the well-being and involvement of children (Laevens, 2005). In addition, it can obtain the expectations and opinions of parents regarding children's participation and the self-reflection of educators and counsellors.

Ultimately, the model helps to ensure children's self-expression and thus their listening by employing listening strategies (Clark & Moss, 2001); their direct participation in the research process to explore children-related topics (Štemberger, 2019, p. 19); and the planning of pedagogical change.

The methods of listening to children in the model can support practitioners in listening to children and increase educators' awareness of the realities of providing participation opportunities for groups of children. This in turn can lead practitioners to proactively face professional challenges and take the initiative in developing and implementing creative solutions (Drljić & Kiswarday, 2021, p. 5). These insights can provide a foundation for planning change – for the individual child and/or for the group as a whole.

Laevens' (1994) approach to quality serves as the starting point in the model to ensure children's participation in kindergarten. Prior to his theory of quality identification and quality assurance in ECEC, quality was assessed based on observing the work of educators. In other words, the starting point for quality assessment was the educator. Following Laevens' example, the direction of assessment has changed. Teachers can now reflect on their practices by observing children. When planning changes, they do not start from the mistakes or the lack of quality in their own practices, which would be judged by external experts. Rather, they start by reflecting on the quality provided to the child or what they want to change for the children based on what they see (observation of children). Additionally, direct information about children is obtained in the model by employing listening methods. Children's voices add the child's perspective, which is crucial to ensure the well-being and involvement/inclusion of all children. All information concerning children's participation maintains the content of acknowledged process indicators of quality in a particular professional discussion and professional context.

However, it should be noted that the counsellors involved in this study ascribed great potential to the model for promoting children's participation through professional reflection, monitoring, and quality assurance of the process. They also stressed that children need to learn to express themselves. Although research has shown that today's parents are sensitive to their children's needs (Cugmas et al., 2020, p. 127), and expect children's individual abilities to be encouraged in early childhood education (Hmelak, 2017, p. 15), our research shows that children's ability and need to express themselves also depend on opportunities and incentives to express themselves in their home environments. Therefore, it is necessary to organise and plan opportunities for all children to develop their ability to express themselves and participate in ECEC settings.

6 Conclusion

Children's participation in education is rooted in the discourse on children's rights, which is also legally grounded in the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989). Ensuring children's participation is a pedagogical, relational challenge in which the child increasingly assumes the role of interlocutor.

In this paper we present the insights obtained from preschool counsellors regarding the importance of the *Model for Promoting Children's Participation in Early Childhood Education and Care*, especially in terms of providing opportunities for children to express themselves. In addition, we present findings regarding the current state of children's participation in early childhood education and care based on the implementation of the model.

The findings encourage us to study the pedagogical process systematically and in depth, and to explore it empirically and participatively. Above all, this would stimulate a process of professional reflection and planning for change in the environment in which it would be implemented. This is reflected in the counsellor's statement: "*We think we know the children, but we don't really know them. Only if we were to systematically observe and listen to what the child expresses...*"

The research findings suggest that in the future it will be necessary to

- provide opportunities for children to express themselves,
- listen to children, and
- create organised and planned opportunities for children to develop their ability to express themselves.

Moreover, it is crucial to provide guided and planned opportunities for practitioners to engage in professional reflection on the provision of opportunities for children's participation. Such reflection could be supported by the model.

In the *Model for Promoting Children's Participation in ECEC*, we have integrated all the key concepts of ensuring the democratisation of society:

- Evaluating and ensuring children's participation in education;
- Listening to children: methods of listening as a way for children to express themselves and participate in decision-making and meaning-making;
- Ensuring equal opportunities for all: social inclusion, positive recognition of parents and children with higher and lower levels of well-being and involvement;
- Ensuring the quality of the educational process and the quality assurance process for all children by involving children, educators, parents and counselling staff in a reflective research process.

We propose that this research model is suitable for ensuring and improving children's participation in ECEC in the future. The challenge is to ensure children's participation in education not only from the point of view of organising a pedagogical process in which children have the opportunity to participate in learning, cooperating with others, and community development, but also to involve all those involved in the educational process – children, parents, educators and kindergarten counsellors – in the process of ensuring children's participation.

Dr. Sonja Rutar

Spodbujanje participacije otrok v predšolski vzgoji in izobraževanju

Eden največjih pedagoških izzivov od sprejetja Konvencije o otrokovih pravicah (1989) je vprašanje, kako zagotoviti in spodbujati participacijo otrok v vzgoji in izobraževanju od predšolskega obdobja naprej. To zahteva zlasti spodbujanje razmisleka o praksah ter hkrati zagotavljanje ustreznega strokovnega znanja in podpore strokovnim delavcem v vrtcih.

Participacija otrok se začne z vzgojiteljevim/učiteljevim razmislekom o svoji vlogi v skupini (Kangas idr. 2016), zlasti z razmislekom o svojih vrednotah, poklicni identiteti, cilju izobraževanja (Korthagen, 2017) in razmislekom/odločitvijo o tem, kaj je pomembno v otrokovem življenju. Vendar ne moremo pričakovati bistvenih sprememb v delovanju vzgojitelja, če je, kot navaja Syslová (2019), refleksija omejena zgolj na njegovo samozavedanje in ni podprta s poglobljeno analizo ter če refleksija temelji zgolj na subjektivnih teorijah.

Namen prispevka je predstaviti rezultate raziskave, spoznanja o pomenu modela za spodbujanje otrokove participacije – pri zagotavljanju priložnosti za izražanje otrok – in ugotovitve o participaciji otrok v vrtcu na podlagi uvajanja Modela spodbujanja participacije otrok v predšolski vzgoji.

Glavni cilj Modela spodbujanja participacije otrok v predšolski vzgoji je vključiti otroke, vzgojitelje, starše in svetovalne delavce v predšolski vzgoji v participatorni pristop spodbujanja participacije otrok z njihovimi lastnimi refleksijami – kot nosilcev izboljšanja participacije otrok.

Razvoj modela je temeljil na analizi virov s področja spremljanja in zagotavljanja kakovosti v predšolski vzgoji (Laevers 2005; Marjanovič Umek in Fekonja 2005), spremljanja participacije (Lansdown 2000, 2001, 2005a, 2005b, 2006; Shier 2001) in spodbujanja otrokovih izraznih zmožnosti (Clark in Moss, 2001; Clark, McQuail in Moss, 2003; Clark, Kjørholt in Moss, 2005). Temelji na predpostavki, da višja raven kakovosti procesa predšolske vzgoje vodi k višji ravni participacije otrok v izobraževanju. Laevers (2005) trdi, da sta stopnja vključenosti otrok in njihovo dobro počutje v okoljih predšolske vzgoje kazalnika kakovosti.

Pri razvoju Modela spodbujanja participacije otrok v predšolski vzgoji smo želeli povezati:

- *proučevanje trenutnega stanja participacije otrok in kakovosti,*
- *vključevanje glasu otrok s strategijami izražanja in poslušanja otrok v proces raziskovanja stanja ter*
- *spodbujanje vzgojiteljev in svetovalnih delavcev k načrtovanju sprememb na podlagi njune vključenosti v proces raziskovanja.*

Pri tem smo ugotavljanje ravni participacije povezali s konceptom kakovosti, kjer je izhodišče ugotavljanja kakovosti dobro počutje in vključenost posameznega otroka (Laevers, 2005), glas otroka pa smo vključili v načrtovanje sprememb v ciklu profesionalnega razvoja in zagotavljanja participacije otrok.

Model je zasnovan kot proces akcijskega raziskovanja, v katerem sodelujejo otroci, vzgojitelji, svetovalni delavci in starši. Z različnimi oblikami učenja (samorefleksijo,

opazovanjem stanja, analizo videoposnetkov, izjavami otrok in analizo pedagoških priprav/načrtovanj) vzgojiteljem omogoča raziskovanje lastne prakse, otrokom razmišljanje in izražanje, svetovalnim delavcem pa aktivno podporo strokovnim delavcem pri zagotavljanju participacije otrok.

Za ovrednotenje modela smo izvedli kvalitativno študijo, ki temelji na večperspektivnem participatornem pristopu spodbujanja participacije otrok. V testiranje modela za spodbujanje sodelovanja otrok v vzgojno-izobraževalnih ustanovah so bili vključeni svetovalni delavci/odgovorne osebe za strokovno podporo vzgojiteljem v vzgojno-izobraževalnih ustanovah ($n = 20$), vzgojitelji ($n = 20$), ki so delali v skupini petletnih otrok, aktivno vključenih v testiranje modela – 20 otrok z visoko stopnjo dobrega počutja in vključenosti in 20 otrok z nizko stopnjo dobrega počutja in vključenosti (po Laeversu, 2005). Vključeni so bili tudi starši otrok z nizko stopnjo dobrega počutja in vključenosti ($n = 20$) in starši otrok z visoko stopnjo dobrega počutja in vključenosti ($n = 20$). Svetovalni delavci so bili vključeni v celoten proces izvajanja modela za spodbujanje participacije otrok v vzgoji, zato v tem članku predstavljamo spoznanja, ki smo jih pridobili na podlagi vprašalnika za svetovalne delavce iz zadnje faze preizkušanja modela. Podatki so bili obdelani po načelih kvalitativnega pedagoškega raziskovanja, z odprtim kodiranjem.

Po mnenju v raziskavo vključenih svetovalcev je model otrokom dal priložnost, da se izrazijo. Pri izvajanju modela so zaznali veliko pripravljenost otrok, da se izrazijo z različnimi načini izražanja (strategijami poslušanja), uporabljenimi v študiji, ko so otroci to priložnost dobili. Rezultati kažejo na dve temeljni sestavini modela:

- zagotavljanje možnosti izražanja za otroke – tudi tiste, ki se redko ali še ne izražajo verbalno, in
- zagotavljanje profesionalne refleksije, profesionalnega znanja in razvoja za zaposlene v predšolski vzgoji.

Model omogoča otrokom izražanje – tudi otrokom z nižjo stopnjo vključenosti in dobrega počutja. To pomeni, da model sam izboljšuje kakovost vzgojno-izobraževalnega procesa, saj prisluhne otrokom in izboljša participacijo otrok že v samem procesu.

Ob preverjanju lastne prakse vzgojitelji in svetovalni delavci prav tako dobijo vpogled v vzgojno-izobraževalni proces z razmislekom, ki ga vodijo inštrumenti in dejavnosti, razvite v modelu za spodbujanje participacije. Poglobljena samorefleksija zmanjšuje izključno moč in avtoriteto zunanjih ekspertov ter povečuje sodelovanje praktikov pri soustvarjanju pomena participacije otrok in načina njenega izvajanja. Znanje in razumevanje pomena participacije se med procesom proučevanja participacije oblikuje s pomočjo vpogleda vseh, ki so vključeni v proces.

Svetovalni delavci so izpostavili, da sta izražanje in participacija otrok odvisna od njihovih razvojnih značilnosti, pa tudi od možnosti izražanja pobud v domačem okolju, učenja večšin sodelovanja ali dajanja pobud ter različnih potreb in interesov posameznih otrok za dajanje pobud.

Ugotavljamo, da je izražanje odvisno tudi od načrtovanih in organiziranih vzgojnih priložnosti za izražanje pobud. Otroci dajejo smiselne predloge za spremembe, ko imajo priložnost, da prevzamejo pobudo, obenem pa otroci z veseljem sodelujejo pri načrtovanju in vrednotenju procesa, kadar imajo to možnost. Po mnenju svetovalnih delavcev so otroci pri izražanju pobud pogosto prezrti, ravno tako načrtovanje pedagoškega procesa pogosto poteka brez otrok.

Menijo, da je treba zagotoviti skrbno in sistematično opazovanje otrok, priložnosti za izražanje ter spremljanje otrok in priložnosti za spremljanje dela strokovnih delavcev, da bi ugotovili raven vključenosti in dobrega počutja otrok ter participacije otrok pri sprejemanju odločitev. Hkrati pa so poudarili, da je treba otrokom omogočiti, da se izrazijo. Otrok, ki je prikrajšan za to možnost ali je bil zanjo prikrajšan med socializacijo, si je ne more zagotoviti sam. Splošna ugotovitev je, da je priložnosti za participacijo otrok pri načrtovanju in samoevalvaciji še vedno veliko. Nazadnje ugotovitve svetovalnih delavcev kažejo, da na sposobnost izražanja otrok močno vpliva njihov temperament. Otrokom, ki se zaradi svojega temperamenta manj izražajo in dajejo manj pobud, je treba nuditi dodatno podporo pri izražanju.

Rezultati tudi kažejo, da je izražanje odvisno predvsem od načrtovanih in organiziranih pedagoških priložnosti. Otroci dajejo smiselne predloge za spremembe, kadar imajo možnost, da jih izrazijo. Otroci tudi z veseljem sodelujejo pri načrtovanju in vrednotenju procesa, kadar imajo za to priložnost. Pri dosedanjem izvajanju modela smo ugotovili, da je skupno sodelovanje vzgojitelja in svetovalnega delavca kot raziskovalcev lastnega procesa ključno za zagotavljanje refleksije in razmisleka o spremembah v pedagoškem procesu. Pokazalo se je, da samoocenjevanje na podlagi trenutnega znanja ne omogoča sprememb. Prav tako samoevalvacija brez novega znanja in vpogleda ne omogoča vpogleda v perspektive različnih deležnikov. Ker model predvideva vključevanje svetovalnega delavca kot strokovne podpore pri izvajanju strokovne refleksije in spodbujanju participacije otrok v vzgoji in izobraževanju, predstavlja ustrezno teoretično podlago za izvajanje nalog svetovalnega delavca v VIZ, ki vključuje tudi podporo strokovnim delavcem in ravnateljem.

Vendar je treba opozoriti, da so svetovalni delavci, vključeni v študijo, modelu za spodbujanje sodelovanja otrok pripisali velik potencial za profesionalni razmislek, spremljanje in zagotavljanje kakovosti procesa in participacije otrok. Hkrati so poudarili, da se morajo otroci naučiti izražanja in da je zato treba organizirati in načrtovati priložnosti za participacijo v okoljih predšolske vzgoje.

Ugotovitve nas spodbujajo k poglobljenemu in sistematičnemu proučevanju pedagoškega procesa z empiričnim in participatornim pristopom, kar bi lahko spodbudilo proces profesionalnega razmisleka in načrtovanja sprememb, kar je značilno za Model za spodbujanja participacije otrok v predšolski vzgoji in izobraževanju. Ugotovitve raziskave kažejo, da bo v prihodnje treba:

- zagotoviti priložnosti za izražanje in poslušanje otrok ter*
- zagotoviti organizirane in načrtovane priložnosti za razvijanje sposobnosti izražanja otrok.*

Za strokovne delavce pa bo treba zagotoviti vodene in načrtovane priložnosti za profesionalni razvoj in razmislek o zagotavljanju priložnosti za participacijo otrok v vzgoji.

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The Importance of Health Education and Prevention in the Fight against Caries in the Preschool Period

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KLJUČNE BESEDE: predšolski otrok, vrtec, karies, ustna higiena, preventiva, zobozdravstvo

POVZETEK – Avtorja se osredinjata na vpliv različnih dejavnikov, ki povzročajo karies pri predšolskih otrocih. Analizirata pravno-formalne pravice na področju osnovnega zobozdravstvenega varstva, medicinsko in pedagoško preventivo kariesa ter vpliv strokovnih delavcev v vrtcu in družine na zmanjševanje kariesa. S pomočjo podatkov Zavoda za zdravstveno zavarovanje Slovenije (ZZZS) ugotavljata vpliv epidemije covid-19 na obseg preventivnih in kurativnih zobozdravstvenih storitev v skupini predšolskih otrok po posameznih statističnih regijah v Sloveniji in razmerje med vplivom epidemije na obseg zobozdravstvenih storitev v skupini predšolskih otrok in gospodarskim razvojem posamezne regije. Ugotavljata, da je bil izpad zobozdravstvenih storitev v času epidemije tako obsežen, da bodo posledice vidne več let. Preventivne storitve so sestavni del pravic iz obveznega zdravstvenega zavarovanja, saj je ozaveščanje in poučevanje otrok o zdravih temeljih življenja zelo pomembno.

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KEYWORDS: preschool child, kindergarten, caries, oral hygiene, prevention, dentistry

ABSTRACT – The paper focuses on the influence of various factors causing caries in preschool children. The legal-formal rights in the field of primary dental care and medical and pedagogical caries prevention are analysed, as is the influence of professionals in the kindergarten and the family on the reduction of caries. With the help of data from the Health Insurance Institute of Slovenia (ZZZS), the impact of the COVID-19 epidemic on the scope of preventive and curative dental services is determined in a group of preschool children according to individual statistical regions in Slovenia, as is the relationship between the impact of the epidemic on the scope of dental services in the group of preschool children in relation to the economic development of an individual region. The interruption of dental services during the epidemic was so extensive that the consequences will last several years. Preventive services are an integral part of the rights derived from compulsory health insurance; therefore, raising awareness and teaching children about the healthy foundations of life is important.

1 Introduction

Oral health is an integral part of systemic health, is a decisive factor in the quality of life, and is related to general health. Primary dentistry for preschool children comprises the basic care for the health of the teeth and oral cavity in children aged 0 to 6 years. It includes the prevention and treatment of dental diseases and the education of children and their parents about oral hygiene and a healthy lifestyle. Caries in the preschool period is one of the most common chronic diseases. In Slovenia, dental prevention for preschool children is free and financed by the state. The programme is implemented within the framework of the Health Insurance Institute of Slovenia (ZZZS). Since more than 90% of

all preschool children in Slovenia are enrolled in kindergartens, preschool teachers play an important role in preventing dental diseases. The paper aims to indicate the importance of fighting caries and explain the roles of parents, preschool teachers, and dentists. By analysing the data from the Health Insurance Institute of Slovenia, we will also determine:

- the impact of the COVID-19 epidemic on the scope of dental services in the group of preschool children;
- the impact of the COVID-19 epidemic on the scope of curative dental services in the group of preschool and primary school children; and
- the difference in the impact of the COVID-19 epidemic on the scope of dental services in the group of preschool children in relation to the economic development of the region.

2 Theoretical Background

Oral Health as an Important Component of Overall Health

Health and the promotion of a healthy life is an increasingly important field (Devjak & Devjak, 2013; Nagelj, 2006). Health is defined as a comprehensive and dynamic system that represents an adaptive function for the individual and enables them to perform all biological, social, and professional functions while simultaneously helping to defend the body against diseases, weakness, and premature death (WHO, 2024). As Sarder and Erjavec (2021, p. 94) point out, experts in health and health policy over the past two decades have emphasised that “even children, and certainly adolescents, must be health literate, because, with more knowledge about health, they have a greater chance of taking an active role and control in making decisions about their health and the health of their peers and others”. Oral health is an integral part of systemic health, is a decisive factor in the quality of life, and is related to general health (WHO, 2024; Ranfl et al., 2015). The law determines the right to health care from public funds (Devjak et al., 2019).

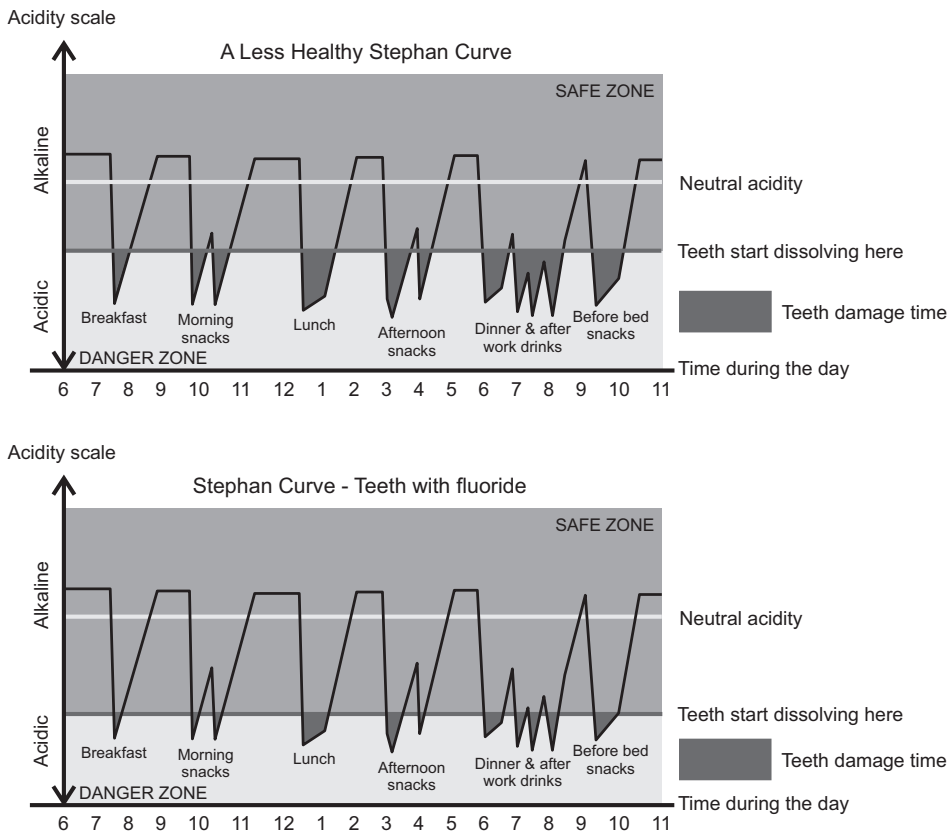
Caries is a chronic infection of teeth with cariogenic bacteria (Rathee, 2023). It is caused by bacteria that form dental plaque and is one of the most common chronic diseases in children. To show the prevalence of dental caries, experts most often use the KEP index, which tells us the average number of caries-affected (K), extracted (E) and repaired (P) permanent teeth in an individual. For primary and secondary dentition, we also consider primary teeth, whereby variables are denoted by lowercase letters (kep). An important indicator showing the development of preventive dental care is also the proportion of people without carious, chipped, or filled teeth. For international comparability, oral health indicators are usually calculated for 5- (or 6-), 12-, 15-, and 18-year-olds (Artnik, 2010).

Caries in preschool children is called “early childhood caries” (ECC) or “bottle caries”. According to the American Academy of Pediatric Dentistry (AAPD), the classification of ECC is defined as the presence of one or more primary teeth affected by caries, missing due to caries or treated in children under six years of age. The classification also distinguishes S-ECC (severe early childhood caries), which is diagnosed in children under the age of 3 at any sign of dental caries (Drury et al., 1999). ECC is the decay of the

upper primary teeth, especially the incisors, which occurs because of night feeding from a bottle containing a sweet drink. At night, the flow of saliva decreases and, therefore, washes the teeth less well; the bacteria thus receive more sugar and produce more acid (Bencze et al., 2021; Šavli, 2022). Pihlar (2016) states that tooth decay is caused by the dissolution of tooth substances due to acids produced by bacteria in our mouths from dietary carbohydrates. The rate of dissolution depends on the amount and structure of dental plaque, the amount and, more importantly, the frequency of carbohydrate intake, and the presence of fluorides around the teeth. Since tooth decay is an infectious disease, it is important to know that the bacteria that cause tooth decay can be passed from parent to child in early childhood.

Figure 1

Stephan Curve: Display of Fluctuation of pH in the Oral Cavity



Note. Retrieved from <https://supadental.com.au/how-to-protect-your-teeth-from-tooth-decay-part-1/>.

According to the Global Burden of Disease Study, the prevalence of caries in children under the age of 5 is 43.39% worldwide, 37.2% in the EU, and 56.53% in Slovenia

(Global Burden of Disease Collaborative Network, 2021). Due to ECC, the child loses primary teeth too quickly, which is why there are abnormalities in the development of the jaw and later in the eruption of permanent teeth. In addition, the child has problems chewing harder food and pronouncing some sounds (M. F., 2010).

The aetiology of ECC has long been known (Schmoeckel et al., 2020). High sugar intake and poor or absent oral hygiene lead to the appearance of carious lesions on the smooth exposed surfaces of the teeth. It is important to reduce the consumption of foods between main meals. The importance of the frequency of consumption of intermediate sweet meals can be shown with the Stephan Curve (Figure 1), which shows the fluctuation of the pH in the oral cavity. It takes at least 3 hours between meals for the pH in the mouth to rise to a healthy level; otherwise, the acidic environment in the mouth is maintained, and the teeth dissolve. Therefore, we should only drink water between meals (Colombo et al., 2019; Tušek et al., 2020; Nota et al., 2020; Bencze et al., 2021).

The first graph shows a slightly less healthy Stephan Curve, which results from frequent oral intake of nutrients. The pH in the mouth is often very acidic, and the teeth dissolve. The second graph shows the effect of fluorides on the same curve. The critical pH at which dissolution begins is lowered, so the time of critical acidity in the mouth is cumulatively shorter during the day, and the consequences are milder.

Symptoms, Psychosocial Aspects, and Treatment of Caries

The main symptom of caries is pain, which affects the quality of life. Children can miss school or find it harder to study because of the pain; they can develop feeding problems and consequent weight loss, sleep problems, changes in behaviour, a decline in school performance, and an increased likelihood of caries in adulthood (Abanto et al., 2011). The Bangkok Declaration of the International Association of Paediatric Dentistry (IAPD), which is also followed in Slovenia, proposes primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention as a solution to prevent ECC (Pitts, 2019). At the primary level, prevention discovers risk factors that affect the onset of disease. In Slovenia, preventive activities are regulated by the Guidelines for the Implementation of Preventive Health Care at the Primary Level (Pravilnik..., 1998) and provide:

- health care for infants and children up to the age of 6 (performed by a paediatrician), and
- health care for school children and youth up to the age of 19 (performed by a school doctor).

Preschool children have the right to

- a preventive dental examination as an infant aged 6–12 months; the examination takes place during the systematic examination of babies in the presence of one or both parents on the premises of a health institution or a private practice; a qualified dentist or specialist pedontologist performs an examination of the orofacial area and advises on nutrition, oral care, elimination of possible bad habits, and taking fluoride tablets;
- preventive dental examinations in the first, second, and third years of age; a preventive examination takes place once a year in small groups with

parents or individually; the preventive examination and consultation are carried out by a specialist, pedontologist, or qualified dentist in cooperation with a nurse trained in prevention; and

- preventive dental examinations in the fourth, fifth, and sixth years of age; prevention is organised in cooperation with parents, kindergartens, paediatricians, primary schools, and school dispensaries and takes place in the presence of parents; a preventive examination and consultation are carried out once a year by a specialist, pedontologist, or qualified dentist with the participation of a nurse trained in prevention. (Rulebook on Amendments to the Rulebook for the Implementation of Preventive Health Care at the Primary Level, 2015).

Primary prevention, therefore, includes raising awareness of the risk of caries, its causes, the importance of oral health, appropriate eating habits, and the benefits of fluoride for teeth. Secondary prevention takes place in the dental clinic, where the dentist detects and attempts to control the initial carious lesions without interventions on the teeth during regular check-ups. Tertiary prevention continues in the outpatient clinic if the carious lesions progress and become cavitated. At that time, the dentist attempts to maintain tooth health with non-invasive and invasive methods.

In the Rulebook on Amendments to the Rulebook... (2015), prevention includes lectures for educators and parents; practical learning about oral and dental care from the age of 3 (VMS – senior nurse); daily cleaning in the kindergarten (VMS); periodic determination of oral hygiene and the presence of plaque; professional dental plaque cleaning; saliva test for caries-prone children; fluoridation with tablets; individual fluoridation with coatings, solutions, and jellies in children at risk; filling fissures on deciduous and permanent molars.

According to Pihlar (2016), parents should take their child to the dentist when the child's first teeth are growing to receive advice on proper maintenance of oral hygiene and proper nutrition. The use of fluorides is one of the most important preventive measures in dentistry. Fluorides intended for local application are mainly in the form of gels, coatings, mouthwashes, and toothpaste.

The Preventive Role of Kindergarten

The role of kindergartens and preschool teachers is crucial in the prevention of ECC (Menghini et al., 2008). For successful prevention, we need healthy habits of maintaining oral hygiene, a steady rhythm of eating, and limiting sugar intake. All of this can be enforced by preschool teachers during the child's time in kindergarten. They can build on healthy eating habits that children retain throughout their lives (Curriculum for Kindergartens, 1999).

Preschool teachers can teach children about proper tooth brushing, encourage them to floss, and advise them on using mouthwash. Children should get used to brushing their teeth in the presence of an adult twice a day, morning and evening, with the right amount of toothpaste. For children under three years of age, a grain-of-rice-sized amount of toothpaste is recommended, and for older children, a pea-sized amount is

recommended. It is also important for parents to help their child brush their teeth until they are old enough to do it themselves. The kindergarten organises regular brushing after the main meal. Preschool teachers can also encourage healthy eating and advise against the consumption of sugary drinks between meals. They can organise activities that encourage the consumption of fruits, vegetables, and other healthy foods. Food (especially for a child) “must be varied, as no single food can provide all important nutrients in sufficient quantities” (Štemberger et al., 2009, p. 120). Thus, the daily diet should contain enough fruits, vegetables, whole grain products, and legumes but low levels of simple sugars, cholesterol, and saturated fats.

In cooperation with parents, preschool teachers influence and encourage regular visits to the dentist. Some kindergartens, which are a part of elementary schools, carry out preventive examinations of children in school dental clinics. Preschool teachers can also organise lectures on oral hygiene, presentations by dental experts, visits to dental clinics, and other activities that support a healthy family lifestyle. As Hmelak (2017, p. 4) points out, “it is best when preschool teachers and parents work together in a constructive relationship where health, safety and, above all, the development of the child are in the foreground”. With joint efforts and educational activities, people will develop not only automatic positive health-hygiene and cultural habits but also certain insights and experiences at a higher cognitive level.

Today, the preschool child’s family is involved in the operation of the kindergarten as a place of secondary socialisation; therefore, we believe that the family, in terms of its functionality, “sooner rather than later encounters the question of belonging to a kindergarten to a degree in which they can and want to adapt to the requirements of the educational institution” (Čotar Konrad, 2018, p. 71). The child-educator-parent interaction is a daily process that offers countless possibilities and opportunities for the spontaneous and planned satisfaction of the child’s needs for a healthy and happy life (Grubar, 2000).

3 Methodology

The paper aims to determine:

- the impact of the COVID-19 epidemic on the scope of dental services in a group of preschool children;
- the impact of the COVID-19 epidemic on the scope of curative dental services in the group of preschool and primary school children; and
- the difference in the impact of the COVID-19 epidemic on the scope of dental services in the group of preschool children in relation to the economic development of the region.

In the analysis, we included data from the Health Insurance Institute of Slovenia (ZZZS) on dental services provided for children aged 0 to 15 for the period from 2013 to 2021 in the Republic of Slovenia, and data from the Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia (SURS). The data were processed using Excel and SPSS statistical software. We performed a time-series analysis of the investigated phenomena and a

correlation analysis between the volume of dental services provided and the economic development of statistical regions in Slovenia.

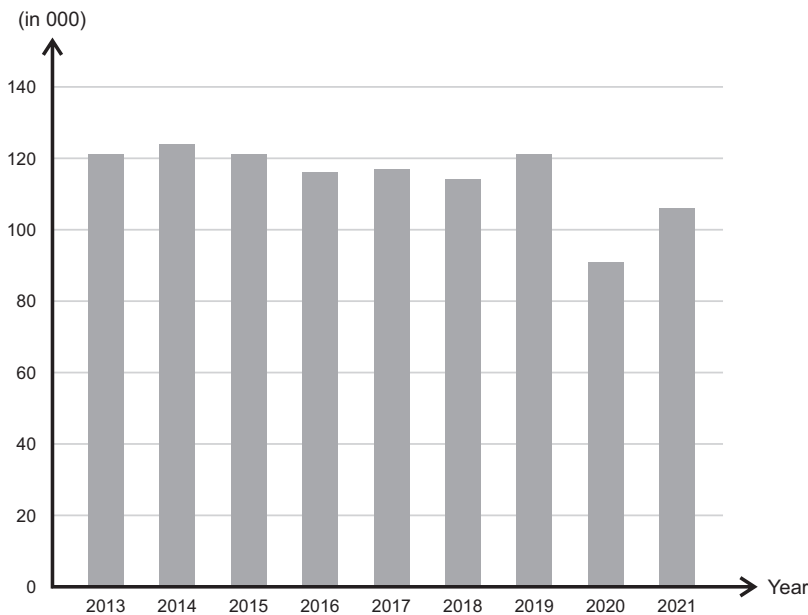
4 Results and Discussion

We started by researching the impact of the COVID-19 epidemic on the scope of dental services in a group of preschool children with the following starting points: we observed preventive examinations of preschool children and fillings of all materials and sizes (if a filling was made, it means that the child had caries). We also assumed that the number of preschool children has been approximately the same over the years since the population of the Republic of Slovenia has been stable. In Slovenia, 15% of people are aged 0–14, which means approximately 316,000 children (SURSTAT, 2023).

The graph below shows the number of performed selected dental services for preschool children by year from 2013 to 2021.

Figure 2

Number of Performed Selected Dental Services for Preschool Children by Year from 2013 to 2021



Note. From ZZZS (<https://www.zzss.si/>).

The average number of selected dental services provided in the period from 2013 to 2019 is 119,152. The index number of services for 2020 to average before 2020: $(91067 \times 100/119) = 76.4$. In the epidemic year of 2020, there was a 23.6% decline in

services provided compared to the average of previous years. We attribute this to the closure of dental clinics, the failure to carry out systematic examinations, and people's fear of visiting public places. The closure of institutions and restriction of contacts was a measure that was supposed to represent "an important strategy to prevent the increase in morbidity and mortality from COVID-19" (Kerneža & Lepičnik Vodopivec, 2022, p. 66) but has caused other health issues.

Table 1 below shows the number of performed curative dental services (fillings of all materials and sizes) from 2013 to 2021. Our hypothesis was that the reduction in services rendered, which we demonstrated in Figure 2, would show up as an increase in services in the year following the epidemic.

Table 1

Number of Performed Curative Dental Services from 2013 to 2021

	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021
Curative dental services for school children (in 000)	1,047	1,034	1,019	989	971	949	755	602	675
Curative dental services for preschool children (in 000)	121	124	121	116	117	114	121	91	106
Total	1,168	1,158	1,140	1,105	1,088	1,063	876	693	780

Note. From ZZS (<https://www.zzs.si/>).

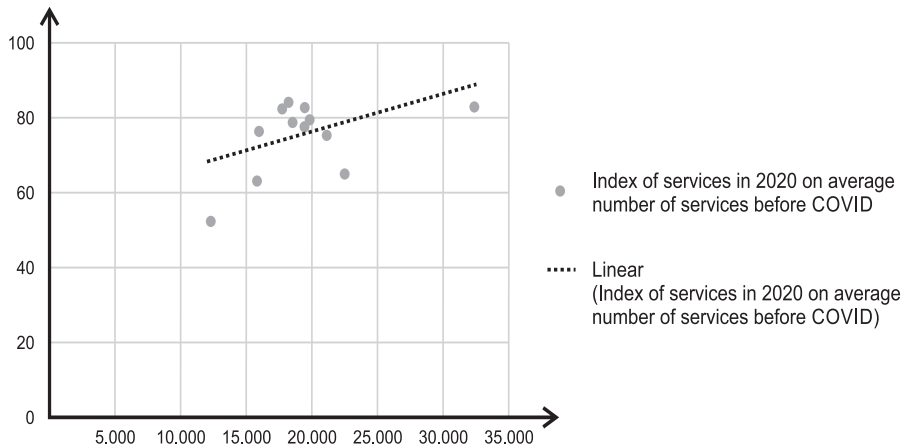
The data reveal no significant increase in the number of services provided in 2021, as would be expected with the downtime brought about by the epidemic. However, we can see that the number of services in the group of schoolchildren had a downward trend in the years before the epidemic: 736,800 dental services were provided in 2020 and 2021, which means a 47% decrease compared to the average of 2013–2019, which amounted to 1,085,400 dental services. In 2020 and 2021, 98,300 dental services were provided to preschool children, which is a 21% decrease compared to the average of 2013–2019, which was 119,200 dental services. In 2020 and 2021, 638,600 dental services were provided to school children, which means a 51% decrease compared to the average of 2013–2019, which was 966,300 dental services. We estimate that the loss of services from the times of the epidemic will take a long time to compensate, as there will not be a sufficient increase in 2021. The damage caused by the epidemic is not only in the lack of services but also in the associated increase in needs brought about by the absence of care, systematic examinations, and education. Moreover, it is most likely that immediate compensation of the shortage is impossible due to the limited capacities of the healthcare system.

We also wanted to verify the correlation between the region's development and the loss of dental services. To indicate the region's development, we used gross domestic product (GDP) per capita. Dental services were observed with preventive examinations and fillings of all materials and sizes. The figure 3 shows the results.

The index of decline in dental services for preschool children for 2020 has a positive regression coefficient (0.001) with GDP per capita. The correlation coefficient is 0.50, which means that regions with a lower GDP tend to have a greater shortage of health services during the COVID-19 epidemic than regions with a higher GDP per capita. Interestingly, in many regions, there is no correlation between the level of work activity and the index of decline in dental services for preschool children ($r = 0.08$). A similar (non)correlation ($r = 0.25$) of the decrease in dental services is shown with the average monthly net salary per inhabitant of the region (Statistične regije, 2023).

Figure 3

Correlation of the Index of Dental Services for Preschool Children in 2020 Compared to the Average of Previous Years with GDP by Statistical Region in Slovenia



Note. From ZZZS (<https://www.zzvs.si/>) and SURS (<https://www.stat.si/obcine/sl/Region/Index/12>).

5 Discussion

The WHO defines oral health as an important component of overall health and well-being, which should not be considered in isolation from general health and well-being (Ranfl et al., 2015). Caries is caused by bacteria that form dental plaque and is one of the most common chronic diseases of children (Rathee, 2023). According to the Global Burden of Disease Study, the prevalence of caries in children under the age of 5 is 43.39% worldwide, 37.2% in the EU, and 56.53% in Slovenia (Global Burden of Disease Collaborative Network, 2021). Determining the exact prevalence is challenging due to different caries detection and definition methodologies used in the studies. Education and preventive dental health are of utmost importance at preschool age, and the rights to a preventive dental examination for children aged 6–12 months and ages 1 through 6 should not be taken for granted but acted upon (Rulebook on Amendments to the Rulebook for the Implementation of Preventive Health Care at the Primary Level,

2015). Primary prevention includes raising awareness of the risk of caries, its causes, the importance of oral health, appropriate eating habits, and the benefits of fluoride for teeth. The observed lower loss of dental services shows that the epidemiological crisis has affected primary prevention, especially in less developed regions. During the pandemic, most of the initiative and responsibility for examinations shifted to parents. The absence of preventive examinations during the epidemic also affected the further implementation of prevention, as a large deficit arose. Kindergartens can fill this gap with preventive education.

6 Conclusion

In Slovenia, dental prevention for preschool children is free and financed by the state. The programme is implemented within the framework of the Health Insurance Institute of Slovenia (ZZZS), which also takes care of the organisation and coordination of the programme, and ensures the implementation of services. Parents of children must choose a dentist, take the child to regular check-ups, and take care of proper oral hygiene at home. In the case of initial caries, the lesion can be stopped by careful hygiene, topical application of fluorides, and a change in diet. If the caries has progressed, it must be treated with a filling. Healthy teeth are a lifelong journey and the child will carry good hygiene habits into adulthood.

Dental prevention and health education for preschool children are important because, during this period, children learn good habits regarding the care of their teeth, which they will carry with them throughout their lives. It is essential that kindergartens and parents work together to prevent dental diseases in preschool children, as this is a key period in the development of dental hygiene and health.

Bine Devjak, dr. Sanja Berčnik

Pomen zdravstvene vzgoje in preventive v boju proti kariesu v predšolskem obdobju

Zdravje in promocija zdravega življenja postajata vse bolj pomembni področji (Devjak in Devjak, 2013; Nagelj, 2006). Zdravje je opredeljeno kot celovit in dinamičen sistem, ki predstavlja prilagoditveno funkcijo posameznika in mu omogoča opravljanje vseh bioloških, socialnih in poklicnih funkcij, hkrati pa pomaga pri obrambi telesa pred boleznimi, oslabelostjo in prezgodnjo smrtjo (WHO, 2024). Ustna higiena je sestavni del sistemskega zdravja, je odločilen dejavnik kakovosti življenja in je povezana s splošnim zdravjem (WHO, 2024; Ranfl idr., 2015). Osnovno zobozdravstvo za predšolske otroke se nanaša na osnovno skrb za zdravje zob in ustne votline pri otrocih, ki so stari od 0 do 6 let, in vključuje preprečevanje in zdravljenje zobnih bolezni ter izobraževanje otrok in njihovih staršev o ustni higieni in zdravem življenjskem slogu. Karies je kronična okužba zob s kariogenimi bakterijami (Rathee, 2023). Povzročajo jo bakterije, ki tvorijo

zobne obloge, in je ena najpogostejših kroničnih bolezni otrok. Za prikaz razširjenosti zobnega kariesa strokovnjaki najpogosteje uporabljajo indeks KEP, ki nam pove povprečno število s kariesom prizadetih (K), izpuljenih (E) in popravljenih (P) stalnih zob pri posamezniku. Pri mlečnem in sekundarnem zobovju upoštevamo tudi mlečne zobe, pri čemer spremenljivke označujemo z malimi črkami (kep) (Artnik, 2010). Karies pri predšolskih otrocih imenujemo zgodnji otroški karies (ECC). Po Ameriški akademiji za pediatrično zobozdravstvo (AAPD) je klasifikacija ECC opredeljena kot prisotnost enega ali več mlečnih zob, prizadetih s kariesom, manjkajočih zaradi kariesa ali zdravljenih pri otrocih, mlajših od 6 let. Klasifikacija opredeljuje tudi S-ECC (hudi zgodnji otroški karies), ki se diagnosticira pri otrocih, mlajših od 3 let, ob kakršnem koli znaku zobnega kariesa (Drury idr., 1999). ECC je karies zgornjih mlečnih zob, predvsem sekalcev, ki nastane zaradi nočnega hranjenja iz stekleničke s sladko pijačo. Ponoči se pretok sline zmanjša in zato slabše umiva zobe, bakterije pa dobijo več sladkorja in proizvedejo več kisline (Bencze idr., 2021; Šavli, 2022). Po podatkih Global Burden of Disease Study je razširjenost kariesa pri otrocih, mlajših od 5 let, po vsem svetu 43,39-odstotna, v EU 37,2-odstotna in v Sloveniji 56,53-odstotna (Global Burden of Disease Collaborative Network, 2021). Zaradi ECC otrok prehitro izgubi mlečne zobe, zato pride do nepravilnosti v razvoju čeljusti in kasneje pri izraščanju stalnih zob. Poleg tega ima otrok težave z žvečenjem trše hrane, pa tudi z izgovarjavo nekaterih glasov (M. F., 2010).

Glavni simptom kariesa je bolečina, ki vpliva na kakovost življenja. Otroci lahko zaradi bolečin izostajajo od pouka ali se težje učijo, lahko se razvijejo težave s hranjenjem in posledično hujšanje, težave s spanjem, spremembe v vedenju, pride do upada šolske uspešnosti in povečane verjetnosti kariesa v odrasli dobi (Abanto idr., 2011). Kot rešitev za preprečevanje ECC se predlaga primarno, sekundarno in terciarno preventivo (Pitts, 2019). Na primarni ravni preventiva odkriva dejavnike tveganja, ki vplivajo na nastanek bolezni. V Sloveniji je preventivna dejavnost urejena s Smernicami za izvajanje preventivnega zdravstvenega varstva na primarni ravni (Pravilnik..., 1998) in zagotavlja:

- zdravstveno varstvo dojenčkov in otrok do starosti 6 let (izvaja pediater),
- zdravstveno varstvo šolskih otrok in mladine do 19. leta (izvaja šolski zdravnik).

Predšolski otroci imajo pravico do:

- preventivnega zobozdravstvenega pregleda dojenčka v starosti od 6 do 12 mesecev,
- preventivnega zobozdravstvenega pregleda v prvem, drugem in tretjem letu starosti in
- preventivnega zobozdravstvenega pregleda v četrtem, petem in šestem letu starosti (Pravilnik o spremembah in dopolnitvah Pravilnika za izvajanje preventivnega zdravstvenega varstva na primarni ravni, 2015).

Primarna preventiva torej vključuje ozaveščanje o nevarnosti kariesa, vzrokih zanj, pomenu ustnega zdravja, ustreznih prehranjevalnih navadah in koristih fluora za zobe. Sekundarna preventiva poteka v zobozdravstveni ambulanti, kjer zobozdravnik na rednih pregledih odkrije in skuša obvladati začetne kariozne spremembe brez posegov na zobeh. Terciarna preventiva se nadaljuje v ambulanti, če kariozne lezije napredujejo in se kavitirajo. V Sloveniji je zobozdravstvena preventiva za predšolske otroke brezplačna in jo financira država. Program se izvaja v okviru Zavoda za zdravstveno zavarovanje

Slovenije (ZZZS). Ker je v Sloveniji več kot 90% vseh predšolskih otrok vključenih v vrtce, imajo vzgojitelji pomembno vlogo pri preprečevanju zobnih bolezni.

Vloga vrtcev in vzgojiteljev je ključna pri preprečevanju ECC (Menghini idr., 2008). Za uspešno preventivo potrebujemo zdrave navade vzdrževanja ustne higijene, enakomeren ritem prehranjevanja in omejitev vnosa sladkorja. Vse to lahko izvajajo vzgojitelji v času bivanja otroka v vrtcu. Gradijo lahko na zdravih prehranjevalnih navadah, ki jih otroci lahko obdržijo vse življenje (Kurikulum za vrtce, 1999). Vzgojitelji lahko otroke poučijo o pravilnem ščetkanju zob, jih spodbujajo k uporabi zobne nitke in jim svetujejo uporabo ustne vodice, otroke lahko spodbujajo k zdravemu prehranjevanju in odsvetujejo uživanje sladkih pijač med obroki, lahko organizirajo dejavnosti, ki spodbujajo uživanje sadja, zelenjave in druge zdrave hrane. Organizirajo lahko tudi različna predavanja o ustni higieni, predstavitve zobozdravstvenih strokovnjakov, obiske zobozdravstvenih ambulant in druge dejavnosti, ki podpirajo zdrav življenjski slog družine.

Cilj prispevka je bil ugotoviti:

- vpliv epidemije covida-19 na obseg zobozdravstvenih storitev v skupini predšolskih otrok;
- vpliv epidemije covida-19 na obseg kurativnih zobozdravstvenih storitev v skupini predšolskih in osnovnošolskih otrok in
- razliko v vplivu epidemije covida-19 na obseg zobozdravstvenih storitev v skupini predšolskih otrok v povezavi z gospodarskim razvojem regije.

V analizo smo vključili podatke Zavoda za zdravstveno zavarovanje Slovenije (ZZZS) o opravljenih zobozdravstvenih storitvah za otroke v starosti od 0 do 15 let za obdobje od 2013 do 2021 v Republiki Sloveniji in podatke Statističnega urada Republike Slovenije (SURS).

Podatki so bili obdelani s statističnima programoma Excel in SPSS. Izvedli smo analizo časovnih vrst raziskovanih pojavov in korelacijske analize med obsegom opravljenih zobozdravstvenih storitev in gospodarsko razvitostjo statističnih regij v Sloveniji. Povprečno število opravljenih izbranih zobozdravstvenih storitev v obdobju od 2013 do 2019 je 119.152. Indeksno število storitev v letu 2020 do povprečja pred letom 2020: $(91067 \times 100/119) = 76,4$. V letu epidemije, tj. letu 2020, beležimo 23,6-odstotni upad opravljenih storitev glede na povprečje preteklih let. To pripisujemo zaprtju zobozdravstvenih ambulant, neopravljanju sistematskih pregledov in strahu ljudi pred obiskovanjem javnih mest. Podatki kažejo, da v letu 2021 ni bistvenega povečanja števila opravljenih storitev, kot bi pričakovali ob izpadih, ki jih je povzročila epidemija. Vidimo pa, da je število storitev v skupini šolskih otrok v letih pred epidemijo padalo. V letih 2020 in 2021 je bilo opravljenih 736.800 zobozdravstvenih storitev, kar pomeni 47-odstotno zmanjšanje glede na povprečje 2013–2019, ki je znašalo 1.085.400 zobozdravstvenih storitev. V letih 2020 in 2021 je bilo opravljenih 98.300 zobozdravstvenih storitev za predšolske otroke, kar pomeni 21-odstotno zmanjšanje glede na povprečje 2013–2019, ki je znašalo 119.200 zobozdravstvenih storitev. V letih 2020 in 2021 je bilo opravljenih 638.600 zobozdravstvenih storitev za šolske otroke, kar pomeni 51-odstotno zmanjšanje glede na povprečje 2013–2019, ki je znašalo 966.300 zobozdravstvenih storitev. Ocenjujemo, da se bo izpad storitev iz časov epidemije še dolgo nadomeščal, saj v letu 2021 ni zadostnega povečanja. Škoda zaradi epidemije ni le v pomanjkanju storitev, temveč tudi v s tem povezanim povečanju potreb zaradi odsotnosti oskrbe, sistemati-

skih pregledov in izobraževanja. Prav tako je najverjetneje takojšnja nadomestitev izpada nemogoča zaradi omejenih zmogljivosti zdravstvenega sistema. Indeks upadanja zobozdravstvenih storitev za predšolske otroke za leto 2020 ima pozitiven regresijski koeficient (0,001) z BDP na prebivalca. Korelacijski koeficient je 0,50, kar pomeni, da imajo regije z nižjim BDP v času epidemije covida-19 večji izpad zdravstvenih storitev kot regije z višjim BDP na prebivalca. Zanimivo je, da v številnih regijah ni korelacije med stopnjo delovne aktivnosti in indeksom upada zobozdravstvenih storitev za predšolske otroke ($r = 0,08$). Podobna (ne)korelacija ($r = 0,25$) znižanja zobozdravstvenih storitev se kaže s povprečno mesečno neto plačo na prebivalca regije (SURIS, 2023). Opaženi manjši izpad zobozdravstvenih storitev kaže, da je epidemiološka kriza prizadela primarno preventivo, predvsem v manj razvitih regijah. V času epidemije je večina iniciativne odgovornosti za preglede prešla na starše. Odsotnost preventivnih pregledov v času epidemije je vplivala tudi na nadaljnje izvajanje preventive, saj je nastal velik primanjkljaj. Vrtni lahko to vrzel zapolnijo s preventivno vzgojo.

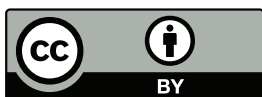
V Sloveniji je zobozdravstvena preventiva za predšolske otroke brezplačna in jo financira država. Program se izvaja v okviru Zavoda za zdravstveno zavarovanje Slovenije (ZZZS), ki skrbi tudi za organizacijo in koordinacijo programa ter zagotavlja izvajanje storitev. Starši otrok morajo izbrati zobozdravnika, otroka redno voditi na preglede in doma skrbeti za ustrezno ustno higieno. V primeru začetnega kariesa lahko lezijo zaustavimo s skrbno higieno, lokalno uporabo fluoridov in spremembo prehrane. Če je karies napredoval, ga je treba zdraviti s plombo. Zdravi zobje so vseživljenjskega pomena in dobre higienske navade bo otrok prenesel v odraslost. Zobozdravstvena preventiva za predšolske otroke je pomembna, saj se otroci v tem obdobju naučijo dobrih navad glede nege zob, ki jih bodo nosili s seboj vse življenje. Pomembno je, da vrtec in starši sodelujemo pri preprečevanju zobnih bolezni pri predšolskih otrocih, saj je to ključno obdobje v razvoju zobne higiene in zdravja.

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Glasba kot motivacijsko sredstvo za boljše gibalne rezultate otrok

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KLJUČNE BESEDE: hitrost, glasba, tempo, dotikanje plošče z roko, športnovzgojni karton

POVZETEK – Glasba ima lahko pomemben vpliv na motivacijo otrok pri izvajanju gibalnih nalog. Številne raziskave kažejo, da glasba spodbuja pozitivne odzive v možganih, povečuje energijo in lahko služi kot motivacijsko orodje. Ta študija se osredotoča na preučevanje, ali lahko glasbo uporabimo kot sredstvo za motivacijo otrok in s tem izboljšamo rezultate gibalnih nalog. Ugotavljali smo, ali tempo glasbe vpliva na test hitrosti dotikanja plošče z roko, ki ga učenci izvajajo v sklopu športnovzgojnega kartona v šoli. V raziskavi je sodelovalo 51 učenk, starih 11 in 12 let. Test so izvajale ob poslušanju glasbe s počasnim tempom (100 ud./min.) in ob poslušanju glasbe s hitrim tempom (190 ud./min.). Kot smo predvidevali, so bile učenke pri hitrem tempu hitreje in s tem imele boljše rezultate v primerjavi s testom, izvedenim pri počasnem tempu. Raziskavo smo nadaljevali tako, da smo ugotavljali, ali bodo učenke, ki so glasbenice ali plesalke, imele boljše rezultate v primerjavi z ostalimi učenkami, pri čemer pa se je izkazalo, da to predvidevanje ne drži. Razlik med rezultati merjenk, ki se ukvarjajo s plesom ali glasbo, in merjenk, ki se ne ukvarjajo, nismo dokazali.

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KEYWORDS: speed, music, tempo, hand-plate touching, physical-education card testing

ABSTRACT – Music can have a significant impact on children's motivation to perform motor tasks. Numerous studies indicate that music stimulates positive responses in the brain, increases energy, and can serve as a motivational tool. The study focuses on examining whether music can be used as a means to motivate children and thereby improve the results of motor tasks. We investigated whether the tempo of music influences the test of plate-tapping speed, which students perform as part of the physical education card at school. The study involved 51 female students aged 11 and 12. The test was conducted while listening to music at a slow tempo (100 beats/min) and while listening to music at a fast tempo (190 beats/min). As expected, the students were faster at the fast tempo and, thus, had better results compared to the test performed at the slow tempo. We further explored whether students who are dancers or musicians would have better results compared to other students. However, this assumption proved to be untrue. No differences were found between the results of students engaged in dance or music and those not engaged in dance or music.

1 Uvod

Glasba je pomemben dejavnik v športu. Uporabljamo jo pri vadbi, na treningih in športnih tekmovanjih na veliko različnih načinov (Terry, 2014). Glasba se predvaja v ozadju, da naredi okolje bolj prijetno (Elliot idr., 2004; Rendi idr., 2008), ritmično glasbo uporabljajo športniki ali vaditelji, ki jo uporabljajo kot vrsto metronoma, ki uravnava njihove gibalne vzorce (Simpson in Karageorghis, 2006; Karageorghis idr., 2009), glasbo se uporablja neposredno med športno vadbo ali športnim dogodkom (Lanzillo idr., 2001), lahko se jo uporablja pa tudi kot del procesa okrevanja (Priest in Karageorghis, 2008).

Glasbo definira:

- ritem – vključuje porazdelitev not skozi čas in način, kako so naglašene;
- tempo – je hitrost predvajanja glasbe, običajno merjena v udarcih na minuto (ud./min.);
- dinamika – odraža energijo, ki jo prenaša glasbenik s svojim dotikom ali dihom, da vpliva na glasnost instrumenta (Terry, 2014).

Habe (2018, str. 3) ugotavlja, da je pomen glasbe v okviru izobraževanja prepoznan že od starogrške in starorimske civilizacije dalje. Največji preboj na področju preučevanja vpliva glasbene dejavnosti na celostni razvoj pa je prinesla sodobna nevroznanost ob koncu 20. stoletja, ki je dokazala pozitivne kratkoročne in dolgoročne učinke različnih glasbenih dejavnosti na številne možganske funkcije, ki vplivajo na učno uspešnost. Poglavitni učinki glasbenih dejavnosti v povezavi z učenjem so vidni na kognitivnem, afektivnem in socialnem področju. Tudi Jensen (2000) pravi, da glasba aktivira tiste možganske centre, ki so odgovorni za razpoloženje, socialne spretnosti, motivacijo, kulturno zavedanje, estetiko in samodisciplino. Številni avtorji vpliv glasbe povezujejo tudi z izboljšanjem gibalne aktivnosti (Brown, 2005). Uporaba glasbe pa se kaže kot koristna, saj je bilo dokazano, da ima pozitiven vpliv na gibalne dejavnosti, celo pri višjih intenzivnostih (Bigliassi idr., 2016).

Poslušanje glasbe ob vadbi naj bi izboljšalo gibalno učinkovitost tudi zaradi večje motivacije, ki je vzrok za določeno vedenje. Motivacija je usmerjena človekova aktivnost k želenim ciljem zaradi njegovih notranjih in zunanjih motivov, hotenj (nastalih v človeku samem ali v njegovem okolju). Podlaga zanjo so določene potrebe pri posamezniku, ki omogočajo, da se želje spremenijo v resničnost (Lipičnik, 1998). Avtorica Zandnik (2021, str. 53) je v raziskavi ugotovila, da imajo alternativni pristopi izobraževanja z glasbo in plesom motivacijsko in terapevtsko funkcijo ter da je posledica teh pristopov tudi časovno daljša koncentracija učencev.

Avtorja Chanda in Levitin (2013) razlagata, da možgansko deblo interpretira glasbo kot signale, pomembne za preživetje, in zato sproži ustrezne fiziološke odzive telesa. Hitra in glasna glasba spodbudi poslušalca z aktivacijo centralnega živčnega sistema (Van Dyck, 2015). Ta stimulacija povzroči povečan srčni utrip, višji krvni tlak, povišano telesno temperaturo, večjo prevodnost kože in napetost mišic (Chapados in Levitin, 2008). Nežna, počasna glasba ima nasproten učinek in zmanjšuje simpatično vzburjenje. Takšna sproščujoča glasba pogosto posnema pomirjujoče zvoke, ki jih najdemo v naravi; primeri vključujejo materine glasove, mravljinčenje in brnenje (Chanda in Levitin, 2013).

Prve raziskave o prednostih glasbe pri športnih dejavnostih segajo v leto 1911, ko je Ayres dokazal vpliv glasbe na povečanje hitrosti šestdnevnega kolesarjenja. Od takrat je bil odnos med glasbo in izboljšanjem telesne uspešnosti preučevan in dokazan v različnih športnih dejavnostih (Karageorghis idr., 2020). Veliko študij je bilo narejenih v povezavi s tekom. V eni izmed študij so znanstveniki opravili raziskavo, v kateri so preverjali vpliv glasbe na stres ob gibalni aktivnosti (Brownley idr., 1995). Primerjali so odziv dihalnega sistema pri osmih treniranih in osmih netreniranih tekačih. V ti dve kategoriji so bili razdeljeni glede na vrednosti maksimalne porabe kisika, in sicer pod tremi različnimi pogoji (brez glasbe, umirjena glasba, hitra glasba) in ob treh različnih intenzivnostih teka: nizki (40 % maksimalne frekvence srca), srednji (60 % maksimalne frekvence srca) in visoki (80 % maksimalne frekvence srca). Raziskava je pripeljala do

zaključka, da hitra glasba pri teku poveča frekvenco dihanja v primerjavi s tekom ob umirjeni glasbi ali brez nje. Vpliv glasbe je bil večji pri testiranju netreniranih tekačev ob nizki intenzivnosti vadbe in manjši ob visoki intenzivnosti vadbe. Njihovi rezultati kažejo, da hitra glasba lahko pomaga netreniranim tekačem pri lažjem premagovanju napora, manj vpliva pa ima na trenirane tekače, saj ima glasba večji vpliv na frekvenco dihanja pri netreniranih tekačih.

Edworthy in Waring (2006) sta v študiji ugotavljala, kako vplivata tempo in glasnost glasbe pri teku na tekaški stezi. Zanimalo ju je, kako glasba vpliva na frekvenco srca, hitrost teka in občutek napora. Meritve, opravljene med desetminutnimi teki, v katerih je sodelovalo trideset prostovoljcev, so pokazale vpliv glasnosti in tempa glasbe na hitrost teka in frekvenco srca.

Kraševac (2018) je proučeval, kako se med tekom spremeni struktura tekaškega koraka, hitrost teka in razdalja ob poslušanju glasbe ter kako vpliva glasba na premagovanje napora. V raziskavi je sodelovalo deset preizkušancev (pet moških in žensk) povprečne starosti 31 let, povprečne teže 77,5 kg in povprečne telesne višine 176,2 cm. Opraviti so morali 20-minutni tek, ki je bil razdeljen na štiri odseke v trajanju po 5 minut. V treh odsekih so merjenci poslušali glasbo s tempom 130, 160 in 190 udarcev v minuti, eden izmed odsekov teka pa je bil izveden brez sočasnega poslušanja glasbe. Odseki teka s sočasnim poslušanjem glasbe in brez so bili naključno porazdeljeni. Rezultati raziskave so pokazali, da sočasno poslušanje glasbe s počasnim (130 ud./min.) in srednjim tempom (160 ud./min.) ne spremeni strukture tekaškega koraka, razdalje in hitrosti ter napora med tekom, medtem ko sočasno poslušanje glasbe s hitrim tempom (190 ud./min.) poveča razdaljo, hitrost in napor med tekom. Če povzamemo, sočasno poslušanje glasbe s hitrim tempom (190 ud./min.) najverjetneje vpliva na centralne dejavnike (mišično aktivacijo) in periferne dejavnike (kontraktilni mehanizem), ki so pomembni za razvoj mišične sile.

Waterhouse idr. (2010) so preučevali vpliv sočasnega poslušanja glasbe med kolesarjenjem na razdaljo, trajanje, moč in fiziološki odziv telesa, merjen s pomočjo frekvence srca. Prišli so do zaključka, da hitrejši tempo glasbe poveča prekolesarjeno razdaljo v odvisnosti od časa (2,1%) in moči (3,5%) kolesarjenja. Nasprotno, počasnejši tempo glasbe pa je povzročil zmanjšanje vrednosti razdalje (3,8%) in moči (9,8%) kolesarjenja.

V raziskavi so Karageorghis idr. (2018) izvedli študijo o moči prijema. Študija je vključevala različne pogoje, pri katerih so športniki izvajali nalogo: hitro/glasno (126 utripov na minuto/80 decibelov), hitro/tiho (126 utripov na minuto/70 decibelov), počasno/glasno (87 utripov na minuto/80 decibelov), počasno/tiho (87 utripov na minuto/70 decibelov) glasbo, ter kontrolno skupino brez glasbe. Ugotovili so, da je hitra glasba, predvajana pri visoki glasnosti, privedla do najboljših rezultatov moči prijemov, medtem ko je pri nizki glasnosti privedla do veliko slabših rezultatov moči prijemov.

Gibalno-športna aktivnost je zelo pomembna tako za posameznikov motorični kot tudi psihični razvoj. Omogoča pridobivanje novih izkušenj, sprejemanje in zbiranje informacij iz okolja ter njihovo uporabo v različnih življenjskih situacijah (Dolenc in Pišot, 2010, str. 85). Športnovzgojni karton je centralni informacijski sistem, s katerim spremljamo in vrednotimo vsakoletne spremembe v telesni zmogljivosti šolajočih se otrok in mladine. Opredeljujemo ga kot obvezno podatkovno zbirko (Kovač idr., 2011). Prvo za šole obvezno zbiranje podatkov o telesnih značilnostih in gibalni zmogljivosti

šolajočih se otrok predstavlja podatkovna zbirka telesnovzgojni karton, ki so jo začeli uvajati v šolskem letu 1970/1971, in že takrat je bila ena od obveznih nalog dotikanje plošče z roko. Z nalogo merimo hitrost izmeničnih gibov (Kovač idr., 2011). Ta test bi lahko uvrstili med gibalno in informacijsko enostavnejše, saj zahteva veliko frekvenco gibov. Rezultat je odvisen od sposobnosti hitrega preklapljanja mišic iz vloge antagonistov v vlogo agonistov (Starč idr., 2010). Hitrost pa je sposobnost, da se neko gibanje izvede z največjo frekvenco ali pa da se gibanje izvede v najkrajšem možnem času (Pistotnik, 2011).

Ugotavljamo, da je že več avtorjev preučevalo, ali ima glasba vpliv na naše gibanje, ali hitra glasba povzroča hitrejše gibanje in počasna počasnejše. Običajno so avtorji glasbo povezovali z motivacijo pri testirancih, predvsem pri teku. V literaturi nismo nikjer zasledili, da bi znanstveniki preučevali, ali tempo glasbe vpliva na hitrost pri testu dotikanja plošče z roko. Test dotikanja plošče z roko meri hitrost izmeničnih gibov. Z raziskavo bomo ugotavljali, ali tempo glasbe vpliva na hitrost gibanja človeka.

2 Metode

V naši raziskavi smo uporabili eksperimentalno metodo. Testiranje je potekalo v kontroliranem laboratorijskem okolju v telovadnici OŠ Milojke Štrukelj Nova Gorica, kjer smo predvajali dve različni glasbi, medtem ko smo izvajali test dotikanja plošče z roko.

Merjenci

V raziskavi je sodelovalo 51 učenk, ki so v šolskem letu 2021/2022 obiskovale 7. razred osnovne šole (starost 11–12 let). Odločili smo se, da bodo v raziskavi sodelovale samo merjenke, saj glede na literaturo (Starč idr., 2010) pri testu dotikanja plošče z roko v tem starostnem obdobju obstajajo statistične razlike med učenci in učenkami. Ker pa se več učenk ukvarja z estetskimi športi, pri katerih je pomemben ritem glasbe, smo primerjali tudi učenke, ki se ukvarjajo z estetskimi športi. Pred testiranjem smo zagotovili, da udeleženke nimajo nobenih poškodb ali omejitev pri gibanju roke.

Merjenke so test dotikanja plošče z roko izvedle dvakrat. Ob eni izvedbi testa je bila predvajana glasba s počasnim tempom, in sicer 100 ud./min. Glasbo smo predvajali z YouTube kanala (Workout Music Source, 2022). Ob drugi izvedbi testa pa je bila predvajana glasba s hitrim tempom, in sicer 190 ud./min. Glasbo smo tudi predvajali z YouTube kanala (Knee Friendly, 2022). Merjenke smo s testom seznanili in jim dali navodila, nismo pa omenjali, da bodo test izvajale med predvajanjem glasbe dveh različnih hitrosti. S tem smo preprečili, da bi merjenke zavestno vplivale na rezultate testa.

Ta dva tempa nista bila izbrana naključno. Zasledili smo ju v nekaterih drugih virih na temo vpliva glasbe na gibanje. Z raziskovanjem literature smo ugotovili, da glasba s 100 ud./min. velja za “Andante”, ki je najpočasnejši tempo med srednjimi hitrostmi tempov v glasbi, medtem ko glasba s 190 ud./min. velja za “Presto”, ki je najhitrejši tempo med hitrimi tempi v glasbi (Troiano, 2022).

Naloga

Merjenec sedi za mizo, na kateri je deska s ploščama. Slabšo roko (nedominantno) položi na sredino med plošči, drugo roko pa na ploščo na nasprotni strani. Na povelje “zdaj” se začne z dominantno roko izmenoma kar najhitreje dotikati obeh plošč. Vsak dotik obeh plošč šteje eno točko (Starc idr., 2010).

Vrednotenje

Rezultat je število točk (dotikov) v 20 sekundah.

Vprašalnik

Merjenke so po končanem testu izpolnile anketni vprašalnik, kjer so odgovarjale na vprašanja o tem, ali hodijo v glasbeno šolo, ali se ukvarjajo s športom in ali se ukvarjajo z estetskim športom, pri katerem izvajajo gibe ob ritmu glasbe (ples, ritmična gimnastika, kotalkanje, twirling in podobno). V nadaljevanju bomo vse te dejavnosti posplošili in vse te kategorije skupno poimenovali ples.

Statistična analiza

Analizo rezultatov smo obdelali v programu IBM SPSS Statistics 26.0.

V analizo smo vključili naslednje spremenljivke:

- vsi_100bpm: število dotikov plošče merjenk pri počasni glasbi, 100 udarcev na minuto;
- vsi_190bpm: število dotikov plošče merjenk pri hitri glasbi, 190 udarcev na minuto;
- ples_100bpm: število dotikov plošče merjenk, ki se ukvarjajo s plesom ali glasbo, pri počasni glasbi, 100 udarcev na minuto;
- ples_190bpm: število dotikov plošče merjenk, ki se ukvarjajo s plesom ali glasbo, pri hitri glasbi, 190 udarcev na minuto;
- neples_100bpm: število dotikov plošče merjenk, ki se ne ukvarjajo s plesom ali glasbo, pri počasni glasbi, 100 udarcev na minuto;
- neples_190bpm: število dotikov plošče merjenk, ki se ne ukvarjajo s plesom ali glasbo, pri hitri glasbi, 190 udarcev na minuto;
- razlika_ples: razlika v številu dotikov plošče med testom pri počasni in hitri glasbi pri merjenkah, ki se ukvarjajo s plesom ali glasbo;
- razlika_neples: razlika v številu dotikov plošče med testom pri počasni in hitri glasbi pri merjenkah, ki se ne ukvarjajo s plesom ali glasbo.

Uporabili smo naslednje statistične analize:

- opisna (deskriptivna) statistika,
- normalnost porazdelitev (Shapiro-Wilk test) in
- parni t-test.

Statistična analiza je bila narejena pri $p < 0,05$.

3 Rezultati

V raziskavi smo testirali učenke 7. razreda osnovne šole. V tabeli 1 so predstavljeni statistični podatki merjenk. Učenke, ki so na vprašalniku označile, da trenirajo šport, ki vključuje določene gibe na glasbeno spremljavo, smo označili kot plesalke, učenke, ki hodijo v glasbeno šolo, pa kot glasbenice. Učenke, ki se ukvarjajo z obema dejavnostma, smo označili kot plesalke in glasbenice. Neplesalke in neglasbenice pa so učenke, ki so označile, da se ne ukvarjajo z nobeno od omenjenih dejavnosti.

Tabela 1

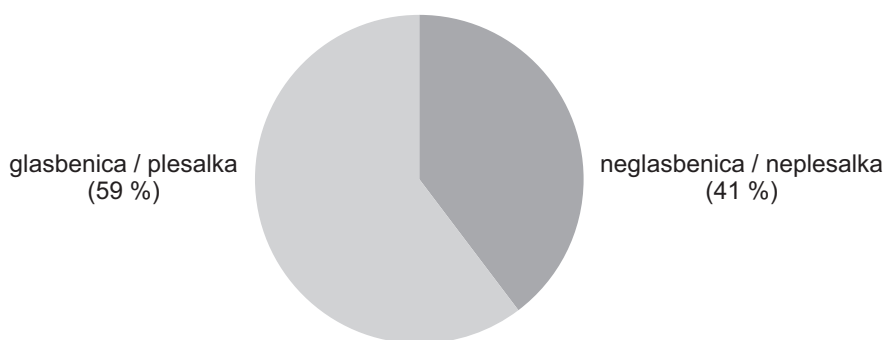
Opisna statistika, analiza merjenk

<i>Razred</i>	<i>7. A</i>	<i>7. B</i>	<i>7. C</i>	<i>7. D</i>	<i>Skupaj</i>	<i>Odstotek (%)</i>
Število	14	12	12	13	51	100
Glasbenice	4	1	0	2	7	13,7
Plesalke	5	4	5	6	20	39,2
Neplesalke/neglasbenice	5	7	5	4	21	41,2
Plesalke/glasbenice	0	0	2	1	3	5,9

Iz tabele 1 lahko razberemo, da je bilo vseh testirank 51. Glasbenic je bilo 7, kar je 13,7%, plesalk je bilo 20, kar znaša 39,2%, 3 pa so plesalke in glasbenice, kar predstavlja 5,9%. Med vsemi testiranimi je bilo tudi 21 deklet (41,18%), ki se ne ukvarjajo niti z glasbo niti s plesom. Plesalk in glasbenic skupaj pa je bilo 58,8%.

Slika 2

Grafični prikaz merjenk, razdeljenih v dve skupini (glasbenice/plesalke in neplesalke/neglasbenice)



Na sliki 2 lahko vidimo, da prevladujejo merjenke, ki so ali glasbenice ali plesalke. Skupaj je takšnih merjenk 30. Merjenk, ki niso niti plesalke niti glasbenice, pa je 21. Merjenk, ki se ukvarjajo z navedenimi dejavnostmi, je dobra polovica (59,8%), merjenk, ki pa se ne ukvarjajo z ničemer, je malo manj kot pol (41,2%).

Tabela 2*Opisna statistika, število dotikov plošče*

	Št.	Min.	Maks.	Povprečje	St. odklon	Varianca	Normalnost porazdelitve
vsi_100bpm	51	28	45	35,04	3,63	13,16	N ^{s-w}
vsi_190bpm	51	30	47	38,16	3,76	14,14	N ^{s-w}
ples_100bpm	30	28	45	34,83	4,11	16,90	N ^{s-w}
ples_190bpm	30	30	47	38,37	4,33	18,80	N ^{s-w}
neples_100bpm	21	29	40	35,33	2,87	8,23	N ^{s-w}
neples_190bpm	21	31	41	37,86	2,82	7,93	ne
razlika_ples	30	0	10	3,60	2,55	6,52	N ^{s-w}
razlika_neples	21	0	5	2,62	1,60	2,55	N ^{s-w}

Opombe: bpm – udarcev/minuto; N^{s-w} – normalnost porazdelitve, Shapiro-Wilk test; ne – nenormalnost porazdelitve

V tabeli 2 lahko vidimo, da so tako plesalke/glasbenice kot neplesalke/neglasbenice pri hitrejši glasbi izboljšale svoj rezultat. Največja razlika je vidna pri plesalkah, ki imajo pri počasni glasbi povprečno 34,8 dotika plošče, pri hitri pa povprečno 38,4 dotika plošče. Najmanjše razlike so vidne pri merjenkah, ki niso ne glasbenice in ne plesalke. Razlika med hitro in počasno glasbo je povprečno 2,6 dotika, medtem ko so plesalke imele povprečno razliko kar 3,6 dotika plošče. Velike razlike lahko opazimo tudi, če pogledamo skupne rezultate in primerjamo povprečne meritve pri počasni glasbi (35 dotikov) in hitri glasbi (38,2 dotika). Povprečna razlika med meritvami, izvedenimi pri hitri glasbi, in meritvami, izvedenimi pri počasni glasbi, pa je 3,2 dotika.

Zaradi manjšega števila vzorcev smo za preverjanje porazdelitve vzorcev izvedli Shapiro-Wilkov test normalne porazdelitve. Test je potrdil normalnost porazdelitve pri spremenljivkah: meritve dotikov pri počasni glasbi (vsi_100bpm), meritve dotikov pri hitri glasbi (vsi_190bpm), meritve dotikov plesalk pri hitri in počasni glasbi (ples_100bpm; ples_190bpm) ter meritve števila dotikov pri počasni glasbi neplesalk/neglasbenic (neples_100bpm). Za meritve neplesalk/neglasbenic pri hitri glasbi (neples_190bpm) ne moremo potrditi normalnosti porazdelitve. Po pregledu Q-Q-diagrama pa smo se vseeno odločili za nadaljevanje analize, saj lahko trdimo, da ima spremenljivka skoraj normalno porazdelitev podatkov.

Tabela 3*Parni t-test za meritve pri hiti in počasni glasbi*

	Povprečje	St. odklon	St. napaka	T-test (p)
vsi_100bpm	35,04	5,24	0,73	0,00*
vsi_190bpm	38,16			

Opomba: T-test je značilen pri $p \leq 0,05$.

Iz tabele 3 je razvidno, da je povprečje dotikov plošče vseh merjenk pri hitri glasbi (190 ud./min.) večje kot pri počasni glasbi (100 ud./min.). P-vrednost po opravljenem t-testu je manjša od 0,05, zato lahko potrdimo statistične razlike in rezultate posplošimo za celotno populacijo.

Tabela 4

Parni t-test za meritve pri počasni glasbi, razlika med plesalkami/glasbenicami in neplesalkami/neglasbenicami

	Povprečje	St. odklon	St. napaka	T-test (p)
ples_100bpm	34,83	4,40	0,96	0,31
neples_100bpm	35,33			

Opomba: T-test je značilen pri $p \leq 0,05$.

Iz tabele 4 je razvidno, da je povprečje dotikov plošče merjenk, ki se ne ukvarjajo z glasbo ali plesom, pri počasni glasbi večje (34,8) kot pri merjenkah, ki se ukvarjajo z glasbo ali plesom (35,3). Po opravljenem t-testu je p-vrednost večja od 0,05, zato ne moremo potrditi statističnih razlik.

Tabela 5

Parni t-test za meritve pri hitri glasbi (190 ud./min.), razlika med plesalkami/glasbenicami in neplesalkami/neglasbenicami

	Povprečje	St. odklon	St. napaka	T-test (p)
ples_190bpm	38,37	5,31	1,16	0,78
neples_190bpm	37,86			

Opomba: T-test je značilen pri $p \leq 0,05$.

Iz tabele 5 je razvidno, da je povprečje dotikov plošče merjenk, ki se ukvarjajo z glasbo ali plesom, pri hitri glasbi večje kot pri merjenkah, ki se z glasbo in plesom ne ukvarjajo. P-vrednost je večja od 0,05, zato ne moremo potrditi statističnih razlik.

Tabela 6

Parni t-test – razlika v rezultatih testa dotikanja plošče z roko med hitro in počasno glasbo

	Povprečje	St. odklon	St. napaka	T-test (p)
razlika_ples	3,60	2,65	0,58	0,26
razlika_neples	2,62			

Opomba: T-test je značilen pri $p \leq 0,05$.

Ugotavljamo (tabela 6), da je povprečje dotikov plošče pri razliki med hitro in počasno glasbo merjenk, ki se ukvarjajo z glasbo ali plesom, večje za povprečno 1 dotik

kot pri merjenkah, ki se z glasbo in plesom ne ukvarjajo. Plesalke/glasbenice imajo povprečno pri testu med hitro glasbo 3,6 dotika več kot med počasno glasbo. Pri neplesalkah/neglasbenicah pa je bila povprečna razlika za 2,6 dotika večja. P-vrednost je večja od 0,05, tako da ne moremo potrditi statističnih razlik in posplošiti ugotovitev na celotno populacijo, kljub temu da je povprečje med skupinama različno.

4 Razprava

Za preverjanje hipotez smo uporabili test dotikanja plošče z roko. Vseh 51 testirank je obiskovalo v šolskem letu 2021/2022 7. razred OŠ Milojke Štrukelj Nova Gorica. S pomočjo ankete smo jih razdelili v dve skupini glede na njihove interesne dejavnosti, in sicer glede na to, ali se ukvarjajo s plesom in ali hodijo v glasbeno šolo ali ne.

V raziskavi smo si postavili 4 hipoteze. Predvsem nas je zanimalo, ali na hitrost gibanja vpliva tempo glasbe, ki jo medtem poslušamo. Zanimalo pa nas je tudi, ali se rezultati razlikujejo med merjenkami, ki se ukvarjajo z dejavnostmi, povezanimi z glasbo, in imajo izkušnje s tempom glasbe, in merjenkami, ki se z glasbo ne ukvarjajo. Predvidevali smo, da merjenke, ki niso glasbenice ali plesalke, nimajo toliko stika z glasbo in zato nanje tempo glasbe ne bo vplival v tolikšni meri.

Statistična analiza je pokazala, da so razlike med testi, izvedenimi pri počasni glasbi, in testi, izvedenimi pri hitri glasbi. Povprečna razlika med obema meritvama je 3,12 dotika, kar predstavlja kar 8,5 % glede na povprečje vseh rezultatov testa dotikanja plošče z roko.

Razlike smo potrdili tudi s parnim t-testom, ki je pokazal statistično razliko med skupinama. Med testom dotikanja plošče z roko, izvedenim pri počasni glasbi, in testom dotikanja plošče z roko, izvedenim pri hitri glasbi, obstajajo značilne statistične razlike. Hipotezo potrdimo in s tem lahko trdimo, da je hitrejši tempo razlog za doseganje bolj-
ših rezultatov pri enostavnih gibih.

Kljub temu pa smo zaznali tudi slabost raziskave, saj je možno, da so razlike v dotikih plošče tudi posledica želje po izboljšanju rezultatov prve meritve. Če bi želeli še bolj objektivno izvesti meritve, bi morali monitor z rezultati zakriti, tako da merjenke ne bi mogle sproti preverjati svojih rezultatov. Res pa je, da je med izvajanjem testa rezultate težko spremljati, saj so merjenke usmerjene v izvajanje testa in pogled sledi delu roke, zato po vsej verjetnosti ta vidik ni imel velikega vpliva.

Drugo vprašanje, ki smo si ga zastavili, je, ali imajo dodatne ure z glasbo in ritmom vpliv na rezultat. Ugotovili smo, da so tudi med plesalkami/glasbenicami in neplesalkami/neglasbenicami razlike v povprečju pri izvedbi testa pri počasni glasbi, vendar je ta razlika za samo 0,5 dotika. Tudi t-test ni pokazal statističnih razlik med skupinama. Pri počasni glasbi torej ne moremo trditi, da je vpliv glasbe na plesalke/glasbenice drugačen kot na neplesalke/neglasbenice, saj med tema skupinama pri izvedbi testa dotikanja plošče z roko pri počasni glasbi ni statističnih razlik. Med plesalkami/glasbenicami in neplesalkami/neglasbenicami pri izvedbi testa dotikanja plošče pri hitri glasbi je povprečno razlika prav tako 0,5 dotika. T-test ponovno ni statistično značilen. Tudi pri hitri glasbi ne moremo trditi, da plesalke/glasbenice hitreje izvajajo test v primerjavi

z neplesalkami/neglasbenicami. V obeh primerih pa imajo plesalke/glasbenice boljše rezultate. Ker nimamo podatka, koliko je športnic v skupini neplesalk/neglasbenic, ne moremo narediti zaključkov, ali se takšni rezultati kažejo tudi zaradi splošne športne zmogljivosti merjenk, ki so bile v skupini plesalk/glasbenic.

Rezultati so pokazali, da je povprečna razlika med plesalkami/glasbenicami in neplesalkami/neglasbenicami pri počasni in hitri glasbi približno za en dotik. Med razlikama v testu dotikanja plošče pri hitri in počasni glasbi med plesalkami/glasbenicami in neplesalkami/neglasbenicami ni statističnih razlik in ponovno ne moremo dokazati razlik.

Ugotovili smo, da ne glede na to, ali merjenke hodijo v glasbeno šolo oziroma trenirajo ples ali druge športe, ki so v povezavi z glasbo, ali ne, jih hitra glasba spodbuja k hitrejšemu gibanju, medtem pa predznanje s področja glasbe ali plesa ne vpliva bistveno na hitrost testa dotikanja plošče z roko. Lahko bi rekli, da imajo učenke že brez dodatnih ur s področja plesa/glasbe dovolj znanja in zaznavajo ritem in hitrost glasbe, ki jih spodbuja pri izvajanju testa. Predvidevamo lahko, da so to znanje pridobile v šoli pri pouku glasbe in športa ter drugih šolskih predmetih, kjer imajo stik z ritmom. Koban Dobnik idr. (2012, str. 6) namreč pravijo, da glasbenopedagoška teorija in praksa poudarjata pomen glasbene vzgoje in aktivno pridobivanje glasbenih izkušenj, kjer učenci oblikujejo svoje glasbeno vedenje, gibalno-plesne aktivnosti pa imajo v učnih načrtih za glasbo pomembno mesto na vseh stopnjah izobraževanja.

Tako kot Edworthy in Waring (2006) smo tudi mi ugotovili, da tempo glasbe vpliva na hitrost gibanja, v našem primeru pri testu dotikanja plošče z roko (na hitrost enostavnega giba). Pistotnik (2011) pravi, da je hitrost v največji meri odvisna od dednih lastnosti, kar kaže na majhne možnosti, da bi s treningom lahko vplivali na njen razvoj. Vse kaže, da kljub temu hitrost glasbe v določeni meri vpliva tudi na frekvenco gibov. Chanda in Levitin (2013) pravita, da "stimulativna" glasba povzroči simpatično vzbujenje, ki posledično povzroči povečanje srca, povzroči vazodilatacijo arterij v skeletnih mišicah, povzroči povečanje dihanja, prevodnost kože, izločanje katekolaminov itd.

Postavlja se tudi vprašanje, ali bi bili rezultati drugačni, če bi se testiranje izvajalo brez glasbe. Brownley idr. (1995) so testirali pri hitri in počasni glasbi ter brez nje. Rezultati so pokazali, da pri naporu brez glasbe in z glasbo obstajajo določene razlike pri enakomernem dihanju med tekom, sicer samo pri netreniranih tekačih.

Rezultati so pokazali, da je smiselno, da športniki pri treningu hitrosti uporabljajo hiter tempo glasbe in s tem povečajo svojo hitrost. V skladu z raziskavo (Kraševac, 2018) ugotavljamo, da tempo glasbe vpliva na centralne dejavnike (mišična aktivacija) in periferne dejavnike (kontraktilni mehanizem), ki so pomembni za razvoj mišične sile. Torej lahko trdimo, da je glasba zunanji motivator za doseganje boljših rezultatov pri določenih gibalnih nalogah. Tudi pri pouku športa bi bilo smiselno, da bi za dvig hitrosti uporabljali glasbo s hitrim tempom.

Habe in Delin (2010, str. 35) pravita, da osnovnošolski učitelji glasbo kot motivacijsko sredstvo uporabljajo le včasih ali redko. Najpogosteje jo uporabljajo za izboljšanje vzdušja, sprostitve, prebujanje estetike in za izboljšanje razpoloženja pri učencih. Smiselno bi bilo razmisliti o uporabi glasbe tudi za stimulacijo in motivacijo učencev za boljšo učinkovitost pri drugih učnih predmetih in s tem spodbuditi delovno učinkovitost učencev.

Ana Kašček Bučinel, PhD

Music as a Motivational Tool for Better Motor Outcomes in Children

The study aimed to investigate the potential influence of music tempo while performing the plate-tapping test. Four hypotheses were formulated. They were focused on examining whether the speed of music impacts movement speed. Additionally, we sought to explore variations in results between individuals engaged in dance/music activities who may possess enhanced rhythmic precision, compared to those not involved in such activities. We hypothesized that individuals without dance/musical backgrounds would have limited exposure to music, and, therefore, struggle to perceive musical rhythm effectively.

Methods: In our study, we employed an experimental methodology. The testing took place in a controlled environment at the Milojka Štrukelj Elementary School gymnasium in Nova Gorica. Two different pieces of music were played while conducting the plate-tapping test.

Participants: The study included 51 female students attending the 7th grade in the 2021/2022 academic year, aged 11–12. Participants were exclusively female, aligning with existing literature (Starc et al., 2010) that indicates statistical differences in plate-tapping tests between male and female students in this age group. Given that more female students engage in esthetic sports where the rhythm of music is essential and since we compared these two groups, only female participants were included in the study. Before testing, we ensured that participants had no injuries or movement restrictions in their hands.

Procedure: Participants performed the plate-tapping test twice. One test was accompanied by slow-tempo music at 100 beats per minute (bpm), sourced from the YouTube channel (Workout Music Source, 2022). The other test was accompanied by fast-tempo music at 190 bpm, sourced from the YouTube channel (Knee Friendly, 2022). Participants were informed about the test and given instructions but were not informed that they would be tested with different music tempos. This prevented participants from consciously influencing the test results.

The choice of music tempos was not arbitrary. They were identified in relevant literature on the influence of music on movement. According to our literature review, music at 100 bpm is considered “Andante”, the slowest tempo within the moderate speed range in music. On the other hand, music at 190 bpm is considered “Presto”, the fastest tempo among fast tempos in music (Troiano, 2022).

Equipment: For measurements, we used the prescribed equipment for the plate-tapping test. We employed the electronic tapping device, a tool for measuring touches left/right within a 20-second interval (Figure 1). The kit includes a base plate, an electronic counter with a connecting cable, and 4 LR6 1.5 V AAA batteries.

The base plate is a board with two circular plates attached, each with a diameter of 20 cm, and the lower edges are 61 cm apart. We also used a table and chair adjusted to the age and height of the students (Starc et al., 2010).

Adaptation for left-handed/right-handed individuals is automatic. A left-handed individual places his or her right hand in the middle and his or her left hand on the right plate while a right-handed individual places his or her left hand in the middle and his or her right hand on the left plate. The tapping device automatically recognizes which side to start counting by displaying "LE" or "RE" (left/right) on the screen after 3 seconds of holding both plates in the initial position. Following this, the screen displays "00:20" while both plates are held, indicating that the device is ready to count touches. The left pair of numbers count touches, and the right pair count down the time available to complete the exercise. After 20 seconds, the right counter resets to "00", signifying the end of counting touches. The result remains displayed on the left side of the monitor until the next user is ready for testing. When hands are placed in the starting position, the result resets after 3 seconds, allowing the next user to begin testing (Electronic tapping instructions, 2024).

Task: The participant sits at a table with a board and two plates. The less dominant hand is placed in the middle between the plates while the other hand is placed on the plate on the opposite side. On the command "go", the participant starts touching both plates alternately as quickly as possible with the dominant hand. Each touch of both plates counts as one point (Starc et al., 2010).

Evaluation: The result is the number of points (touches) in 20 seconds.

Additionally, we administered a questionnaire to gather information on participants' involvement in music school and engagement in esthetic sports involving music-related exercises. We predicted that participants performing under a faster tempo would exhibit superior results and that dancers/musicians would outperform non-dancers/non-musicians due to their familiarity with musical tempo.

After completing the test, participants filled out a questionnaire, answering questions about whether they attended music school, engaged in sports, and participated in esthetic sports involving movements to the rhythm of music (dance, rhythmic gymnastics, roller skating, twirling, etc.). In the subsequent discussion, these categories will be collectively referred to as "dance".

Data analysis was performed using IBM SPSS Statistic 26.0. We conducted paired-sample t-tests to examine the differences in plate touches between slow and fast tempos, as well as paired-sample t-tests to assess the differences in plate touches between participants involved in music school or esthetic sports and those not involved in such activities.

Discussion: The statistical analysis revealed differences between tests conducted with slow- and fast-paced music. The average difference between the two measurements is 3.12 touches, representing 8.5% relative to the overall average of all plate-tapping test results. These differences were further confirmed by a paired t-test, indicating a statistically significant difference between the groups. There are significant statistical differences between the plate-tapping test performed with slow music and the one performed with fast music. The hypothesis has been confirmed, suggesting that a faster tempo is the reason for achieving better results in simple movements.

However, a limitation of the study is acknowledged because differences in plate-tapping interactions may also stem from a desire to improve results from the initial measurement. To conduct more objective measurements, result monitors should be con-

cealed to prevent participants from checking their results in real time. Nonetheless, during the test execution, it may be challenging to monitor results closely because participants are focused on performing the test and this aspect likely had minimal impact.

Another question posed is whether additional hours of exposure to music and rhythm affect the results. Differences were found between dancers/musicians and non-dancers/non-musicians in the slow music test but the difference was only 0.5 touches. The *t*-test did not show statistical differences between the groups. Thus, for slow music, it cannot be asserted that the influence of music on dancers/musicians is different from that on non-dancers/non-musicians because there are no statistical differences in the plate-tapping test results. In the fast music test, the average difference is also 0.5 touches, and the *t*-test is not statistically significant. Therefore, it cannot be claimed that dancers/musicians perform the test faster compared to non-dancers/non-musicians in the case of fast music. However, dancers/musicians achieve better results in both cases. Since the number of athletes in the non-dancer/non-musician group is unknown, conclusions cannot be drawn about whether these results are also due to the general athletic performance of participants in the dancer/musician group.

Results indicate an average difference of approximately one touch between dancers/musicians and non-dancers/non-musicians in both slow and fast music scenarios. There are no statistical differences in plate-tapping test results between dancers/musicians and non-dancers/non-musicians for both slow and fast music, and thus, no differences can be proven among the participants.

It has been observed that regardless of whether participants attend music school or engage in dance or other sports related to music, fast music stimulates faster movement. Prior knowledge of music or dance does not significantly influence the speed of the plate-tapping test. It can be assumed that participants have enough knowledge to perceive the rhythm and speed of music even without additional hours in music or dance, which stimulates them during the test. This knowledge may be acquired in school through music and sports classes, and other subjects where rhythm is present. Koban Dobnik et al. (2012, p. 6) argue that music pedagogy theory and practice emphasize the importance of music education and the active acquisition of musical experiences wherein students shape their musical behavior. Additionally, movement and dance activities hold a significant place in music curricula at all levels of education.

Similar to Edworthy and Waring (2006), it has been found that the tempo of music influences the speed of movement, specifically in the plate-tapping test (for simple movements). Pistotnik (2011) suggests that speed is predominantly influenced by genetic traits, indicating limited potential for training to impact its development. Nevertheless, it appears that the speed of music also influences the frequency of movements to some extent. Chanda and Levitin (2013) state that “stimulating” music increases sympathetic arousal, subsequently raising heart rate, causing vasodilation in skeletal muscle arteries, respiratory rate, skin conductivity, catecholamine secretion, etc.

The question arises whether the results would be different if testing were conducted without music. Brownley et al. (1995) tested running with fast music, slow music, and without music. The results indicated differences in consistent breathing during running between efforts without music and with music. However, this was observed only in untrained runners.

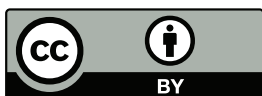
The results suggest that athletes can benefit from using fast-paced music during speed training to enhance their performance. Consistent with Kraševac's study (2018), it is noted that music tempo affects the central factors (muscle activation) and peripheral factors (contractile mechanism) crucial for muscle strength development. Therefore, it can be argued that music serves as an external motivator for achieving better results in specific motor tasks. It would make sense to incorporate fast-paced music in sports classes to boost speed.

According to Habe and Delin (2010, p. 35), elementary school teachers only occasionally or rarely use music as a motivational tool. Most often, they employ it to improve the atmosphere, promote relaxation, enhance esthetic appreciation, and uplift students' moods. It would be meaningful to consider using music also to stimulate and motivate students for better performance in other subjects, thereby enhancing students' productivity.

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Musically Creative Pupils (Aged 6–11): Perspectives of Elementary Education Students

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Znanstveni članek

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KLJUČNE BESEDE: glasbena umetnost, glasbena ustvarjalnost, osnovnošolsko izobraževanje, študenti razrednega pouka, faktorska analiza

POVZETEK – Na podlagi razumevanja področne splošnosti in specifičnosti glasbene ustvarjalnosti ter kompleksnosti njene opredelitve sta bila cilja naše raziskave preučiti izražanje oblikovanega nabora značilnosti glasbeno ustvarjalnih učencev v osnovni šoli (starih od 6 do 11 let) z vidika študentov razrednega pouka in preučiti faktorsko strukturo značilnosti glasbeno ustvarjalnih učencev. V raziskavi so sodelovali študenti razrednega pouka ($n = 193$) na Pedagoški fakulteti Univerze v Mariboru. Uporabljen je bil kvantitativni raziskovalni pristop z neeksperimentalno raziskovalno metodo. Faktorska analiza je podala pet komponent, ki predstavljajo strukturo značilnosti glasbeno ustvarjalnih učencev: ustvarjalnost, motivacija, glasbene sposobnosti in izvajalske spretnosti, zagon in avtonomnost. Implikacije raziskave kažejo na uporabnost v izobraževalnih okoljih za prepoznavanje glasbeno ustvarjalnih učencev in razvijanje njihovega potenciala. Nadaljnje raziskave se lahko nanašajo na medfakultetne in mednarodne študije zaznavanja glasbeno ustvarjalnih učencev iz podobnih izobraževalnih in kulturnih okolij.

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KEYWORDS: music education, musical creativity, elementary education, elementary education students, factor analysis

ABSTRACT – Based on the understanding of the domain generality and the specificity of musical creativity and its complex definition, the aim of our study was to examine the expression of a constructed set of characteristics of musically creative pupils at elementary school (aged 6–11 years) from the perspective of elementary education students, as well as to examine the factor structure of the characteristics of musically creative pupils. Elementary education students ($n = 193$) from the Faculty of Education, University of Maribor, participated in the research. A quantitative research approach with a non-experimental research method was followed. The exploratory factor analysis yielded five components that represent the structure of musically creative pupils' characteristics: creativity, motivation, musical ability and performance skills, impetus, and agency. The implications of the research suggest usability in educational settings for identifying musically creative pupils and developing their potential. Further research may concern inter-faculty and international studies of perception of musically creative pupils from similar educational and cultural backgrounds.

1 Introduction

Creativity, often diffuse and multifaceted in its conceptual meaning, is gaining in importance with each passing decade. As one of the essential skills of the 21st century (Yoo & Kang, 2021), it plays an important role in a complex world and remains one of the few means to face fully the uncertainty of the future (Pecheanu & Tudorie, 2014). Its contradictory nature is reflected in many definitions and conceptualisations, and is in some ways characterised by pluralism (Kozbelt et al., 2010; Williamon et al., 2006). The diversity of theoretical frameworks and discourses does not offer a single definition of creativity – yet, based on the psychology field, they are linked by two elements: originality and utility (Mumford, 2003; Runco & Jaeger, 2012; Sternberg & Lubart, 1999).

Originality refers to novelty and uniqueness, while utility can also be equated with the appropriateness and coherence of the creative product (Hernández-Torrano & Ibrayeva, 2020; Hickey & Lipscomb, 2006), one of the four Ps of creativity as first named by Rhodes (1961) – product, process, person, and press (environment). Walia (2019) provides a summarised definition of creativity whereby creation is tangible, observable, original, and change-oriented, and should be considered as creative by society.

Domain generality and domain specificity of creativity

Answering the question of whether creativity is domain-general or domain-specific is complex – some research has suggested that certain general characteristics are necessary for the development of specific talents in creative functioning (Feist, 2004; Lubart & Guignard, 2004), which Chen et al. (2020) supported with a synthesis of the results of neuroimaging studies indicating that there is a central, domain-general system for artistic creativity with a certain number of domain-specific neural pathways in the brain. Qian et al. (2019) found that creativity is more domain-general than domain-specific; in other words, people can be creative in multiple domains and not necessarily in a single domain. However, creativity can become more domain-specific as people gain professional expertise in their field. In educational settings, we talk about “everyday creativity” – little c-creativity (Kaufman & Beghetto, 2009), which, according to Qian et al. (2019), needs to be developed in multiple fields with the idea of increasing overall creativity.

In music, the conceptualisation of creativity is vague in terms of domain generality or specificity (Chen et al., 2020; Lothwesen, 2018). The field of music, after all, contains a variety of activities that require different skills (Lothwesen, 2018). Thus, when we talk about the characteristics of musically creative individuals, we are describing in some respects the general characteristics of creative people but, at the same time, some specific skills and abilities that more often occur only in the domain of musical creativity.

Creative process

In general, people would answer the question “What is creativity?” with a creative product in mind, but this ignores an important aspect of creativity – the process, which mostly refers to problem solving and creative thinking (Gruszka & Tang, 2017). Alongside Wallas’s (1926) four-stage cognitive model of the creativity process – preparation, incubation, illumination, and verification – creativity is associated with the problem-solving ability that accompanies the generation of many new ideas (Guilford, 1956; Selby et al., 2005; Sternberg & Lubart, 1999; Torrance, 1981). This is associated with divergent thinking, a crucial creative skill (Feldhusen, 1994), for which Guilford (1956) distinguished four parameters: fluency (the production of many ideas), originality (the production of new, unexpected ideas), flexibility (the production of a variety of ideas), and elaboration (the ability to systematise and organise ideas and to carry them out). It should be stressed here that divergent thinking and creative thinking cannot be equated. Divergent thinking can lead to originality, which is a key element of creativity, but this is not always the case (Runco & Acar, 2012).

Characteristics of creative individuals

Some authors have agreed that there are contradictions in the characteristics of creative individuals. McMullen (1976) listed several characteristic polarities: ease and attentiveness, self-confidence and modesty, disinterest and selfishness, withdrawal and concentration, and constructiveness and distraction; Guilford (1959) and McMullen (1976) highlighted convergence and divergence; and Csikszentmihalyi (1996) referred to playfulness and willingness to work, introversion and extraversion, and rebelliousness and following instructions. The literature also offers a wide range of other personality traits and cognitive abilities of creative individuals: independence, adaptability, a good memory, a broad knowledge background, emotional maturity (Clark, 1979), openness to new ideas, enthusiasm (interest in the field) (Clark, 1979; Hoseinfar et al., 2011), self-discipline (Clark, 1979; Hoseinfar et al., 2011; Reid et al., 1959), perseverance (Kladder & Lee, 2019; Reid et al., 1959), sociability (Hoseinfar et al., 2011; Reid et al., 1959), flexibility, curiosity, efficiency, duty performance, melancholy (Hoseinfar et al., 2011), an exploratory spirit, impulsivity (Guilford, 1959), and risk taking (Kladder & Lee, 2019). Abra (1997) argued that motivation is crucial in all areas of creativity and manifests as a need or impetus for expression. Hargreaves and Lamont (2017) stated that personality characteristics (independence, non-conformity, and self-confidence) and cognitive style (convergent and divergent thinking) influence the level of musical creativity, while Treffinger et al. (2002) argued that, in addition, past experiences build a creative individual. Torrance (1962) distinguished between desirable (altruism, high energy levels, persistence, and assertiveness) and non-conformist (resistance to conventionality, eccentricity, stubbornness, and unpredictability) characteristics. Selby et al. (2005) pointed out that, in the multitude of characteristics of the creative personality, many overlap or even contradict each other. They further argued that no one possesses all the characteristics that appear in the literature, and, at the same time, a person does not necessarily possess certain characteristics throughout their whole life.

Biasutti (2017) and Csikszentmihalyi (2014) associated flow with creativity, which is characterised as an intense, entranced state of awareness and absorption in a process. According to Schutte and Malouff (2020), flow enables optimal task performance and can be treated as a link between curiosity and creativity. Higher levels of curiosity are associated with higher levels of flow, which in turn produce higher levels of creativity and, according to MacDonald et al. (2006), higher-quality compositions. Furthermore, semantic and episodic memory are of considerable importance in creative cognition (Fink et al., 2015; Madore et al., 2015); this is also true for creative activities in music (de Dreu et al., 2012; Oikkonen et al., 2016).

Creative environment

Selby et al. (2005) stated that creativity is the result of the interaction between cognition, personality, and the environment (press), which provides factors to nurture or inhibit creativity (Rhodes, 1961). Although the act of creativity, at least in terms of the emergence of an idea, is purely individualistic (Glăveanu, 2013), it is supported by the social environment and everyday interactions in a social context (Glăveanu, 2013; Hen-

nessey & Amabile, 2010; Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2001; Schiavio & Benedek, 2020). In an educational context, the classroom plays an important role in the creative process by providing a collaborative space that fosters creative thinking (Kladder & Lee, 2019). Creative expression manifests itself in a psychologically safe and free environment that allows individuals to be fully absorbed in the creative process (Rogers, 1954), and promotes experimentation, playfulness, and exploration (Selby et al., 2005). Research conducted on a sample of preschool children has shown that there is an interaction between children's exploratory drive, their sensorimotor abilities, and the constraints of their environment (the educator and objects in the classroom) (Peñalba et al., 2021). The implementation of collaborative or cooperative practice facilitates the development of creativity (Baloche, 1994; Burnard, 2013; Gruenhagen, 2017; Johnson & LaGasse, 2021; Wiggins & Espeland, 2012). Along these lines, Young (2003) considered that the social interactive processes of creativity are one of the generative sources of children's musical ideas and further explained that children's creative play on an instrument has a communicative connotation.

Creativity and music ability

According to Gordon (1989), musical ability is an important factor in determining the extent of an individual's musical creativity, given an early musical environment of appropriate quality and breadth. Campbell (1990) suggested that the cognitive nature of spontaneous musical expressiveness is closely related to the possession of aural and dexterity skills. Burnard and Boyack (2013) argued that teachers can build children's natural inclinations towards musical creativity through varied repertoire, experimentation with voice and instruments, and active listening to music. Runco (2005) pointed out that the definition of a creative individual requires distance from the product as otherwise children who show musical creative talent but need a little more encouragement may be neglected. Oikkonen et al. (2016) and Zhou (2018) stated that we are all born with the potential of inherited musical creativity to some degree. Its realisation and development depend on many factors (Sternberg, 2000; Tafuri, 2006; Treffinger et al., 2002). It can be stimulated by the training of an implicit (e.g. arts education) or explicit nature (e.g. exercises for better attention and working memory) (Zhou, 2018). Sovansky et al. (2016) showed that a higher level of musical creativity is associated with music education and musical participation. Pupils produce more creative and original music when they feel confident about their own musical abilities (Coulson & Burke, 2013; Mawang et al., 2019), and this can be facilitated by freedom in music, which also minimises pupils' dysfunctional beliefs about their own abilities (Nazario, 2021).

Characteristics of musically creative pupils

Musical creativity in the school environment is a well-known area of research but with a focus on the assessment of creative products. Alongside tests to identify musical creative potential (Webster, 1994), more intuitive assessment tools have been developed that use the assessor's own judgement to move beyond objective criteria of the creative product (Amabile, 1983; Brinkman, 1999). In addition, little research has been

carried out from the perspective of student teachers in identifying the characteristics of musically creative pupils. Kokotsaki and Newton (2015) pointed out that identification is difficult with a lack of expertise and knowledge of pupils' abilities, so university professors need to offer students a reasonable amount of experience while allowing them to reflect and give them opportunities to recognise musical creativity in practice. The perspective of future elementary education teachers is important for further development of comprehensive assessment tools for recognizing musically creative pupils in the classroom, and for reflecting teaching strategies in higher education settings. Nevertheless, teachers have an important role in recognizing and fostering creativity of children (Kaučič & Kozmus, 2022; Štemberger & Cencič, 2016).

In this paper, we focus on elementary education students who are preparing to enter daily teaching practice as part of their practical training at the university. Through a literature review, we have identified a wide range of characteristics of musically creative pupils while aiming to discover the structure set of musically creative pupils from the perspective of elementary education students, as certain characteristics may be expressed in different ways. In addition, the construction of criteria and one's own definitions of the characteristics of musically creative individuals are crucial along with the degree of students' experience of working with musically creative pupils and their identification.

2 Methodology and methods

Aims of the research

Considering the findings of the domain generality and specificity of musical creativity and its multiplicity, the focus of our research was on formulating the structure of the characteristics of musically creative pupils at Slovenian elementary schools from the perspective of elementary education students. The aim of our study was to examine the expression of a constructed set of characteristics of musically creative pupils at elementary school (aged 6–11 years) from the perspective of elementary education students and to examine the factor structure of the characteristics of musically creative pupils.

Based on the research objectives, we formulated the following research questions:

- *Research Question 1:* Are the characteristics of musically creative pupils (aged 6–11) observed by elementary education students during their practical training at elementary schools above averagely expressed compared with those of their peers?
- *Research Question 2:* What is the factor structure of the expressed characteristics of musically creative pupils (aged 6–11)?

Connected to the research questions, we formulated two hypotheses (H1 and H2):

- *H1:* The characteristics of musically creative pupils (aged 6–11) observed by elementary education students during their practical training at elementary schools are above averagely expressed compared with those of their peers.
- *H2:* The factor structure of the expressed characteristics of musically creative pupils (aged 6–11) is easily interpretable with comprehensive representation.

Sample

The non-randomised convenience sample consisted of 193 elementary education students at the Faculty of Education, University of Maribor (Slovenia), from the 2nd, 3rd, and 4th years of Bachelor studies and the 1st year of Master's studies. Students have different amounts of experience in music teaching, having been involved in different forms of practical pedagogical training during their studies, including observational, integrated, guided, and condensed practice (Rus, 2016). Second-year undergraduate students ($n = 39$; $f\% = 20.2\%$) have integrated practice on pre-arranged days every other week (7 days in total), third-year undergraduate students ($n = 49$; $f\% = 25.4\%$) have guided practice under the supervision of a music didactic at the faculty, during which they perform one lesson of music, fourth-year undergraduate students ($n = 45$; $f\% = 23.3\%$) have, in addition to the guided practice, condensed three-week practice in which they observe the work of a mentor teacher for at least three lessons and independently execute two lessons of music, and first-year graduate students ($n = 60$; $f\% = 31.1\%$) have condensed two-week practice in which they observe the work of a mentor teacher for one or two lessons and independently execute one or two lessons of music. In total, 95.3% ($n = 184$) of women and 4.7% ($n = 9$) of men participated in the study. As this is a predominantly female study programme, this gender ratio is to be expected. Due to the low number of male students, gender comparisons are not possible. It should also be borne in mind that the elementary education students were assessing the characteristics of musically creative pupils in comparison with their peers based on their memory of past experiences, as all the students had already completed their practical training in the current semester by the time of the data collection.

Materials

To conduct the exploratory factor analysis, a statistical method that identifies latent constructs or factors (Yong & Pearce, 2013), we designed an anonymous questionnaire with a Likert-type rating scale that includes a wide range of characteristics ($n = 27$) to provide a comprehensive representation of the characteristics of musically creative pupils (Table 1).

The specific terminology for the Slovenian domain dictates the use of certain terms in the rating scale:

- elementary musical abilities (rhythmic and melodic ear) and higher-order musical abilities (harmonic ear, analytical listening, and aesthetic performance and evaluation ability) (Sicherl Kafol, 2001) and
- singing, playing instruments, and movement-dance expression (Borota, 2013; Sicherl Kafol, 2001).

We also used a type of musical creativity in the Likert type scale – music improvisation – for which we listed rhythmic and melodic improvisation separately as the terms are often used in the literature (Chandler, 2018; Larsson & Georgii-Hemming, 2019). A 7-point Likert-type rating scale (1 – highly below average, 2 – moderately below average, 3 – slightly below average, 4 – average, 5 – slightly above average, 6 – moderately above average, and 7 – highly above average) was used to compare musically

creative pupils with their peers (Kovačič, 2016; Kovačič et al., 2015). We used a multi-level scale to allow for the sensitivity of the measurement instrument. The reliability of the measurement instrument was checked through an internal consistency analysis using Cronbach's coefficient (Cronbach, 1951), which was high ($\alpha = 0.933$) and indicated good reliability of the measurement instrument. The objectivity of the measurement was ensured by the same data collection procedure and conditions for all the participants.

Data collection and analysis

The data collection took place at the end of May and the beginning of June 2022 at the Faculty of Education, University of Maribor (Slovenia). For each of the characteristics of pupils whom they considered to be musically creative, students judged the extent to which it deviates from the norm.

The results were analysed using descriptive (frequencies, arithmetic mean, median, and standard deviation) and inferential statistics (exploratory factor analysis with the principal components method) with the IBM SPSS statistical software, version 27.0.

3 Results and discussion

Expression of the characteristics of musically creative pupils (aged 6–11)

Table 1 shows the expression of the individual characteristics of musically creative pupils perceived by elementary education students during their practical training at the Faculty of Education, University of Maribor.

For all 27 characteristics on the 7-point Likert-type rating scale, the mean value is greater than 4 ($M > 4$), ranging from a low of 4.08 (v26_need for higher incentives) to a high of 5.57 (v23_interest in music). The results show that all the characteristics included in the scale are descriptive of musically creative pupils, with values $M > 4$.

The seven highest scores above the 5.00 mark are (in descending order) v23_interest in music ($M = 5.57$; $Me = 6$; $SD = 1.12$), v22_motivation ($M = 5.35$; $Me = 5$; $SD = 1.09$), v16_curiosity ($M = 5.26$; $Me = 5$; $SD = 1.15$), v24_communicativeness ($M = 5.18$; $Me = 5$; $SD = 1.23$), v21_willingness to work ($M = 5.08$; $Me = 5$; $SD = 1.13$), v19_willingness to engage in collaborative learning ($M = 5.04$; $Me = 5$; $SD = 1.15$), v17_perseverance ($M = 5.04$; $Me = 5$; $SD = 1.22$), and v10_singing ($M = 5.04$; $Me = 5$; $SD = 1.27$).

There are thirteen characteristics in the interval 4.50 to 4.99, namely (in descending order) v12_movement–dance expression ($M = 4.97$; $Me = 5$; $SD = 1.22$), v3_musical memory ($M = 4.95$; $Me = 5$; $SD = 1.07$), v20_compliance with instructions ($M = 4.94$; $Me = 5$; $SD = 1.18$), v18_self-confidence ($M = 4.92$; $Me = 5$; $SD = 1.28$), v25_focus ($M = 4.80$; $Me = 5$; $SD = 1.29$), v4_adaptability/relevance of ideas ($M = 4.76$; $Me = 5$; $SD = 1.05$), v6_originality ($M = 4.67$; $Me = 5$; $SD = 1.18$), v11_playing instruments ($M = 4.67$; $Me = 5$; $SD = 1.36$), v13_musical achievements ($M = 4.63$; $Me = 4$; $SD = 1.35$), v15_progression rate ($M = 4.60$; $Me = 4$; $SD = 1.11$), v1_elementary musical abilities ($M = 4.60$;

Me = 4; SD = 1.09), v5_vast number of ideas/solutions (M = 4.56; Me = 4; SD = 1.21), and v7_rhythmic improvisation ability (M = 4.54; Me = 4; SD = 1.35).

Table 1

Assessments of the characteristics of musically creative pupils (aged 6–11) by elementary education students

<i>Variable</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>Me</i>	<i>SD</i>
v1_elementary musical abilities (rhythmic and melodic ear)	4.60	4	1.09
v2_higher-order musical abilities (harmonic ear, analytical listening, aesthetic performance, and evaluation ability)	4.10	4	1.18
v3_music memory	4.95	5	1.07
v4_adaptability/relevance of ideas (flexibility)	4.76	5	1.06
v5_vast number of ideas/solutions (fluency)	4.56	4	1.21
v6_originality	4.67	5	1.18
v7_rhythmic improvisation ability	4.54	4	1.35
v8_melodic improvisation ability	4.40	4	1.27
v9_experimentation	4.42	4	1.21
v10_singing	5.04	5	1.27
v11_playing instruments	4.67	5	1.36
v12_movement–dance expression	4.97	5	1.22
v13_musical achievements	4.63	4	1.35
v14_quantity of music theoretical knowledge	4.30	4	1.31
v15_progression rate	4.60	4	1.11
v16_curiosity	5.26	5	1.15
v17_perseverance	5.04	5	1.22
v18_self-confidence	4.92	5	1.28
v19_willingness to engage in collaborative learning	5.04	5	1.15
v20_compliance with instructions	4.94	5	1.18
v21_willingness to work	5.08	5	1.13
v22_motivation	5.35	5	1.09
v23_interest in music	5.57	6	1.12
v24_communicativeness	5.18	5	1.23
v25_focus	4.80	5	1.29
v26_need for higher incentives	4.08	4	1.33
v27_flow (special state of consciousness, emergence with the musical performance)	4.48	4	1.08

Note. N = 193.

In the interval from 4.08 to 4.49, there are six characteristics, namely (in descending order) v27_flow (M = 4.48; Me = 4; SD = 1.08), v9_experimentation (M = 4.42;

Me = 4; SD = 1.21), v8_melodic improvisation ability (M = 4.40; Me = 4; SD = 1.27), v14_quantity of music theoretical knowledge (M = 4.30; Me = 4; SD = 1.31), v2_higher-order musical abilities (M = 4.10; Me = 4; SD = 1.18), and v26_need for higher incentives (M = 4.08; Me = 4; SD = 1.33).

The lowest dispersion of scores is observed for characteristic v4_adaptability, relevance of ideas (SD = 1.06) and the highest for characteristic v11_playing instruments (SD = 1.36). A median of 6, indicating moderately above-average expression, is observed for one characteristic, a median of 5, indicating slightly above-average expression, is observed for fifteen characteristics, and a median of 4, indicating moderately above-average expression, is observed for 11 characteristics. The highest expressed characteristic is v23_interest in music, which is consistent with the finding that creative pupils are interested in their chosen field of activity (Clark, 1979; Hoseinfar et al., 2011).

The most strongly expressed characteristics of musically creative pupils have values $M > 5.00$. The findings of our study on the expressed characteristics of musically creative pupils have principled support in the literature concerning interest in the field (Clark, 1979; Hoseinfar et al., 2011), motivation to engage in creative activities (Abra, 1997), curiosity (Hoseinfar et al., 2011), communicativeness (Hoseinfar et al., 2011; Reid et al., 1959), willingness to work (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996), willingness to engage in collaborate learning with other pupils (Baloche, 1994; Burnard, 2013; Gruenhagen, 2017; Johnson & LaGasse, 2021; Wiggins & Espeland, 2012), perseverance (Kladder & Lee, 2019; Reid et al., 1959), and above-average singing expression, which indicates an appropriate level of developed musical abilities (Campbell, 1990; Gordon, 1989). We highlight that only one above-average characteristic comprising a value $M > 5$ relates to the musical domain – musical skills (v10_singing) – while the others intervene in sociality (v19_willingness to engage in collaborative learning and v24_communicativeness) and motivation (v22_motivation, v16_curiosity, v23_interest in music, v21_willingness to work, and v17_perseverance). This relates to the finding of some research that creativity is to a certain extent domain-general but that a set of domain-specific characteristics is also required for successful creative functioning in a specific area (Chen et al., 2020; Lothwesen, 2018).

Since all 27 characteristics are above averagely expressed compared with those of their peers ($M > 4.00$), Hypothesis 1, which states that *the characteristics of musically creative pupils (aged 6–11) observed by elementary education students during their practical training at elementary school are above averagely expressed compared with those of their peers*, is confirmed.

Factor structure of the characteristics of musically creative pupils

Based on the scale results, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted to determine the structure of musically creative pupils' characteristics. Bartlett's test of sphericity was appropriate (approx. chi-square = 3198.43; df = 351; $p = .00$), as was the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) test of sampling adequacy (Kaiser & Rice, 1974), which measures the homogeneity of the variables (KMO = 0.89). Both suggested that factor analysis was suitable.

As all the values of the communalities were above 0.5 and appropriate, factor analysis was performed on all 27 variables.

Table 2

Percentage of explained variance of factors

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	10.53	39.01	39.01	10.53	39.01	39.01	4.44	16.43	16.43
2	3.15	11.65	50.66	3.15	11.65	50.66	4.24	15.70	32.12
3	1.53	5.66	56.32	1.53	5.66	56.32	4.16	15.49	47.54
4	1.27	4.69	61.01	1.27	4.69	61.01	2.98	11.04	58.58
5	1.07	3.97	64.98	1.07	3.97	64.98	1.73	6.40	64.98
6	.93	3.43	68.41						
7	.85	3.15	71.56						
8	.77	2.87	74.43						

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed with the aim of reducing the dimensionality of the data (intercorrelated variables) while preserving as much of their overall variability as possible (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). The base set of variables was transformed into a new set of variables – principal components – that are independent of each other (Jolliffe, 2002). Following the Kaiser-Guttman rule, we retained five components that had an eigenvalue above 1 (Kaiser, 1991). They explain 64.98% of the variance in total. The first factor explains 16.43% of the variance, the second 15.70%, the third 15.42%, the fourth 11.04%, and the fifth 6.40% (Table 2).

Varimax rotation provided the best-defined factor structure. As shown in Table 3, some variables appeared in several components (cross-loadings). Thus, we assigned each variable to the component for which it has a larger value (Yong & Pearce, 2013). We cut off factor loadings below .32, as suggested by Yong and Pearce (2013).

The first component is *creativity*. It is the most highly loaded with the following variables: v5_vast number of ideas/solutions, v6_originality, v9_experimentation, v8_melodic improvisation ability, v27_flow, v4_adaptability, relevance of ideas, and v13_musical achievement. The characteristics are broadly consistent with conceptualisations of creativity (Guilford, 1956, 1959; Selby et al., 2005) and a term contextually related to creativity – flow (Biasutti, 2017; Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). Variable v13_musical achievement, which is present in this component, can be conceptualised as a creative product – part of Rhodes's (1961) definition of creativity. Surprisingly, we also encounter v8_melodic improvisation ability in the first component, which we would expect to find in the third component (musical ability and performance skills), which also includes v7_rhythmic improvisation ability.

Table 3*Factor weights after varimax rotation*

Variable	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
v5_vast number of ideas/solutions (fluency)	.75				
v6_originality	.73				
v9_experimentation	.71				
v8_melodic improvisation ability	.68		.49		
v27_flow (special state of consciousness, emergence with the musical performance)	.64		.34		
v4_adaptability, relevance of ideas (flexibility)	.55	.36			
v13_musical achievements	.51		.50	.34	
v21_willingness to work		.85			
v20_compliance with instructions		.85			
v24_communicativeness		.77			
v25_focus		.66	.36		
v22_motivation		.65		.33	
v19_willingness to engage in collaborative learning		.58		.42	
v23_interest in music		.56	.46		
v1_elementary musical skills (rhythmic and melodic ear)			.71		
v10_singing			.71	.41	
v3_music memory			.64		
v11_playing instruments	.37		.60		
v2_higher-order musical abilities (harmonic ear, analytical listening, aesthetic performance, and evaluation abilities)	.45		.59		
v7_rhythmic improvisation ability	.54		.58		
v16_curiosity				.77	
v17_perseverance		.32		.71	
v18_self-confidence				.62	
v12_movement–dance expression			.45	.50	-.35
v26_need for higher incentives					-.78
v14_quantity of music theoretical knowledge	.36				.58
v15_progression rate			.33	.39	.45

Notes: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation; Rotation converged in six iterations

The second component is *motivation*. It includes the following variables: v21_willingness to work, v20_compliance with instructions, v24_communicativeness, v25_focus, v22_motivation, v19_willingness to engage in collaborative learning, and v23_interest in music. This contextually rounded set of characteristics has support in the

literature, which has discussed willingness to work (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996), willingness to engage in collaborative learning (Baloche, 1994; Burnard, 2013; Gruenhagen, 2017; Johnson & LaGasse, 2021; Wiggins & Espeland, 2012; Young, 2003), following instructions (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996), focus (McMullen, 1976), and motivation (Abra, 1997). Communicativeness indicates a personality trait related to expressing one's needs and being outwardly oriented (Torrance, 1962), which is important in creative task performance. The same can be said for showing interest in music (Clark, 1979; Hoseifar et al., 2011). The concepts are linked to the concept of motivation, which guides the individual in the activity performance.

The third component is called *musical ability and performance skills*. It contains the following variables: v1_elementary musical abilities, v10_singing, v3_musical memory, v11_playing instruments, v2_higher-order musical abilities, and v7_rhythmic improvisation ability. The content of the component covers the broader area of musical ability and is in line with the literature in that musical ability is a predictor or basis for building musical creativity (Campbell, 1990; Gordon, 1989). The literature has also stated that a good musical memory is a common point of musically creative individuals (de Dreu et al., 2012; Oikkonen et al., 2016). Musical ability is enacted through singing and playing instruments. Variable v7_rhythmic improvisation ability can also be traced in the component, which is strikingly distinct from the presence of the variable v8_melodic improvisation ability in the first component (creativity).

The fourth component is called *impetus*. It is most strongly loaded with the following variables: v16_curiosity, v17_perseverance, v18_self-confidence, and v12_movement–dance expression. The concepts can be characterised as personality traits that show an inner drive for creative action – this is manifested in the individual's curiosity, perseverance, and self-confidence. Unlike motivation, which is defined as willingness to act, impetus is a stimulating factor, something that sets things in motion. Surprisingly, the v12_movement–dance expression characteristic is also present in the component, but, in its hidden essence as a strong action expression, it can be linked to other characteristics within the component.

The fifth component is called *agency*. It includes the following variables: v26_the need for higher incentives, v14_quantity of music theoretical knowledge, and v15_progression rate. The component is saturated with the fewest variables, but we see them as a means of self-management of individual performance. The fact that v26_the need for higher incentives is marked with a negative prefix (Table 3) means that it is negatively correlated with the domain – genuinely it is a need for lower incentives with linkage to the individual's autonomy in activity performance, which is also manifested in the form of a sufficient amount of music theoretical knowledge and rapid progress.

Of the five components generated in our study, three are related to the findings of Amabile (1983), who listed a triad of creative performance components:

- domain-relevant skills, referring to domain-specific knowledge and skills (in our study: music ability and performance skills),
- creativity-relevant skills, referring to the appropriate cognitive style and way of working (in our study: creativity), and
- task motivation, which refers to intrinsic motivation and attitude towards the domain (in our study: motivation).

The remaining two components (impetus and agency) additionally and meaningfully build the characteristics structure of creative pupils as they move beyond creative characteristics and characteristics related to motivation. Musically creative pupils, while possessing an appropriate level of musical ability and performance skills, creative characteristics, and motivation, express an impulsive drive for creative action, which is to some extent autonomous.

The factor structure, which consists of five components (creativity, motivation, musical ability and performance skills, impetus, and agency), is substantively meaningful, and we can therefore confirm Hypothesis 2, which states that *the factor structure of the expressed characteristics of musically creative pupils (aged 6–11) is easily interpretable with comprehensive representation*.

4 Conclusions

The research shows that some *personality characteristics* (curiosity, perseverance, self-confidence, willingness to engage in collaborative learning, compliance with instructions, willingness to work, motivation, interest in music, communicativeness, and need for lower incentives), *creative cognitive characteristics* (vast number of ideas/solutions, originality, adaptability/relevance of ideas, focus, quantity of music theoretical knowledge, and progression rate), characteristics related to *musical ability and performance skills* (rhythmic improvisation ability, melodic improvisation ability, singing, playing instruments, and movement–dance expression), and characteristics related to *the creative process or product* (experimentation, musical achievements, and flow) were expressed above averagely in musically creative pupils compared with their peers. This contributes to the argument about the relevance of the set of characteristics studied to provide a comprehensible and multifaceted structure of musically creative pupils. A broad set of characteristics allows the teacher to follow the pupils more sensitively and accurately through the educational process and to find the pupils' strengths. We can highlight the areas of characteristics that are most strongly expressed – slightly to moderately above average ($M > 5$) in relation to the mean value: musical skills (singing), sociality (willingness to engage in cooperative learning and communicativeness), and motivation (motivation, curiosity, interest in music, willingness to work, and perseverance). Our results support the research findings on domain generality or specificity as the characteristics cut across both the musical domain and the domain of the general characteristics of creative individuals (Chen et al., 2020; Lothwesen, 2018).

The exploratory factor analysis highlighted five components of musically creative pupils' characteristics, namely *creativity, motivation, musical ability and performance skills, impetus, and agency*. The structure represents the characteristics of musically creative pupils, which, in addition to the domains of general creativity and musical ability and performance skills, are manifested in the domains of individuals' motivation, impetus, and autonomy. Through focused work, teachers can encourage the development of the weak areas of (musically creative) pupils and contribute to the fulfilment of their potential.

The research provided insights into the characteristics of musically creative pupils at the elementary level of Slovenian elementary schools through the eyes of elementary education students. This could enable teachers as well as student teachers to identify musically creative pupils accurately and comprehensively, and to support their strong sides and develop their weak sides. Further research may also concern the assessment of the characteristics of musically creative pupils from the perspective of elementary education students from other Slovenian universities with the possibility of undertaking international comparisons of musically creative pupils from similar educational and cultural backgrounds.

Extending our views a little further, the results of our research underline the complexity of musically creative pupils, which encompasses various areas such as creativity, motivation, musical ability and willingness to perform, as well as inner drive and autonomy. This complements the study by Drovenik Adamec and Kovačič (2022), which emphasises the interconnectedness of these characteristics in relation to musical creativity. Furthermore, understanding musical talent requires a delicate balance between natural predispositions and environmental support, reflecting the findings of Drovenik Adamec et al. (2020) on the combination of innate abilities reinforced by practise and a supportive environment. An important finding is the need to recognise and nurture the talents and creativity of musically gifted pupils. This is in line with the observations of Jukić and Škojo (2019), who point to the challenges facing future educators, particularly in terms of identifying and nurturing musically talented pupils. Matrić and Duh (2019) also emphasised the stereotypes associated with these pupils, pointing out that a broader perspective is needed to fully understand the diverse expressions of musical creativity. The Montessori approach to music education mentioned by Mavrič (2019) represents a way of viewing music as a language of expression. This view reinforces the idea that music is an innate experience and confirms the characteristics we have found in musically creative pupils, such as musical development based on sensory experiences. Attitudes towards gifted pupils and their education were also highlighted by Loboda et al. (2020). Their findings mirror our findings and highlight the overarching support for special programmes, albeit with criticism of the processes of identification and training. Furthermore, Zadnik's (2021) research illustrated the motivational power of the arts, emphasising the importance of intertwining motivation – a key characteristic of musically creative pupils – with the educational process. In addition, the studies by Javornik Krečič and Ivanuš Grmek (2021) and Mithans et al. (2022) emphasise the role of educators and their willingness to recognise and nurture talent in the classroom. Furthermore, the intertwining of music and arts education, especially in today's digital age, as Kopačin and Birsa (2022) emphasise, suggests that the use of technology offers opportunities that have yet to be fully explored in education. To summarise, the central theme that permeates all these research findings is the crucial role of educators in recognising, supporting and nurturing musically gifted and talented pupils and their creativity. There is an urgent need for improved training programmes for educators to better meet the specific needs of these pupils. In addition, the essential role of family, motivation and the wider arts environment in the educational journey emphasises the multifaceted nature of musical creativity.

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Glasbeno ustvarjalni učenci (6–11 let): vidik študentov razrednega pouka

Ustvarjalnost kot ena izmed ključnih veščin 21. stoletja (Yoo in Kang, 2021) nosi pomembno vlogo v kompleksnem svetu in ostaja eno izmed redkih sredstev za polno soočenje z negotovostjo prihodnosti (Pecheanu in Tudorie, 2014). Različni teoretični okvirji in diskurzi ne ponujajo enotne definicije ustvarjalnosti, vendar jih na podlagi psihologije povezuje dva elementa: izvirnost in uporabnost (Mumford, 2003; Runco in Jaeger, 2012; Sternberg in Lubart, 1999). Pri tem je kompleksno vprašanje, ki se postavlja, ali je ustvarjalnost področno splošna ali področno specifična. Nekatere raziskave nakazujejo, da so za razvoj specifičnih talentov v ustvarjalnem delovanju potrebne nekatere splošne značilnosti posameznikov (Feist, 2004; Lubart in Guignard, 2004). To pomeni, da so ustvarjalni posamezniki lahko ustvarjalni na raznovrstnih področjih in ne nujno na enem samem. Vendar pa ustvarjalnost lahko postane področno specifična, ko posamezniki pridobijo ekspertizo na svojem področju (Qian idr., 2019). Glasbeno področje vključuje različne aktivnosti, ki zahtevajo različne veščine (Lothwesen, 2018).

Ko govorimo o značilnostih glasbeno ustvarjalnih posameznikov, tako v nekaterih vidikih opisujemo splošne značilnosti ustvarjalnih ljudi, hkrati pa naletimo na nekatere specifične veščine, spretnosti in sposobnosti, ki se pogosteje pojavljajo le na glasbenem področju. Nekateri avtorji se strinjajo, da se v značilnostih ustvarjalnih posameznikov skrivajo nasprotja (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; McMullen, 1976; Selby idr., 2005). Ustvarjalni posamezniki so tako lahko sproščeni in pozorni, samozavestni in skromni ter zamaknjeni in sposobni visoke koncentracije (McMullen, 1976). Ob tem je potrebno poudariti, da ni osebe, ki bi posedovala vse značilnosti, ki jih lahko zasledimo v literaturi, hkrati pa ni nujno, da oseba poseduje določene značilnosti ves čas svojega ustvarjalnega delovanja (Selby idr., 2005). Kot pomembne značilnosti ustvarjalnih posameznikov se izpostavljajo tudi motivacija (Abra, 1997), kognitivni stil (Hargreaves in Lamont, 2017), zanos (Biasutti, 2017; Csikszentmihalyi, 2014) in dober semantični in epizodični spomin (Fink idr., 2015; Madore idr., 2015).

Čeprav je dejanje ustvarjalnosti vsaj z vidika pojavitve ideje povsem individualistično (Glăveanu, 2013), ga zaokrožujejo socialno okolje in vsakdanje interakcije v socialnem kontekstu (Glăveanu, 2013; Hennessey in Amabile, 2010; Nakamura in Csikszentmihalyi, 2001; Schiavio in Benedek, 2020). Ustvarjalni izraz se manifestira v psihološko varnem in svobodnem okolju, ki posamezniku omogoči popolno absorpcijo v ustvarjalni proces (Rogers, 1954). V tem pogledu imata učilnica (Kladder in Lee, 2019) in vzgojitelj/učitelj (Peňalba idr., 2021) pomembno vlogo pri spodbujanju ustvarjalnega procesa. Raziskave prav tako kažejo, da sodelovalno naravnane glasbene dejavnosti spodbujajo razvoj ustvarjalnosti (Baloche, 1994; Burnard, 2013; Gruenhagen, 2017; Johnson in LaGasse, 2021; Wiggins in Espeland, 2012).

Glasbene sposobnosti so po mnenju Gordona (1989) pomemben faktor pri določanju obsega posameznikove glasbene ustvarjalnosti, ki vključuje ustrezno kakovostno in obširno zgodnje glasbeno okolje. Oikkonen idr. (2016) in Zhou (2018) izpostavljajo, da se vsi rodimo s potencialom glasbene ustvarjalnosti, v določeni meri tudi podedovane, njegova

realizacija in razvoj pa sta odvisna od mnogih dejavnikov (Sternberg, 2000; Tafuri, 2006; Treffinger idr., 2002). Spodbuja ga lahko trening implicitne narave (npr. ustvarjalno izražanje preko likovne umetnosti) ali eksplicitne narave (npr. vaje za izboljšanje pozornosti in delovnega spomina) (Zhou, 2018). Nekateri avtorji poudarjajo, da učenci producirajo ustvarjalnejšo in izvirnejšo glasbo, ko se počutijo, da so samozavestni glede lastnih glasbenih sposobnosti (Coulson in Burke, 2013; Mawang idr., 2019).

Glasbena ustvarjalnost v šolskem okolju je dobro poznano področje raziskovanja, vendar s poudarkom na ocenjevanju ustvarjenih izdelkov (Webster, 1994). Poleg tega je bilo opravljenih le malo raziskav z vidika bodočih učiteljev pri prepoznavanju značilnosti glasbeno ustvarjalnih učencev. Kokotsaki in Newton (2015) sta poudarila, da je tovrstna identifikacija lahko težavna ob pomanjkanju strokovnega znanja in poznavanja zmožnosti učencev, zato morajo univerzitetni profesorji študentom ponuditi primerno količino izkušenj, hkrati pa jim omogočiti refleksijo in jim dati priložnosti za prepoznavanje glasbene ustvarjalnosti v praksi.

Ob pregledu literature smo ugotovili, da obstaja malo raziskav, ki bi zajemale perspektivo študentov oz. bodočih učiteljev pri prepoznavanju značilnosti glasbeno ustvarjalnih učencev v razredu. Njihov vidik je pomemben, saj nam daje uvid v njihovo dožemanje ustvarjalnosti in ustvarjalnega posameznika ter nudi priložnosti za refleksijo pedagoške prakse na univerzah.

Na podlagi razumevanja področne splošnosti in specifičnosti glasbene ustvarjalnosti ter raznovrstnih značilnosti glasbeno ustvarjalnih posameznikov je bil cilj naše študije:

- proučiti izraženost oblikovanega nabora značilnosti glasbeno ustvarjalnih učencev pri pouku glasbene umetnosti na razredni stopnji osnovne šole (starih 6–11 let) z vidika študentov razrednega pouka in
- proučiti faktorsko strukturo značilnosti glasbeno ustvarjalnih učencev.

Uporabili smo kvantitativni raziskovalni pristop z neeksperimentalno metodo raziskovanja, pri čemer je bila uporabljena 7-stopenjska ocenjevalna lestvica Likertovega tipa. Vprašalnik vključuje širok nabor značilnosti ($n = 27$) in z njim lahko celostno predstavimo značilnosti glasbeno ustvarjalnih učencev. Študenti so pri vsaki izmed značilnosti presodili, v kolikšni meri odstopa pri učencih, za katere menijo, da so glasbeno ustvarjalni. Cronbachov koeficient α znaša 0,933 in kaže na dobro zanesljivost merjenja. Objektivnost merjenja smo zagotovili z enakim postopkom in pogoji anketiranja za vse udeležence. V anketiranju je sodelovalo 193 študentov razrednega pouka Pedagoške fakultete Univerze v Mariboru z različnim obsegom izkušenj poučevanja predmeta glasbene umetnosti glede na letnik študija. Študenti so bili tekom študija vključeni v različne oblike praktičnega pedagoškega usposabljanja, ki vključuje opazovanje pouka glasbene umetnosti v obliki hospitacij in samostojno izvedbo učnih ur. Zbiranje podatkov je potekalo konec maja in v začetku junija 2022 na Pedagoški fakulteti Univerze v Mariboru. Rezultati so bili analizirani z deskriptivno in inferenčno statistiko (eksploratorna faktorska analiza z metodo glavnih komponent).

Rezultati so pokazali, da vse variable ($n = 27$) zaradi nadpovprečne izraženosti ($M > 4.00$) ustrezno opisujejo glasbeno ustvarjalne učence. Značilnosti, ki so najbolj nadpovprečno izražene ($M > 5.00$), v največji meri označujejo glasbeno ustvarjalne učence in se nanašajo na glasbeno izvajalsko področje, socialne značilnosti, motivacijske osebnostne značilnosti in delovne veščine. Le ena nadpovprečna značilnost z vrednostjo $M > 5$

se nanaša na glasbeno področje, medtem ko druge posegajo na socialno področje in področje motivacije. Rezultati so skladni z izsledki nekaterih raziskav, da je ustvarjalnost v določeni meri področno splošna, vendar je za uspešno ustvarjalno delovanje potreben tudi nabor področno specifičnih značilnosti (Chen idr., 2020; Lothwesen, 2018).

Na podlagi rezultatov ocenjevalne lestvice, ki so jo izpolnili študenti, je bila izvedena eksploratorna faktorska analiza, s katero smo želeli ugotoviti strukturo značilnosti glasbeno ustvarjalnih učencev. Eksploratorna faktorska analiza z metodo glavnih komponent in varimax rotacijo je ponudila pet komponent, ki izražajo strukturo značilnosti glasbeno ustvarjalnih učencev: ustvarjalnost, motivacija, glasbene sposobnosti in izvajalske veščine, zagon in avtonomnost.

Prva komponenta je ustvarjalnost. Značilnosti so v veliki meri skladne s konceptualizacijo ustvarjalnosti (Guilford, 1956, 1959; Selby idr., 2005) in izrazom, ki je kontekstualno povezan z ustvarjalnostjo, tj. zanosom (Biasutti, 2017; Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). Druga komponenta je motivacija. Ta kontekstualno zaokrožen nabor značilnosti ima podporo v literaturi, ki obravnava pripravljenost za delo (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996), pripravljenost za sodelovanje pri učenju (Baloche, 1994; Burnard, 2013; Gruenhagen, 2017; Johnson in LaGasse, 2021; Wiggins in Espeland, 2012; Young, 2003), sledenje navodilom (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996), osredotočenost (McMullen, 1976) in motivacijo (Abra, 1997). Tretjo komponento smo poimenovali glasbene sposobnosti in izvajalske veščine. Vsebina komponente zajema širše področje glasbenih sposobnosti in je v skladu z literaturo, saj je glasbena sposobnost lahko napovednik ali podlaga za razvoj glasbene ustvarjalnosti (Campbell, 1990; Gordon, 1989). Četrta komponenta se imenuje zagon. Te koncepte lahko opišemo kot osebne lastnosti, ki kažejo notranji zagon za ustvarjalno delovanje – ta se kaže v posameznikovi radovednosti, vztrajnosti in samozavesti. Peta komponenta je avtonomnost. Komponenta je nasičena z najmanjšim številom spremenljivk, vendar jih vidimo kot sredstvo za samoupravljanje posameznikove uspešnosti. Komponente ustrezno in celostno predstavljajo strukturo značilnosti glasbeno ustvarjalnih učencev. Izmed petih komponent se tri povezujejo z ugotovitvami Amabile (1983), ki našteva trojstvo komponent ustvarjalne izvedbe, nanašajoč se na področno specifično znanje in veščine, ustvarjalne veščine in motivacijo ter odnos do področja. Preostali dve komponenti smiselno izgrajujeta značilnosti ustvarjalnega učenca, ki izraža tudi impulzivni zagon za ustvarjalno delovanje, ki je v določeni meri avtonomno. Glasbeno ustvarjalni učenci, ki imajo ustrezno raven glasbenih sposobnosti in spretnosti, ustvarjalnih značilnosti in motivacije, torej izražajo impulzivno željo po avtonomnem ustvarjalnem delovanju. Z usmerjenim delom lahko učitelj spodbuja razvoj šibkih področij glasbeno ustvarjalnih učencev in prispeva k holistični izpolnitvi njihovega potenciala.

Implikacije raziskave kažejo možnosti uporabe pri prepoznavanju glasbeno ustvarjalnih učencev in spodbujanju njihovega potenciala v izobraževalnem okolju. Nadaljnje raziskave lahko zadevajo natančnejšo izgradnjo ocenjevalnega pripomočka za prepoznavanje in spremljanje glasbeno ustvarjalnih učencev, hkrati pa so možne tudi medfakultetne in mednarodne primerjave glasbeno ustvarjalnih učencev podobnih izobraževalnih in kulturnih okolij.

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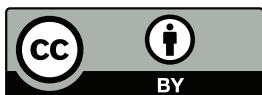
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Preizkusi znanja in nacionalna preverjanja znanja iz slovenščine

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KLJUČNE BESEDE: bralna pismenost, preizkusi znanja za ocenjevanje znanja, nacionalna preverjanja znanja, zvrst in kognitivna raven nalog, šestošolci

POVZETEK – Branje je pogoj za doseganje različnih ravni bralne pismenosti. Razvoj branja zajema stopnjo učenja branja in stopnjo učenja s pomočjo branja. Prehajanje iz ene stopnje na drugo pri povprečnem posamezniku nastopi v drugem triletju osnovne šole. To prehajanje in raven bralne pismenosti učencev preverjajo učitelji s preizkusi znanja pri slovenščini, na ravni države pa preverjanje poteka z nacionalnimi preverjanji znanja iz slovenščine. Ker šestošolci pri nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja v povprečju dosežejo le okoli 50% možnih točk, se postavlja vprašanje, koliko so naloge preizkusov znanja iz slovenščine podobne nalogam nacionalnih preverjanj znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu in kakšne so z vidika razvijanja bralne pismenosti učencev povezave med določeno zvrstjo nalog in njihovo kognitivno ravno. Raziskava je pokazala, da je bilo v preizkusih znanja in nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja največ nalog na ravni razumevanja in nalog s področja jezika, najmanj pa nalog odprtega tipa. Pri ugotavljanju povezav med zvrstjo nalog in njihovo kognitivno ravno smo ugotovili, da so bile naloge najvišje kognitivne ravni, to so naloge, ki spodbujajo razvoj bralne pismenosti, večinoma odprtega tipa in so zahtevale branje besedila.

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KEYWORDS: reading literacy, assessment papers, national assessment papers, type and cognitive level of tasks, sixth graders

ABSTRACT – Reading is a condition for achieving various levels of reading literacy. The development of reading involves the learning to read stage and the learning through reading stage. The transition from one stage to the next in the average individual occurs in the second cycle of elementary school. This passage and the level of pupils' reading literacy are checked by teachers using assessment papers and national assessment papers in Slovenian. Because sixth graders achieve on average only around 50% of the total points in national assessment papers, the questions that arise are how similar the tasks of assessment papers in grade 6 are to those of national assessment papers, and what the connections are between the type and the cognitive level of tasks in terms of developing pupils' reading literacy. This research found that in both the assessment papers and the national assessment papers, the majority of tasks were at the level of comprehension and language-related tasks, and the fewest were open type tasks. In identifying the connections between the types of tasks and cognitive levels, we found that tasks of the highest cognitive level were mostly open type and required reading of the text.

1 Uvod

Za uspešno delovanje posameznikov v družbi, procesu izobraževanja, na delovnem mestu ter v življenju nasploh je bistvenega pomena dobro razvita bralna pismenost. Ta je po opredelitvi PISE pojmovana kot "razumevanje, uporaba, razmišljanje o napisanem besedilu ter zavzetost ob branju tega, kar bralcu omogoča doseganje postavljenih ciljev, razvijanje lastnega znanja in potencialov ter sodelovanje v družbi" (Pedagoški inštitut, 2016, str. 59).

Lahko se torej trdi, da višja kot je raven bralne pismenosti posameznika, bolj uspešen je ta v svojem vsakodnevnem življenju. Pogoj za doseganje bralne pismenosti je branje, ki je “veščina in potreba, ki se razvija vse življenjsko obdobje” (Repinc in Stričević, 2013, str. 45). Branje vključuje številne komponente, med katerimi sta dve še posebno izpostavljeni. Prva govori o procesu branja, kamor sodita proces dekodiranja in proces razumevanja prebranega, druga pa o fazah v bralnem razvoju, kjer sta izpostavljeni faza učenja branja in faza učenja s pomočjo branja (Pečjak, 1995).

Prehod iz stopnje učenja branja na stopnjo učenja s pomočjo branja, ki stremi k dobro razviti sposobnosti razumevanja prebranega, ki je “v procesu izobraževanja zelo pomembna, saj se večina informacij prenaša s pomočjo pisnega gradiva (tiskanega v knjigah ali v elektronski/računalniški obliki)” (Pečjak in Pirc, 2010, str. 51), pri povprečnem posamezniku nastopi v starosti med 9. in 14. letom (Chall, 1996). Ta prehod, pri katerem imajo pomembno vlogo učitelji, ki “naj bi učencem pomagali razviti recepcijske metakognitivne veščine, saj je metakognitivno razmišljanje nujno potrebno za učinkovito učenje in bralno razumevanje” (Kordigel Aberšek in Kerndl, 2013, str. 97), zajema obdobje šolanja posameznika v drugem triletju osnovne šole in se pri pouku še posebno spodbuja pri urah slovenščine.

Preverjanje in ocenjevanje znanja iz slovenščine v drugem triletju

Po Učnem načrtu (2018) je v drugem triletju pouku slovenščine v vsakem razredu namenjenih 175 ur, skupaj 525 ur. V sklopu teh ur učenci pridobivajo znanja in spretnosti na področju jezika in na področju književnosti. Na področju jezika učenci oblikujejo in razvijajo zavest o jeziku, narodu in državi, razvijajo zmožnosti pogovarjanja, dopisovanja, tvorjenja enogovornih neumetnostnih besedil in kritičnega sprejemanja teh besedil, razvijajo tudi zmožnosti selektivnega branja, izpolnjevanja obrazcev in metajezikovno zmožnost, za izboljšanje sporazumevalne zmožnosti pa razvijajo jezikovne in slogovne zmožnosti ter zmožnosti nebesednega sporazumevanja. Na področju književnosti učenci razvijajo recepcijske zmožnosti z branjem, poslušanjem, gledanjem uprizoritev umetnostnih besedil in govorjenjem ter pisanjem o njih, poleg tega pa recepcijske zmožnosti razvijajo tudi s tvorjenjem in poustvarjanjem ob umetnostnih besedilih (pisanje, interpretativno branje, govorjenje).

Doseganje ciljev učnega načrta, prehod učencev iz stopnje učenja branja na stopnjo učenja s pomočjo branja ter raven bralne pismenosti učencev pri pouku slovenščine preverjajo in ocenjujejo učitelji, ki znanje učencev razporejajo glede na taksonomijo spoznavnih procesov. Bloomova taksonomija razlikuje naslednje spoznavne procese oziroma kognitivne ravni: znanje, razumevanje, uporaba, analiza ali sinteza, vrednotenje, ustvarjanje. Znanje oziroma poznavanje se kaže kot zapomnitev, prepoznavna ali priključna dejstva, podatkov oziroma informacij, pravil in postopkov (Anderson idr., 2016). Pri razumevanju je bistvenega pomena dojetje smisla, ki se na podlagi lastnih miselnih procesov kaže kot povzemanje bistva sporočil s svojimi besedami (prav tam). Uporaba pomeni poznavanje in razumevanje idej, teorij, pravil, postopkov, s katerimi razlagamo nove problemske situacije (prav tam). Analiza je razstavljanje sporočila na njegove sestavne elemente ali dele, in sicer tako, da so jasni odnosi med njimi in njihova organiziranost, medtem ko sinteza pomeni povezovanje posameznih delov v celoto (prav tam).

Evalvacija združuje vse prejšnje ravni in jih presega s tem, da se povezuje z nekognitivnimi kategorijami, ustvarjanje pa predstavlja najvišjo kognitivno raven (prav tam).

Pri preverjanju in ocenjevanju znanja s pisnimi preizkusi je glede na omenjeno pomembno, da učitelji izhajajo iz učnih ciljev in standardov znanj, opredeljenih v učnem načrtu, da glede na taksonomijo spoznavnih procesov usmerjajo pozornost na različne kognitivne ravni in da v pisne preizkuse vključujejo raznovrstne naloge. Te se med seboj razlikujejo glede na tip in po tem, ali uvodoma vsebujejo besedilo ali druge prikaze (npr. grafe, tabele, slike) ali ne.

Z nalogami zaprtega oziroma objektivnega tipa se večinoma preverja učenčevo poznavanje podatkov, dejstev in osnovno razumevanje pojmov (Marentič Požarnik, 2000). Med naloge tega tipa uvrščamo naloge izbirnega in alternativnega tipa, naloge razvrščanja ali urejanja, naloge povezovanja, podčrtovanja in naloge dopolnjevanja in kratkih odgovorov (prav tam).

Pri nalogah polodprtega oziroma delno objektivnega tipa učenec v stavku ali besedni zvezi zapiše kratek odgovor, definicijo oziroma pretvorbo ali pa odgovori slikovno, to je npr. v obliki grafa ali miselnega vzorca (Starc, 2001).

Naloge odprtega oziroma subjektivnega tipa, ki se med seboj razlikujejo po obsegu oziroma dolžini odgovora, ta je lahko dolg od nekaj stavkov do nekaj strani, se po navadi uporabljajo za preverjanje višjih kognitivnih ravni: analize, sinteze in vrednotenja (Marentič Požarnik in Peklaj, 2002).

Naloge z uvodno informacijo, kot je besedilo ali kateri drugi prikaz vsebine, vsebujejo vprašanja, ki so po navadi od začetka zelo konkretna in se eksplicitno nanašajo na uvodno informacijo, kasnejša vprašanja pa so vedno bolj indirektna in zahtevajo uporabo višjih miselnih procesov (Žagar, 2009).

Čeprav Baker in Wigfield (1999) poudarjata, da k razvoju bralne pismenosti učencev pripomorejo predvsem raznovrstne in dovolj zahtevne naloge, saj so učencem večji izziv, pa podatki iz raziskave PIRLS 2006 (Mullis idr., 2007) kažejo, da je pri poučevanju najpogosteje uporabljena strategija povzemanja in izbiranja najpomembnejših informacij v besedilu. Ta strategija učencem ne predstavlja večjega izziva, saj od njih ne zahteva uporabe višjih miselnih procesov, ki sicer vodijo k razvoju tako bralne pismenosti učencev na splošno kot tudi višjih ravni (Petek, 2014; Saksida, 2014; Sanacore, 2002).

Nacionalno preverjanje znanja iz slovenščine ob zaključku drugega triletja

Ob zaključku drugega triletja se v 6. razredu z nacionalnim preverjanjem znanja, ki ga izvaja Državni izpitni center, poleg matematike in prvega tujega jezika preverjajo standardi znanja učencev iz slovenščine ali italijanščine oziroma madžarščine na narodno mešanih območjih (Zakon o osnovni šoli, 2016).

Po podatkih Državnega izpitnega centra (b. d.) nacionalno preverjanje znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu vsako leto vsebuje do 35 nalog, ki so objektivnega tipa ali pa zahtevajo vodeno tvorjenje krajših besedil. Med vsemi nalogami je približno 60 % nalog namenjenih preverjanju znanja učencev s področja jezika in 40 % preverjanju znanja s področja književnosti (prav tam). Učenci na področju jezika preberejo eno daljše ali več krajših neumetnostnih besedil, na področju književnosti pa eno daljše ali

več krajših umetnostnih besedil (prav tam). Naloge, ki jih na podlagi prebranega učenci rešujejo na obeh področjih, preverjajo doseganje ciljev in standardov znanja iz učnega načrta (prav tam).

Posredni cilji nacionalnega preverjanja znanja iz slovenščine kot tudi iz drugih predmetov so razvijanje sposobnosti učencev za kritično presojo lastnih dosežkov, zagotavljanje enakih izobraževalnih možnosti in bolj enotnih kriterijev učiteljevega ocenjevanja, pomoč pri evalvaciji učnih načrtov in dolgoročni vpliv na boljšo kakovost znanja (Državni izpitni center, 2022). Tudi “ko gre za učinkovitost učitelja, se ta lastnost pogosto meri z dosežkom učencev na standardiziranih testih” (Jukić Matić idr., 2020, str. 32), zato je pomembno, da se dosežki nacionalnega preverjanja znanja uporabljajo kot informacija učiteljem in šolam o njihovem delu, saj zagotavljajo povratne informacije o tem, kako deluje vzgojno-izobraževalni sistem, katerega funkcija je zagotavljanje kakovostnega poučevanja, učenja in znanja naših mladih generacij (Državni izpitni center, 2022), kar bi Sloveniji omogočalo primerljivost z drugimi državami v mednarodnem prostoru.

Zaradi vsega omenjenega in dejstva, da je za pridobivanje in izkazovanje znanja na vseh področjih bistvenega pomena branje, ki se v sredstvo za učenje pri učencih oblikuje v drugem triletju osnovne šole, je pomembno spoznanje, da so učenci ob zaključku drugega triletja, torej v 6. razredu, v šolskem letu 2021/2022 pri nacionalnem preverjanju znanja iz slovenščine v povprečju dosegli zgolj 45,5% vseh možnih točk (Državni izpitni center, 2022a), v šolskem letu 2022/2023 pa 50,5% (Državni izpitni center, 2023).

2 Raziskovalni problem

Šestošolci pri nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja iz slovenščine v povprečju dosežejo zgolj okoli 50% vseh možnih točk. Prav tako se je z raziskavo PIRLS 2021 zaznal upad povprečnega bralnega dosežka pri četrtošolcih (Klemenčič in Mirazchijski, 2023), z raziskavo PISA 2022 pa upad povprečnega bralnega dosežka pri učencih, starih 15 let (Pedagoški inštitut, 2023). Omenjeni bralni dosežki učencev so v nasprotju z navedbo, zapisano v Beli knjigi o vzgoji in izobraževanju v Republiki Sloveniji 2011 (Krek in Metljak, 2011), ki pravi, da je treba stremeti k cilju, da bodo učenci pri temeljnih predmetih, kot sta matematika in naravoslovje, ter bralni pismenosti s svojimi dosežki v zgornji tretjini razvitih držav. Ker se bralna pismenost učencev razvija z branjem raznovrstnih besedil in nalogami, povezanimi z njimi (Anvedsen, 2012; Stevens idr., 2015), je pomembno, da “med poukom poglobljamo spoznanja o prebranem, intenzivno delamo na odprtih vprašanjih in zahtevnejših nalogah” (Žbogar, 2021, str. 76). Omenjeno poudarja Saksida (2016), ki meni, da k razvoju bralne pismenosti učencev poleg učiteljevega bralnega zgleada, njegovih visoko postavljenih ciljev poučevanja in visokih pričakovanj do učencev prispevajo tudi dovolj zahtevne naloge. Zaradi vsega omenjenega se postavlja vprašanje, kakšne naloge pripravljajo učitelji slovenščine v preizkusih znanja za ocenjevanje znanja, da učenci pri nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja v povprečju dosežejo le približno polovico možnih točk, pri mednarodnih raziskavah pa bralni dosežki učencev upadajo. Cilja raziskave sta zato bila, da glede na kognitivne

ravni in zvrsti nalog ugotovimo podobnosti in razlike med nalogami preizkusov znanja in nacionalnih preverjanj znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu in da ugotovimo, kakšne so z vidika razvijanja bralne pismenosti učencev v preizkusih znanja za ocenjevanje znanja in nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu povezave med različnimi zvrstmi in kognitivnimi ravnmi nalog.

3 Raziskovalna vprašanja

- Katere so glede na kognitivne ravni nalog podobnosti in razlike med nalogami preizkusov znanja za ocenjevanje znanja in nalogami nacionalnih preverjanj znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu osnovne šole?
- Katere so glede na zvrsti nalog podobnosti in razlike med nalogami preizkusov znanja za ocenjevanje znanja in nalogami nacionalnih preverjanj znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu osnovne šole?
- Kakšne so z vidika razvijanja bralne pismenosti učencev povezave med določeno zvrstjo nalog in kognitivno ravno teh nalog v preizkusih znanja za ocenjevanje znanja in v nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu osnovne šole?

4 Raziskovalna metoda

Uporabljeni sta bili deskriptivna in kavzalna neeksperimentalna metoda. Raziskava je bila empirična in kvantitativna.

Vzorec

V raziskavo smo vključili 6 nacionalnih preverjanj znanja iz slovenščine za 6. razred in 19 preizkusov znanja, ki so jih za ocenjevanje znanja šestošolcev pripravili učitelji slovenščine osmih osnovnih šol.

Postopki zbiranja in obdelave podatkov

Nacionalna preverjanja znanja iz slovenščine za 6. razred smo pridobili na spletni strani Državnega izpitnega centra, preizkuse znanja za ocenjevanje znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu pa pri učiteljih osmih osnovnih šol, ki v 6. razredu poučujejo slovenščino. Potem ko smo pridobili naloge nacionalnih preverjanj znanja in preizkuse znanja za ocenjevanje znanja, je sledilo klasificiranje nalog glede na kognitivne ravni in zvrsti.

Naloge nacionalnih preverjanj znanja, opredeljene glede na kognitivne ravni, smo prevzeli s spletne strani Državnega izpitnega centra. Ta pri večini nalog sicer navaja več kognitivnih ravni, a smo pri vsaki nalogi prevzeli le najvišjo. Ker med nalogami niso bile evidentirane naloge na ravni ustvarjanja, nalog na ravni vrednotenja pa je bilo

v nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja najmanj, prav tako pa so bile te večinoma povezane s predhodnim izkazovanjem znanja na ravni analize ali sinteze, smo naloge na ravneh analize ali sinteze in vrednotenja združili v skupno in najvišjo kognitivno raven nalog. Glede na to smo za klasifikacijo nalog v pisnih preizkusih znanja iz slovenščine, ki smo jo izvedli sami, oblikovali štiristopenjsko ocenjevalno lestvico, ki od najnižje do najvišje stopnje razlikuje naslednje kognitivne ravni: 1. znanje, 2. razumevanje, 3. uporaba ter 4. analiza, sinteza in vrednotenje. Klasifikacija teh nalog je potekala dvakrat, saj sta najvišjo kognitivno raven vsake naloge zaradi objektivnosti rezultatov določili tako avtorica kot tudi slovenistka, učiteljica slovenščine na osnovni šoli, katere preizkusi znanja niso bili zajeti v raziskavo. Ker pri določitvi kognitivnih ravni nalog med avtorico in slovenistko ni prišlo do statistično pomembnih razlik, smo navedli le ene rezultate.

Pri določitvi zvrsti naloge smo upoštevali, ali naloga in morebitno besedilo ali drugi prikazi te naloge sodijo v področje književnosti ali jezika. Področje nalog nacionalnih preverjanj znanja smo prevzeli od Državnega izpitnega centra, medtem ko smo področje nalog preizkusov znanja določili sami. Tako za naloge nacionalnih preverjanj znanja kot za naloge preizkusov znanja smo sami določili, ali je naloga odprtega ali zaprtega tipa, pri čemer smo določili, da med naloge odprtega tipa sodijo naloge, ki od učencev zahtevajo zapis daljšega in zaokroženega besedila, medtem ko smo vse ostale naloge uvrstili med naloge zaprtega tipa. Prav tako smo za vse naloge sami določili, ali zahtevajo branje besedila ali drugih prikazov (npr. grafov, tabel, slik) ali pa to za rešitev naloge ni potrebno.

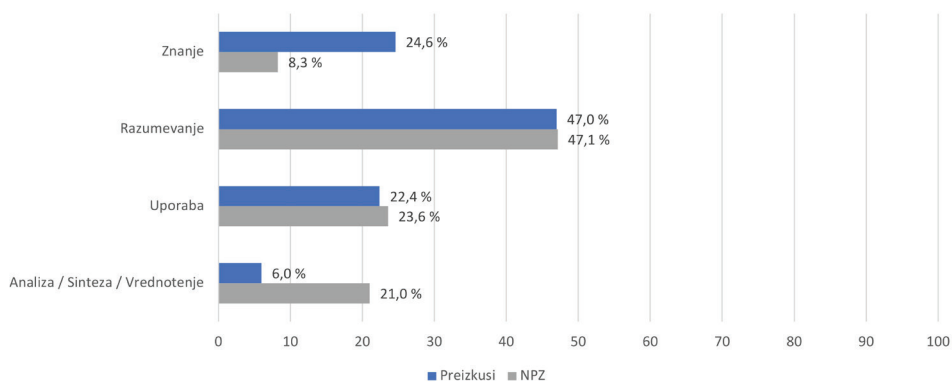
5 Rezultati

Kognitivne ravni nalog

Tako v preizkusih znanja kot v nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja so prevladovale naloge, pri katerih so morali učenci izkazati razumevanje prebranega besedila. Teh je bilo v preizkusih znanja 47 %, v nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja pa 47,1 %. V preizkusih znanja so tem nalogam sledile naloge na ravni znanja, teh je bilo 24,6 %, ki so od učencev zahtevale zgolj, da v besedilu poiščejo podatke, ki so bili jasno zapisani, oziroma je bilo za rešitev naloge dovolj že znanje učencev, medtem ko njihovi višji miselni procesi niso bili potrebni. Pri nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja so nalogam razumevanja sledile naloge, ki so od učencev zahtevale, da svoje znanje in razumevanje prebranega konkretno izkažejo, to je z uporabo znanja in razumevanja v novih ali podobnih situacijah. Nalog na ravni uporabe je bilo v nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja 23,6 %. Naloge te ravni so se v preizkusih znanja pojavile na tretjem mestu, saj jih je bilo 22,4 %, medtem ko so bile pri nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja na tretjem mestu naloge, ki so od učencev zahtevale analiziranje prebranega besedila, primerjavo dveh besedil in povezovanje informacij iz več besedil. Nalog na ravni analize, sinteze ali vrednotenja je bilo v nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja 21 %. Teh nalog je bilo v preizkusih znanja najmanj, in sicer 6 %, medtem ko je bilo v nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja najmanj nalog na ravni znanja, 8,3 %, pri katerih so učenci poiskali podatke, ki so bili v besedilu eksplicitno zapisani.

Graf 1

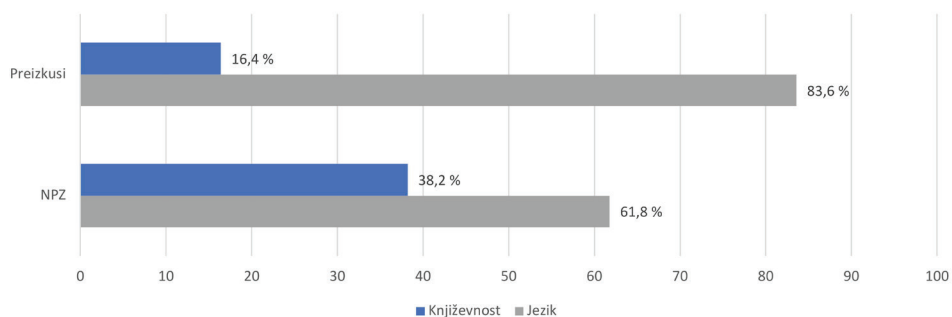
Kognitivne ravni nalog v preizkusih znanja za ocenjevanje znanja in nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu

**Zvrsti nalog**

V preizkusih znanja in v nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja so prevladovala naloge in besedila s področja jezika, čeprav je bil v preizkusih znanja v primerjavi z nacionalnimi preverjanji znanja precej manjši odstotek nalog in besedil s področja književnosti. V preizkusih znanja je bilo 16,4% nalog s področja književnosti in 83,6% nalog s področja jezika, v nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja pa 38,2% nalog s področja književnosti in 61,8% s področja jezika.

Graf 2

Področje nalog v preizkusih znanja za ocenjevanje znanja in nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu

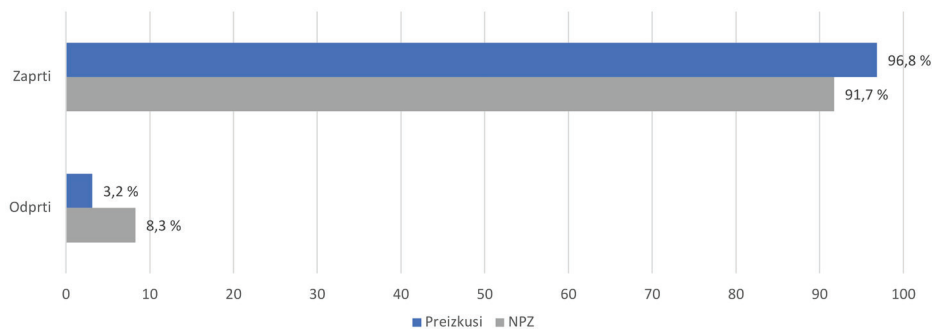


Glede tipa nalog med preizkusi znanja in nacionalnimi preverjanji znanja ni bilo bistvenih razlik. Pri obeh so se večinoma pojavljale naloge zaprtega tipa, se pravi naloge,

ki od učencev niso zahtevale zapisa nekoliko daljšega in zaokroženega besedila. Naloge odprtega tipa, torej naloge, ki so tak zapis zahtevale, je bilo v preizkusih znanja 3,2%, v nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja pa 8,3%.

Graf 3

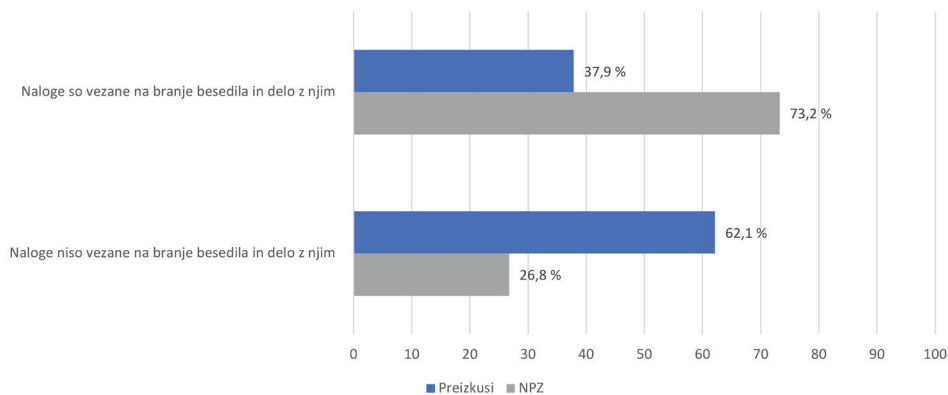
Tip nalog v preizkusih znanja za ocenjevanje znanja in nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu



Pomembna razlika med preizkusi znanja in nacionalnimi preverjanji znanja se je pokazala pri vezanosti nalog na branje besedila ali drugih prikazov (npr. grafov, tabel, slik). V preizkusih znanja so večinoma prevladovala naloge, ki niso zahtevale branja besedila ali drugih prikazov vsebine, teh je bilo 62,1%, medtem ko so v nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja prevladovala naloge, ki so tako branje zahtevale, in sicer je bilo teh nalog 73,2%.

Graf 4

Vezanost nalog na branje besedila ali drugih prikazov v preizkusih znanja za ocenjevanje znanja in nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu



Povezanost med tipom nalog in kognitivno ravno nalog v preizkusih znanja za ocenjevanje znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu

Statistično značilno povezanost med tipom in kognitivno ravno nalog smo dokazali s Pearsonovim Hi-kvadrat testom, kjer je bila P-vrednost pod 0,05. Podatek, da so bile vse naloge odprtega tipa najvišje kognitivne ravni, to je na ravni analize, sinteze ali vrednotenja, je dokazal, da je v preizkusih znanja odprti tip naloge pomenil višjo kognitivno raven, zaprti tip pa večinoma nižjo. Omenjeno sta dokazala tudi podatka, da je bilo le 2,9% nalog zaprtega tipa najvišje kognitivne ravni in da je bila več kot polovica nalog na ravni analize, sinteze ali vrednotenja odprtega tipa.

Tabela 1

Povezanost med tipom nalog in kognitivno ravno nalog v preizkusih znanja za ocenjevanje znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu

			Tip		Skupaj
			Zaprta	Odprta	
Raven	Znanje	N	78	0	78
		% Raven	100,0%	0,0%	100,0%
		% Tip	25,4%	0,0%	24,6%
	Razumevanje	N	149	0	149
		% Raven	100,0%	0,0%	100,0%
		% Tip	48,5%	0,0%	47,0%
	Uporaba	N	71	0	71
		% Raven	100,0%	0,0%	100,0%
		% Tip	23,1%	0,0%	22,4%
	Analiza / Sinteza / Vrednotenje	N	9	10	19
		% Raven	47,4%	52,6%	100,0%
		% Tip	2,9%	100,0%	6,0%
Skupaj		N	307	10	317
		% Raven	96,8%	3,2%	100,0%
		% Tip	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Povezanost med nalogami, vezanimi na besedilo ali druge prikaze, in kognitivno ravno nalog v preizkusih znanja za ocenjevanje znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu

Statistično značilno povezanost med nalogami, vezanimi na besedilo ali druge prikaze vsebine, in njihovo kognitivno ravno smo dokazali s Pearsonovim Hi-kvadrat testom, kjer je bila P-vrednost pod 0,05. S tem, ko je bilo med nalogami, ki so zahtevale branje besedila ali drugih prikazov, le 4,2% nalog na ravni znanja, druge naloge pa so bile višjih kognitivnih ravni, in s tem, ko so vse naloge, ki so bile na ravni analize,

sinteze ali vrednotenja, zahtevale branje besedila ali drugih prikazov, smo dokazali, da so v preizkusih znanja naloge, vezane na branje besedila ali drugih prikazov, pomenile višjo kognitivno raven teh nalog.

Tabela 2

Povezanost med nalogami, vezanimi na besedilo ali druge prikaze, in kognitivno ravtnjo nalog v preizkusih znanja za ocenjevanje znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu

		Branje			Skupaj
		Naloge so vezane na branje besedila in delo z njim	Naloge niso vezane na branje besedila in delo z njim		
Raven	Znanje	N	5	73	78
		% Raven	6,4%	93,6%	100,0%
		% Branje	4,2%	37,1%	24,6%
	Razumevanje	N	96	53	149
		% Raven	64,4%	35,6%	100,0%
		% Branje	80,0%	26,9%	47,0%
	Uporaba	N	0	71	71
		% Raven	0,0%	100,0%	100,0%
		% Branje	0,0%	36,0%	22,4%
	Analiza / Sinteza / Vrednotenje	N	19	0	19
		% Raven	100,0%	0,0%	100,0%
		% Branje	15,8%	0,0%	6,0%
Skupaj		N	120	197	317
		% Raven	37,9%	62,1%	100,0%
		% Branje	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Povezanost med tipom nalog in kognitivno ravtnjo nalog v nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu

Statistično značilno povezanost med tipom in kognitivno ravtnjo nalog smo dokazali s Pearsonovim Hi-kvadrat testom, kjer je bila P-vrednost pod 0,05. Med nalogami odprtega tipa je bila večina nalog na ravni analize, sinteze ali vrednotenja. Med nalogami zaprtega tipa je bilo nalog te ravni 14,6%, medtem ko je bila več kot polovica nalog zaprtega tipa na ravneh znanja in razumevanja. Z omenjenim smo dokazali, da je v nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja odprti tip naloge večinoma pomenil tudi višjo kognitivno raven naloge.

Tabela 3

Povezanost med tipom nalog in kognitivno ravno nalog v nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu

			Tip		Skupaj
			Zaprta	Odprta	
Raven	Znanje	N	13	0	13
		% Raven	100,0%	0,0%	100,0%
		% Tip	9,0%	0,0%	8,3%
	Razumevanje	N	73	1	74
		% Raven	98,6%	1,4%	100,0%
		% Tip	50,7%	7,7%	47,1%
	Uporaba	N	37	0	37
		% Raven	100,0%	0,0%	100,0%
		% Tip	25,7%	0,0%	23,6%
	Analiza / Sinteza / Vrednotenje	N	21	12	33
		% Raven	63,6%	36,4%	100,0%
		% Tip	14,6%	92,3%	21,0%
Skupaj		N	144	13	157
		% Raven	91,7%	8,3%	100,0%
		% Tip	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

Povezanost med nalogami, vezanimi na besedilo ali druge prikaze, in kognitivno ravno nalog v nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu

Statistično značilno povezanost med nalogami, vezanimi na besedilo ali druge prikaze vsebine, in njihovo kognitivno ravno smo dokazali s Pearsonovim Hi-kvadrat testom, kjer je bila P-vrednost pod 0,05. Med nalogami, ki so zahtevale branje besedila ali drugih prikazov, je bilo le 1,7% nalog na ravni znanja, ostale naloge pa so bile višjih kognitivnih ravni. Med nalogami, ki niso bile vezane na branje besedila ali drugih prikazov, ni bilo nalog na ravni analize, sinteze ali vrednotenja. Vse naloge te ravni so namreč zahtevale branje besedila ali drugih prikazov. Z vsem omenjenim smo dokazali, da so v nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja naloge, vezane na branje besedila ali drugih prikazov, predstavljale višjo kognitivno raven.

Tabela 4

Povezanost med nalogami, vezanimi na besedilo ali druge prikaze, in kognitivno ravno nalog v nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja iz slovenščine v 6. razredu

		Branje			Skupaj
		<i>Naloge so vezane na branje besedila in delo z njim</i>	<i>Naloge niso vezane na branje besedila in delo z njim</i>		
Raven	Znanje	N	2	11	13
		% Raven	15,4%	84,6%	100,0%
		% Branje	1,7%	26,2%	8,3%
	Razumevanje	N	62	12	74
		% Raven	83,8%	16,2%	100,0%
		% Branje	53,9%	28,6%	47,1%
	Uporaba	N	18	19	37
		% Raven	48,6%	51,4%	100,0%
		% Branje	15,7%	45,2%	23,6%
	Analiza / Sinteza / Vrednotenje	N	33	0	33
		% Raven	100,0%	0,0%	100,0%
		% Branje	28,7%	0,0%	21,0%
Skupaj		N	115	42	157
		% Raven	73,2%	26,8%	100,0%
		% Branje	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

6 Zaključki z diskusijo

Obdobje šolanja učencev v drugem triletju osnovne šole je pomembno zaradi razvoja njihove bralne pismenosti, saj v tem obdobju branje učencev postaja njihovo sredstvo za učenje. Za čim boljši razvoj bralne pismenosti učencev je zato med drugim pomembno, da učitelji slovenščine v preizkuse znanja vključujejo raznovrstne in dovolj zahtevne naloge. Z njimi spodbujajo razvoj bralne pismenosti učencev, s tem pa lahko pripomorejo tudi k dvigu dosežkov učencev pri nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja iz slovenščine in pri mednarodnih raziskavah na področju bralne pismenosti.

Za večjo skladnost nalog preizkusov znanja z nalogami nacionalnih preverjanj znanja bi bilo potrebno na podlagi opravljene raziskave v preizkusih znanja povečati delež nalog najvišje kognitivne ravni in zmanjšati delež nalog na ravni znanja, saj naloge višjih kognitivnih ravni od učencev zahtevajo višje miselne procese, ti pa vodijo k razvoju bralne pismenosti tako na splošno kot tudi na višjih ravneh. Večji delež nalog z višjo kognitivno ravno bi v preizkusih znanja lahko pridobili tudi tako, da bi povečali delež nalog, ki so vezane na branje besedila in drugih prikazov (npr. grafov, tabel, slik), in

nalog odprtega tipa, saj so bile take naloge, kot je pokazala raziskava, večinoma naloge višjih kognitivnih ravni.

Višjo kognitivno raven, ki je bila v raziskavi večinoma povezana z nalogami, vezanimi na branje besedila ali drugih prikazov, predstavlja tudi raven uporaba. To raven so v preizkusih znanja in nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja večinoma zahtevale naloge, kjer se je preverjalo znanje učencev s področja slovnice, kot na primer raba velike začetnice, ločil in premege govora. Te naloge so zahtevale branje zgolj posameznih, nepovezanih povedi in zato kljub temu da so sicer bile višje kognitivne ravni, večinoma niso bile uvrščene med naloge, vezane na branje besedila ali drugih prikazov. Naloge na ravni uporabe, ki smo jih uvrstili med naloge, vezane na branje besedila ali drugih prikazov, so bile večinoma naloge, ki so se povezovale z branjem umetnostnih ali neumetnostnih besedil. Prav tako naloge na ravni uporabe, ki je višja kognitivna raven, večinoma niso bile uvrščene med odprti tip nalog. Naloge te ravni so bile večinoma s področja slovnice in so največkrat predvidele odgovore, podane v obliki besednih zvez ali krajših povedi. Take naloge, ki niso zahtevale zapisa daljšega in zaokroženega besedila, smo v raziskavi uvrstili med naloge zaprtega tipa, saj nas je v preizkusih znanja in nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja še posebno zanimala pojavnost nalog odprtega tipa, ker tak tip nalog s tvorjenjem besedil spodbuja razvoj bralne pismenosti. Glede na to razvrstitev bi bilo v prihodnje smiselno preučiti, kolikšen je v preizkusih znanja in nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja delež nalog polodprtega tipa, kot je bila na primer večina nalog na ravni uporabe, in kakšna je znotraj tega deleža razporeditev nalog glede na kognitivno raven in vezanost nalog na branje besedila ali drugih prikazov vsebine.

Bralna pismenost učencev se ne razvija samo v drugem triletju osnovne šole in le pri urah slovenščine, ampak tudi pri vseh drugih predmetih in po celotni vertikali osnovnošolskega izobraževanja. Z vidika razvijanja bralne pismenosti učencev bi bilo zato v prihodnje smiselno glede na kognitivno raven in zvrst nalog preučiti naloge preizkusov znanja tudi v drugih razredih in na drugih predmetnih področjih. To bi tudi v drugih razredih in pri drugih predmetih omogočilo pripravo raznovrstnih in dovolj zahtevnih preizkusov znanja, kar bi lahko prispevalo k dvigu ravni bralne pismenosti učencev in k dvigu dosežkov učencev tako pri nacionalnih preverjanjih znanja iz slovenščine kot tudi pri mednarodnih raziskavah na področju bralne pismenosti.

Ada Pirš

Assessment Papers and National Assessment Papers in the Slovenian Language

Well-developed reading literacy is essential to the successful functioning of individuals in society, in education processes, in the workplace, and in life in general. According to PISA, reading literacy is defined as “understanding, using, reflecting on, and engaging with written texts, in order to achieve one’s goals, to develop one’s knowledge and potential, and to participate in society” (Pedagogical Institute, 2016, p. 59).

Therefore, it can be argued that the higher the reading literacy level of an individual, the more successful he or she is in his or her daily life. The prerequisite for

achieving reading literacy is reading, which involves many components, two of which are particularly distinct. The first refers to the reading process, which includes the decoding process and the reading comprehension process, and the second refers to the stages in reading development, where the learning to read stage and the learning by reading stage are prominent (Pečjak, 1995).

The transition from the learning to read stage to the learning by reading stage in an average individual is expected to occur between the ages of 9 and 14 (Chall, 1996). This transition covers the period of education of an individual in the second three-year cycle of elementary school and is especially encouraged during Slovenian language lessons.

According to the Curriculum (2018), 175 hours are allocated to teaching the Slovenian language in each class in the second three-year cycle, i.e. 525 hours in total. During these hours, pupils acquire knowledge and skills in the field of language and literature. The accomplishment of curriculum goals, the transition of pupils from the learning to read stage to the learning by reading stage, and the level of reading literacy of pupils in Slovenian lessons are checked and assessed by teachers. In checking and assessing the knowledge through assessment papers, it is important for teachers to draw on the learning objectives and standards of knowledge defined in the curriculum, to direct attention to various cognitive levels according to the taxonomy of cognitive processes, and to prepare a variety of tasks in assessment papers. Tasks differ depending on the type of reply required, and on whether or not they contain introductory text or other content display formats (e.g. graphs, tables, figures).

At the end of the second three-year cycle, in the 6th grade, the attainment of the objectives and knowledge standards laid down in the curriculum, as well as the level of reading literacy of pupils, are also checked by the National Examination Centre using the national assessment papers in Slovenian. According to the data provided by this centre, at the end of the second three-year cycle, i.e. in the 6th grade, sixth graders in the 2021/2022 school year on average achieved only 45.5% of the total points in the national assessment papers (National Examination Centre, 2022a) and 50.5% in the 2022/2023 school year (National Examination Centre, 2023).

In the national assessment papers of the Slovenian language, sixth graders on average achieve only around 50% of the total points. Likewise, the PIRLS 2021 study detected a decrease in the average reading achievement among fourth graders (Klemenčič & Mirazchiyski, 2023), while the PISA 2022 study observed a decrease in the average reading achievement among 15-year-old pupils (Pedagogical Institute, 2023). The above reading levels of pupils are in contrast to a statement made in the White Paper on Education in the Republic of Slovenia (Krek & Metljak, 2011), which states that efforts should be made towards the goal of pupils' achievements in basic subjects – such as mathematics, science, and reading literacy – ranking in the top third of the developed countries.

With all of the above in mind, a question arises over the tasks prepared by 6th grade teachers of the Slovenian language in their assessment papers for assessing pupils' knowledge; tasks that result in pupils averaging only about half of the total points in the national assessment papers, while according to international research, pupils' reading achievements are in decline. The aim of this research was therefore to identify similarities and differences between the tasks of assessment papers and those of national as-

assessment papers in Slovenian in 6th grade, according to the cognitive levels and types of tasks. The aim was also to determine the links between different types and cognitive levels of tasks in assessment papers, and national assessment papers in the 6th grade Slovenian language from the point of view of developing pupils' reading literacy.

The research included six 6th grade national assessment papers in Slovenian, obtained from the website of the National Examination Centre, and nineteen 6th grade assessment papers prepared by the Slovenian language teachers from eight elementary schools.

The tasks in the national assessment papers and in the assessment papers were classified according to cognitive level on the basis of Bloom's taxonomy, as well as according to type.

The cognitive levels of the national assessment papers' tasks were adopted from the National Examination Centre, while the cognitive levels of the tasks in the assessment papers obtained from teachers were determined by us. The classification of tasks was based on a four-level assessment scale, which distinguishes the following cognitive levels from lowest to highest: 1 – knowledge, 2 – understanding, 3 – application, and 4 – analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

Regarding type, we classified all tasks into tasks related to literature or language; open or closed type tasks, specifying that the open type tasks include tasks requiring pupils to write a longer and complete text, while all other tasks were classified as closed type tasks; and tasks that require reading of the text or other content display formats (e.g. graphs, tables, figures), or tasks where reading is not required.

In both the assessment papers and the national assessment papers, the most common tasks were those that required pupils to demonstrate a comprehension of the text. They accounted for 47% in the assessment papers and 47.1% in the national assessment papers. In the assessment papers, the next most common (24.6%) were tasks at the level of knowledge, which only required pupils to find information that was clearly written in the text, or to rely on sufficient pre-existing knowledge, with higher thinking processes not necessary. In the national assessment papers, the next most common tasks were those that required pupils to demonstrate their knowledge and comprehension in a concrete way, i.e. by using knowledge and comprehension in a new or similar situation. These application level tasks constituted 23.6% of the national assessment papers. Tasks of this level were among the third most common in the assessment papers, representing 22.4%, while in the national assessment papers, tasks that required pupils to analyse a text, compare two texts, or link information from several texts were among the third most common. Tasks at the level of analysis, synthesis, and evaluation represented 21% in the national assessment papers. Such tasks comprised at least 6% of the assessment papers, while tasks at the level of knowledge, in which the pupils looked for information that was explicitly written in the text, were the least common in the national assessment papers, accounting for 8.3%.

Tasks and texts in the field of language were predominant in both the assessment papers and the national assessment papers, although the ratio of literature tasks to language tasks was much lower in the assessment papers than in the national assessment papers. In the assessment papers, literature tasks represented 16.4% and language

tasks 83.6%, while in the national assessment papers 38.2% were literature tasks and 61.8% language tasks.

There were no significant differences in the types of tasks in the assessment papers and the national assessment papers. Both comprised mostly closed type tasks, that is, tasks that did not require pupils to write a longer and complete text. Open type tasks, i.e. tasks that required more extensive writing, represented 3.2% in the assessment papers and 8.3% in the national assessment papers.

A significant difference between the assessment papers and the national assessment papers was noted in terms of whether tasks required the reading of a text or other content display formats (e.g. graphs, tables, figures). The assessment papers mostly included tasks that did not require reading a text or other content display formats, which represented 62.1%, while the national assessment papers comprised predominantly tasks that required reading, representing 73.2%.

There was a statistically significant correlation between a certain type of task and the difficulty level of tasks, as both in the assessment papers and in the national assessment papers, open type tasks and tasks related to texts or other content display formats represented a higher difficulty level.

To increase the consistency between assessment paper tasks and national assessment paper tasks, it would be necessary to increase the proportion of literature tasks and tasks of the highest cognitive level in assessment papers, and to decrease their proportion of knowledge level tasks, as tasks of higher cognitive levels require higher thinking processes, and these lead to the development of reading literacy in general and at higher levels. A greater proportion of higher cognitive level tasks in assessment papers could also be achieved by increasing the proportion of tasks related to reading a text or other content display formats (e.g. graphs, tables, figures) and the proportion of open type tasks, since such tasks, as the research has shown, are mostly higher cognitive level tasks.

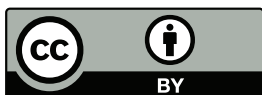
The reading literacy of pupils does not develop only in the second three-year cycle of elementary school, or only in the Slovenian language lessons, but also in all other subjects and throughout the vertical of primary education. From the point of view of developing pupils' reading literacy, it would therefore be reasonable in the future to examine assessment papers from other classes and other subjects, depending on the cognitive levels and types of tasks. This would make it possible to prepare sufficiently diverse and demanding assessment papers in other classes and for other subjects, too, which could contribute to raising the level of pupils' reading literacy and at the same time to improving pupils' achievements in both the national assessment papers of the Slovenian language, and in international research in the field of reading literacy.

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The Role of AI in Supporting Dyslexic Students in the Language Classroom

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KLJUČNE BESEDE: disleksija, umetna inteligenca, učenje jezikov, inkluzivno izobraževanje

POVZETEK – Ta kvalitativna raziskava raziskuje transformativni potencial umetne inteligence (AI) pri izboljšanju učenja jezikov za učence z disleksijo. Da bi to dosegli, se s študijo poglobimo v obstoječo literaturo, da bi razumeli izzive, s katerimi se soočajo učenci z disleksijo, in prihajajočo vlogo AI pri reševanju teh izzivov. Nato prispevek poudarja tri inovativne načine, kako se lahko AI vključi v jezikovno učilnico za podporo učencem z disleksijo: (1) AI kot pomočnik pri pisanju, ki uporablja kontekstne namige za pomoč pri lektoriranju in izboljšanju pisanja učencev; (2) AI kot pomočnik pri pretvarjanju besedila v govor, ki zagotavlja slušno podporo pri nalogah branja in razumevanja; in (3) AI kot orodje za vadbo ciljnega besedišča, kjer AI ustvarja prilagojene vaje, ki učencem omogočajo obvladovanje ključnega besedišča. Vsak predlog je natančno preučen glede na njegove praktične posledice, koristi in morebitne omejitve, kar zagotavlja uravnotežen pogled na integracijo AI v izobraževalnih okoljih. Članek želi prispevati k diskurzu o tehnologiji kot načinu za doseganje boljšega učnega okolja za študente z disleksijo.

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KEYWORDS: dyslexia, artificial intelligence, language learning, inclusive education

ABSTRACT – The qualitative paper explores the transformative potential of artificial intelligence (AI) in enhancing language learning for students with dyslexia. To do so, the study delves into existing literature to understand the unique challenges faced by dyslexic learners and the upcoming role of AI in addressing these challenges. Then, the paper highlights three innovative ways AI can be integrated into the language classroom to support dyslexic students: (1) AI as a writing helper, utilizing context clues to assist in proofreading and refining student writing; (2) AI as a text-to-speech assistant, providing auditory support for reading and comprehension tasks; and (3) AI as a tool to practice target vocabulary, where AI generates personalized exercises enabling students to master key vocabulary. Each suggestion is scrutinized for its practical implications, benefits, and potential limitations, providing a balanced perspective on the integration of AI in educational settings. The paper aims to contribute to the discourse on technology as a way to achieve a better learning environment for students with dyslexia.

1 Introduction

Dyslexia poses significant challenges in the acquisition of language-related skills, impacting students' entire educational journey, as well as the learning of foreign languages. Since the very emergence of the term (initially coined as "word blindness" in Hinshelwood, 1917) over a century ago, through research into neuropsychological cases (e.g., Snowling & Hulme, 1989), to modern research into dyslexia across different languages (Miles, 2000) and the association between dyslexia and internalized problems (Francis et al., 2019), the very core of dyslexia remains true: dyslexia is a difficulty to learn how to decode (read) and how to write/spell. It is important to note in this regard that throughout history, researchers have posed different definitions for dyslexia. In Vel-

lutino et al.'s views (2004) dyslexia is a reading disability only, with dysgraphia being its writing manifestation (Romani et al., 1999). Still, this research follows the standard definition posed by the World Health Organization (1993) which classifies dyslexia as a challenge encompassing both reading and spelling.

Dyslexia nowadays is a widespread issue. According to the International Dyslexia Association (2011) 15–20% of the global population has some sort of a language-based learning disability; with 70–80% of those individuals likely being dyslexic.

The inherent difficulties with phonemic awareness, linguistic information retrieval and processing, working memory, and stabilizing sound-symbol relationships in one's native language are mirrored and often magnified when learning a foreign language (Simon, 2000).

As such, dyslexia complicates not just literacy development but also the mastery of new languages. As foreign language learning becomes increasingly important in today's globalized societies, understanding the link between dyslexia and second language acquisition becomes even more significant. According to Schneider (2009, p. 299) even subtle language processing issues will, "resurface when learning a foreign language". This, according to him, combined with the anxiety many dyslexic students feel when faced with yet another language to decode, may pose a noteworthy problem that needs to be addressed thoughtfully.

Information and communication technology plays a pivotal role in modern education, particularly within classroom settings. ICT not only facilitates the acquisition and dissemination of knowledge through digital tools and resources but also enhances the interactive dynamics of the learning environment (Erjavec, 2012). By integrating technologies such as virtual labs, digital simulations, and online collaboration platforms, ICT empowers students to engage with complex scientific concepts in a more intuitive and accessible manner (Ruzić Baf, 2022). Furthermore, ICT supports the development of critical thinking and problem-solving skills by providing students with real-time data and the tools to analyze it (Harl, 2021). Thus, ICT is indispensable in fostering an educational atmosphere that is both informative and transformative, adequately preparing students for the challenges of the modern scientific landscape.

As education continues to evolve, teachers worldwide have started to harness technology's power to help their dyslexic students. Incorporating ICT into one's teaching practices, when teaching students with dyslexia, has shown promising outcomes, particularly in enhancing written language skills. Assistive technologies like text-to-speech and speech-to-text have not only facilitated immediate learning tasks but also contributed to the development of long-term, meaningful strategies for managing dyslexia (Almgren Bäck et al., 2023). By addressing the unique challenges dyslexic students face, these technologies help foster a more inclusive educational setting overall.

The advent of AI in education seems to announce a new era of intelligent cognition, where AI systems can mimic human brain processes, offering personalized and responsive learning support (Wang et al., 2023). For individuals with dyslexia, AI's potential lies in its capacity to provide a scaffold upon which information can be understood, cross-checked, and elaborated upon, offering a personalized approach to learning and understanding (Derbyshire, 2023). Moreover, the integration of AI in educational settings for dyslexic students could lead to broader benefits, such as improved men-

tal wellbeing and enhanced academic engagement. Research indicates that dyslexia is often associated with increased anxiety, which can adversely affect academic performance. AI, as a form of assistive technology, can offer a supportive layer in the learning environment, potentially mitigating these challenges and promoting a more inclusive educational experience (Hossain et al., 2021; Pontikas et al., 2022).

AI can also foster superb text-to-speech integration, targeting the phonological challenges associated with dyslexia, as explored in a plethora of prominent research. Harm and Seidenberg (1999) highlight the intricate connection between phonology and reading acquisition, suggesting that understanding these mechanisms can provide insights into dyslexia. Moreover, Hulme et al. (2012) emphasize the significant, causal role of phoneme awareness and letter-sound knowledge in reading proficiency. These studies emphasize the importance of phonology in reading, positioning AI-driven text-to-speech as a vital tool in bridging the gaps in phonological processing for students with dyslexia in the language classroom.

To harness AI's potential to help dyslexic students, Wang et al. (2022) propose an AI-based Augmentative Alternative Communication (AI-A 2 C) model for dyslexic students, which uses a hybrid AI classifier to provide the most appropriate pictograms for effective learning and reading. According to their findings, the model can improve the academic skills and social interactions of dyslexic students by reducing the time and effort required for communication. Gilbert et al. (2023) emphasize another use for AI in this regard: using AI to produce a highly-readable font for dyslexic people. Their project uses a generative adversarial network (GAN) to create a novel font that is highly readable by people with dyslexia, as predicted by the neural network model. Spoon et al. (2019) discuss the potential use of AI in detecting dyslexia in children. They address the need for earlier, easier, and less costly detection of dyslexia, and use AI to analyze a set of 56 photos of handwriting samples from grades K-6 for signs of dyslexia. Although the model boasts high 77.6% accuracy, they emphasize the potential dangers of this technology, such as false negatives. Botchu et al. (2023) discuss the use of the ChatGPT model to help students with dyslexia and find it can indeed be used to empower them in diverse learning environments.

Overall, these papers provide valuable insights into dyslexia and artificial intelligence and how these fields intertwine.

2 Methodology

This qualitative study presents an innovative proposition, postulating three ways to implement AI with the goal of supporting dyslexic students in the language classroom: AI as a writing helper, AI as a text-to-speech assistant, and AI as a tool to practice target vocabulary.

The study acknowledges the limitations inherent in qualitative research, including the subjective interpretation of data and potential bias in selecting and reviewing literature. Additionally, while these AI applications are proposed with the intent to support dyslexic learners, we acknowledge the conceptual nature of these suggestions. Actual

implementation and effectiveness can vary widely based on numerous factors including technological constraints, individual learner differences, and the educational context. Despite these limitations, we believe that the proposed AI applications hold significant potential to support dyslexic students and can inspire further research and practical implementation of AI technologies, contributing to educational strategies tailored to the needs of dyslexic learners in the foreign language classroom.

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this paper.

3 Results & Discussion

In the following paragraphs, we synthesize and discuss the implications of the proposed AI applications, considering current educational trends, students' needs, and technological advancements.

AI as a Writing Helper

According to Hebert et al. (2018), “the writing difficulties of students with dyslexia can be partially attributed to their reading difficulties and can manifest in many ways in their writing, such as poor spelling, poor legibility, lack of diverse vocabulary, poor idea development, and/or lack of organization.” These difficulties are the main reason we consider the opportunity to implement AI and AI models.

AI models like ChatGPT excel beyond basic spell checks by understanding and generating context-rich text, assisting not only with spelling but with grammar, and providing stylistic suggestions, thus offering comprehensive writing support. Simple spell-checkers fail to grasp wider context, while ChatGPT is trained to consider larger amounts of textual data. Its ability to offer real-time, context-aware suggestions elevates the quality of students' writing, ultimately enhancing their foreign language skills. ChatGPT can suggest synonyms, ways to enhance arguments and ideas, and tips to improve writing structure, all based on individualized, user-inserted data. This, in turn, helps students with dyslexia beyond simple spelling issues. This is particularly important in foreign language learning settings where dyslexic students may struggle with more than just mere spelling due to limited knowledge of English. Yet, although AI can be useful in this regard, some researchers emphasize the importance of integrating such tools in the classroom thoughtfully, ensuring they complement traditional learning methods (such as teacher's error correction) rather than completely replacing them (Imran et al., 2023).

AI as a Text-to-Speech Assistant

AI as a text-to-speech (TTS) assistant significantly enhances the learning experience of dyslexic students by providing auditory access to written content. This technology effectively bridges the gap between written text and comprehension, accommodat-

ing the unique learning styles of individuals with dyslexia. It not only facilitates the decoding process by converting text into speech but also enables students to engage with the material at their own pace. The multisensory approach of TTS tools aids in improving word recognition, enhancing vocabulary, and fostering a deeper understanding of the text, making learning more inclusive and accessible.

ChatGPT in particular can help in numerous ways. In the classroom, it can read aloud textbooks, articles, and assignments, ensuring that dyslexic students can access and comprehend written content effectively. During exams or assessments, ChatGPT can assist by orally presenting questions and instructions, mitigating reading-related stress. During at-home, self-study, ChatGPT can help convert digital materials, such as e-books and web articles, into spoken format, enabling independent learning. Providing such auditory output, the model can aid phonemic awareness, which correlates to the findings of Harm et al. (1999) and Humle et al. (2012).

It is also important to note that TTS has been shown to help students with reading difficulties. Keelor et al. (2023), for instance, found that TTS tools significantly help students aged 8 to 12 to read and comprehend the given material better, compared to students who read with no TTS support. Bonifacci et al. (2021) found that TTS helps with mind-wandering in dyslexic students while Wood et al. (2017) compared TTS tools with oral read-alouds and found that they show similar results. TTS would also be beneficial for foreign language learners as they would be able to hear the correct pronunciation of words in their text material. This is particularly important for students learning English as a foreign language as English does not follow phonetic pronunciation rules.

Furthermore, modern TTS software offers an abundance of options: voice options, personalized pronunciation settings, generation of synthetic audio files, and additional supportive tools like text highlighting (Peters & Bell, 2007). As such, TTS software can help students decode texts faster and better. Because, ultimately, without mastery of lower-level decoding skills students will not know how to use higher-level language skills to understand text on a deeper level (Cain, 2004).

AI as a Tool to Practice Target Vocabulary

Numerous dyslexic students struggle with proper vocabulary retention as they have difficulties with reading and writing target lexical items. To help them learn and practice target vocabulary, AI-powered systems can intelligently craft exercises that are tailored to each student's learning curve, curriculum, and preferences.

This personalized methodology ensures that vocabulary learning will not only be effective but also genuinely engaging. Moreover, AI's capability to analyze individual learning patterns and adapt accordingly means that each student receives a unique learning experience, maximizing the potential for vocabulary retention. The interactive nature of AI-driven exercises fosters a deeper connection with the language, turning vocabulary practice from a mundane task into an interactive, enriching experience. As students interact with these smart systems, they are not just memorizing words; they are immersing themselves in the language, understanding nuances, and developing a richer, better command over it.

ChatGPT, as one such easily-available AI model, can generate a variety of vocabulary exercises tailored to the specific needs of dyslexic students. For instance, once given the foreign language lexical goals, it can create interactive flashcards with audio pronunciations, helping students associate the written word with its correct pronunciation; formulate contextual sentences where target vocabulary words are used, aiding students in understanding how these words are employed in real-life scenarios; and generate crossword puzzles or word searches using the target vocabulary, making learning engaging and game-like. Such an engaging approach would certainly be beneficial for dyslexic students, while we also think that non-dyslexic students would also welcome this novel approach in vocabulary practice in the foreign language classroom.

4 Conclusion

Through a systematic examination of three innovative AI applications – AI as a writing helper, AI as a text-to-speech (TTS) assistant, and AI as a tool to practice target vocabulary – this study has hopefully provided some insights into the potential of these novel technologies to revolutionize education for dyslexic learners. While acknowledging the limitations, it is evident that AI, particularly ChatGPT, holds promise in providing tailored assistance, fostering inclusivity, and enhancing the foreign language learning experience for dyslexic students. Yet, AI requires thoughtful integration into the language classroom as its best role is a complementary one alongside traditional language teaching methods.

Dr. Bisera Kostadinovska-Stojchevska, mag. Elena Shalevska

Vloga umetne inteligence pri podpori učencem z disleksijo, ki se učijo tujega jezika

Ta kvalitativni raziskovalni članek z naslovom Vloga umetne inteligence pri podpori študentom z disleksijo raziskuje transformativni potencial umetne inteligence (AI) v jezikovni učilnici, zlasti za učence z disleksijo.

Jezikovne učilnice lahko na splošno predstavljajo veliko ovir za študente z disleksijo. Medtem ko imajo ti učenci močno kritično mišljenje in dobre ustne komunikacijske sposobnosti, so lahko ključni elementi učenja tujega ali drugega jezika – branje, pisanje in obvladovanje besedišča – pomembna ovira. Koren teh izzivov je pogosto v fonološki obdelavi, sposobnosti možganov, da prepoznajo in manipulirajo z zvoki, ki sestavljajo besede. Slabosti na tem področju lahko študentom z disleksijo otežijo povezovanje črk z ustreznimi glasovi in obratno, kar vodi do težav s tekočim branjem, natančnostjo črkovanja in razvojem besedišča. Poleg tega jim lahko težave s kratkoročnim spominom otežijo ohranjanje novih besed in slovničnih struktur, ki so v govorjenem jeziku hitro predstavljene.

Posledično se učenci z disleksijo v jezikovnem razredu soočajo s številnimi izzivi pri branju, črkovanju in pisanju. Ti izzivi postanejo še posebej očitni, ko poskušajo obvladati

tuje, nefonetične jezike, kot je angleščina. Tuji jeziki postajajo v današnjih globaliziranih družbah vedno bolj pomembni. Tako se učenci v državah, kot je Severna Makedonija, začnejo učiti tujega jezika že na začetku osnovnega izobraževanja – v 1. razredu. Učijo se angleščine skozi celotno (obvezno) izobraževalno pot, večina pa se angleščine uči celo na nekaterih fakultetah. Zaradi poudarka na usvajanju tujega jezika postaja razumevanje povezave med disleksijo in usvajanjem drugega jezika še toliko pomembnejše.

Disleksija kot učna težava močno otežuje pridobivanje jezikovnih veščin. Kot je bilo že omenjeno, ne vpliva samo na pismenost maternega jezika, temveč tudi na učenje tujih jezikov. Zgodovinske in sodobne raziskave so disleksijo opredelile kot težavo pri dekodiranju (branju) in kodiranju (pisanju/črkovanju), pri čemer je ocenjeno, da neko obliko motenj pri učenju jezika doživi 15–20% svetovnega prebivalstva. Skozi leta so bili uporabljeni različni pristopi za obravnavo disleksije in pomoč učencem z disleksijo. Z izvajanjem posebnih strategij je učiteljem uspelo ustvariti bolj vključujoče in podporno okolje za svoje učence z disleksijo. Zagotavljajo individualiziran pouk, prilagojen učenčevim specifičnim potrebam, pri pouku pa uporabljajo tudi informacijsko in računalniško tehnologijo (IKT). Uporaba IKT je v preteklih desetletjih postala temelj jezikovnega poučevanja, ne samo za učence z disleksijo, ampak za vse učence na vseh stopnjah usvajanja jezika na splošno. Ker se IKT razvija v smeri vključevanja AI, postaja potencialna uporaba novih izobraževalnih orodij, ki temeljijo na AI, še posebej pomembna. To je še posebej pomembno danes, ko postaja AI, zlasti z uporabo določenih modelov AI, kot je ChatGPT, vse bolj priljubljena po vsem svetu.

Z vidika AI, ki se še naprej razvija, je vznemirljivo videti njene potencialne aplikacije pri podpori učencem z disleksijo v jezikovnem razredu. AI ponuja množico edinstvenih priložnosti za reševanje posebnih izzivov, s katerimi se soočajo učenci z disleksijo, hkrati pa ustvarja bolj privlačno in učinkovito učno izkušnjo.

V razpravi o predhodnih raziskavah članek podrobno opisuje pomen AI v izobraževanju, ki velja za novo mejo v inteligentnem učenju, ki lahko posnema procese človeških možganov. To je še posebej pomembno za učence z disleksijo, saj jim AI lahko ponudi prilagojene priložnosti za učenje. Poleg tega dokument omenja potencial AI za izboljšanje duševnega počutja in akademskega sodelovanja s prilagojeno ter odzivno podporo pri učenju.

Preden preide na praktično uporabo AI v jezikovni učilnici za pomoč učencem z disleksijo, prispevek navaja vrsto različnih izzivov, s katerimi se soočajo učenci z disleksijo. Omenja, da so “inherentne težave s fonemskim zavedanjem, iskanjem in obdelavo jezikovnih informacij, delovnim spominom ter stabiliziranjem zvokovno-simbolnih odnosov v maternem jeziku očitne in pogosto še bolj izrazite pri učenju tujega jezika” (Simon, 2000).

Raziskovalni članek predlaga konceptualni model za vključitev AI v poučevanje študentov z disleksijo, pri čemer priznava subjektivno naravo kvalitativnih raziskav in morebitne pristranskosti pri izbiri literature. Predlagane aplikacije AI, čeprav še vedno konceptualne, naj bi imele velik potencial za praktično izvedbo, odvisno od variacij, ki izhajajo iz tehnoloških omejitev, razlik med posameznimi učenci in izobraževalnimi konteksti.

Potencial AI ni le v njenih tehničnih zmogljivostih, ampak v njeni zmožnosti prilagajanja učne izkušnje. Študenti z disleksijo se pogosto spopadajo s tradicionalnimi pristopi, ki ustrezajo vsem. Vendar pa lahko AI analizira učenčeve prednosti, slabosti in stil učenja, da ustvari ciljno usmerjene intervencije. Ta osebni pristop bi zagotovil, da

učenci z disleksijo ne bodo zapostavljeni ali preobremenjeni. Upajmo, da bo to povzročilo občutek dosežka in globlje “sodelovanje” s ciljnimi, tujim jezikom.

V razdelku *Rezultati in razprava* prispevek izpostavlja tri možne inovativne načine uporabe AI v jezikovni učilnici za pomoč učencem z disleksijo pri usvajanju tujega jezika.

Kot prvo navaja uporabo AI kot pomočnika pri pisanju. Tradicionalno so bili črkovalniki glavni steber pomoči pri pisanju, saj ponujajo osnovno odkrivanje napak. Vendar modeli AI, kot je ChatGPT, predstavljajo pomemben korak naprej. Ti modeli presegajo črkovalne popravke z analizo slovnice, strukture stavkov in celo slogovnih elementov. Predstavljajte si študenta z disleksijo, ki se spopada s soglasjem osebka in glagola ali glagolskimi časi. Pomočnik pri pisanju z AI ne prepozna samo teh napak, ampak tudi predlaga ustrezne popravke in poda pojasnila, s čimer študentu pomaga resnično razumeti slovnična pravila poleg črkovalnih napak. Poleg tega lahko AI analizira celoten slog in predlaga izboljšave v toku stavkov ali pri izbiri besed. To lahko študentu pomaga pisati bolj jasno in jedrnato v ciljnem jeziku. Tako ta izčrpna povratna informacija daleč presega osnovno preverjanje črkovanja in študentom z disleksijo omogoča samozavestno in učinkovito pisno izražanje.

Poleg tega raziskovalni članek predlaga uporabo AI kot pomočnika za pretvorbo besedila v govor. Za učence z disleksijo je lahko tekoče branje glavna težava na njihovi poti učenja jezika. Pomočniki za pretvorbo besedila v govor, ki jih poganja AI, lahko premostijo to vrzel z zagotavljanjem vedno pomembne slušne podpore za študente z disleksijo. V jezikovni učilnici lahko ti pomočniki glasno berejo učbenike, članke ali naloge, kar učencem omogoča, da sledijo in razumejo gradivo prek vizualnih in slušnih kanalov. To lahko bistveno izboljša razumevanje, zlasti zapletenih konceptov ali neznanega besedišča. Prednosti uporabe AI pa presegajo stene učilnic. Orodja AI lahko pretvorijo digitalne materiale, kot so e-knjige in spletni članki, v govorno obliko, kar učencem omogoča učenje in vadbo ciljnega jezika v njihovem tempu, v udobju doma. Ta osebni pristop bi učencem z disleksijo zagotovo pomagal pri neposrednem spopadanju z bralnimi izzivi in spodbujal večjo neodvisnost pri učenju ciljnega jezika.

Nazadnje raziskovalni članek predlaga uporabo AI kot orodja za vadbo ciljnega besedišča. Ena od resničnih prednosti AI je v njeni zmožnosti prilagajanja učne izkušnje. Praksa tradicionalnega besedišča pogosto vključuje učenje na pamet, kar je za učence z disleksijo lahko dolgočasno in neučinkovito. Modeli AI lahko spremenijo ta proces z ustvarjanjem interaktivnih vaj, prilagojenih individualnim potrebam in učenim stilom. Predstavljajte si program, ki analizira učenčev napredek in razumevanje besed ciljnega besedišča, nato pa ustvari ciljno usmerjene vaje, ki krepijo tisto besedišče, ki potrebuje nadaljnjo vajo. To lahko vključuje igre, kvize ali interaktivne dejavnosti, ki vključujejo različne načine učenja. S prilagajanjem učenja besedišča lahko AI naredi učenje besedil privlačno.

Prispevek se zaključi z obetavno noto, ki potrjuje transformativni potencial tehnologij AI pri revoluciji izobraževanja za učence z disleksijo. Predvideva prihodnost, v kateri lahko AI premosti vrzel med tradicionalnimi pedagoškimi metodami in posebnimi potrebami učencev z disleksijo v jezikovnem razredu. Vendar pa raziskovalni članek priznava pomen nadaljnjih raziskav in razvoja. Strogo testiranje aplikacij AI v izobraževalnih okoljih v realnem svetu je ključnega pomena za zagotovitev njihove učinkovitosti in praktičnosti.

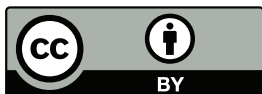
Poudarek je na premišljeni integraciji. AI ne bi smela nadomestiti tradicionalnih učnih metod, temveč jih dopolnjevati. S sodelovanjem z izkušenimi učitelji lahko AI ustvari

bolj vključujoče in učinkovito učno okolje za učence z disleksijo. Tako idealna jezikovna učilnica prihodnosti izkorišča prednosti človeškega strokovnega znanja in edinstveno zmogljivost AI. Učitelji se lahko osredotočijo na prilagojeno poučevanje in spodbujanje podpornega vzdušja, medtem ko AI zagotavlja ciljno usmerjene posege in privlačne učne izkušnje za vse učence.

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Flow and Digital Storytelling in Classes of French as a FL

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KLJUČNE BESEDE: digitalna orodja pri pouku, digitalno pripovedovanje zgodb, pouk tujih jezikov, vživetost

POVZETEK – Prispevek raziskuje učno metodo digitalnega pripovedovanja zgodb in njen vpliv na možnost pojava vživetosti (ang. flow) pri učencih med poukom francoščine kot tujega jezika. Osnovne predpostavke so bile, da bodo učenci z uporabo digitalnega pripovedovanja doživeli vživetost in da se bodo razlike v doživljanju vživetosti pokazale glede na posameznikove osebne značilnosti. Raziskavo smo izvedli pri pouku francoščine na dveh gimnazijah v šolskem letu 2022/2023, v raziskavi pa je sodelovalo 51 dijakov. Podatke smo zbrali z anketnim vprašalnikom pred uporabo učne metode (izobraževalne izkušnje in osebni interesi), nato z anketnim vprašalnikom med izvajanjem dejavnosti (standardizirani vprašalnik o učenju tujega jezika po Egbert, 2003 in Almetev, 2018) in z metodo učiteljevega opazovanja. Rezultati kažejo, da so učenci med izvajanjem dejavnosti čutili vživetost. Manj veščih učencih so vživetost čutili enako kot večšči učenci, močnejše občutenje vživetosti pa so imeli učenci, ki jim je ljubše skupinsko delo. Nobena raziskovalna predpostavka o razmerju med osebnostrnimi in izobrazbenimi lastnostmi posameznika ter doživljanjem občutka vživetosti ni bila statistično pomembna.

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KEYWORDS: digital tools in teaching, digital storytelling, foreign language teaching, flow

ABSTRACT – This paper explores the teaching method of digital storytelling and its effect on the potential occurrence of flow in pupils in classes of French as a foreign language. The underlying hypotheses are that pupils will experience flow through digital storytelling and that there will be differences in the experience of flow with regard to an individual's personal characteristics. The research was conducted in French classes held at two Croatian grammar schools during the 2022/2023 school year, wherein 51 pupils took part. The data was collected via a questionnaire distributed prior to the implementation of the teaching method (educational experience and personal interests), a questionnaire distributed during the implementation of the activity (standardized questionnaire regarding the research of flow in FL learning; see Egbert, 2003; Almetev, 2018) and the teacher's observation method. The results show that pupils did feel flow during the performance of the activity. Less-skilled pupils felt as much flow as the skilled ones, with a stronger sense of flow evident in pupils who prefer working in a group. None of the research hypotheses related to the relationship between an individual's personal and education-related characteristics and the experience of flow proved to be statistically significant.

1 Introduction

While emotions in learning and teaching a foreign language have been represented in applied linguistics research for decades, interest in a clearer understanding of the role of positive and negative emotions in foreign language pupils and teachers did not arise until the turn of the millennium (see Dewaele & Chengchen, 2020). Dewaele et al. (2019) believe that 2016 was marked by an increase in the popularity of positive psychology in applied linguistics, which was reflected in the number of publications exploring the link between foreign language learning and psychological constructs

such as enthusiasm, hope, courage, well-being, optimism, creativity, happiness, determination, resilience, and laughter. Assuming, as previous research shows (Egbert, 2003; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2022), that the experience of flow is the optimal state for learning, including foreign language learning, a better understanding of the individual and environmental factors associated with experiencing flow proves to be a relevant research topic, both in scientific and practical terms, especially in Croatia, where there is no recorded research studying this psychological construct in foreign language teaching.

At the same time, when it comes to the uses of technological tools in education, the results of the research conducted by Dubovicki and Balen (2018) demonstrate that students “show a *greater motivation* for a course if the contents were presented with the help of new technologies” and “*greater satisfaction* with the teaching” (Dubovicki & Balen, 2018, p. 168). Moreover, Maksimović et al. (2020, p. 74) consider that the innovations in teaching practices are a direct result of technological development, but lose their pedagogical purpose if teachers are not equipped with the digital skills necessary for teaching.

Furthermore, during the last ten years, there has been an increased interest in the application of digital storytelling in teaching and in the positive outcomes of its application (Wu & Chen, 2020). Digital storytelling in teaching has been shown to boost, inter alia, pupils’ self-confidence (Hung et al., 2012) and affective motivation to learn (Sadik, 2008; Hung et al., 2012); teamwork, social skills, communication skills (Ribeiro, 2016; Lin et al., 2013); critical and creative thinking (Yang & Wu, 2012); as well as language skills, story structuring and multimodal expression skills (Liu et al., 2018).

Therefore, if we consider the fact that flow ultimately leads to more effective learning and more motivated pupils, just as the creation of digital artifacts in teaching encourages the pupils’ creativity, critical thinking, use and awareness of semiotic means (Lim & Toh, 2020), exploring the relationship between flow and the pupils’ creation of their own digital works in foreign language teaching is considered an important topic. During the teaching activity covered by the research, pupils created multimodal texts using written and spoken language, drawings, sound, environmental objects, etc., and then processed the content in the Stop Motion Studio digital tool. This was a way to intentionally move away from the “traditional” forms of oral and written expression in language teaching and verify whether the pupils’ flow occurs during the moments when they are creating their own digital text.

The next chapter presents the concept of flow and its research in foreign language teaching, and offers an overview of fundamental research and its results on the use of digital storytelling in teaching. The third chapter presents the methodology and research steps, while the fourth chapter presents the analysis and discussion of the results. The last part of the paper presents final remarks.

2 Theoretical framework

Flow – a prerequisite for optimal learning

Flow is considered one of the optimal states of internal experience in which a person's attention is devoted to the current activity to such an extent that the person feels that they are "immersed in the activity itself" (Križanić, 2015, p. 325). The concept was introduced by Csíkszentmihályi (1990, 1994, 1997), describing it as an experience characterized by intense focus and involvement, which leads to optimal learning, which in turn can lead to improved skill employed in a task. Nakamura and Csíkszentmihályi (2009) define nine components of flow:

- an individual's balance between skill and challenge in accomplishing a specific task,
- a clear goal,
- unequivocal feedback,
- merging of activity and awareness thereof,
- complete concentration,
- a sense of control,
- perception of the faster passage of time,
- lack of self-awareness, and
- intrinsically motivating activity.

All previous research has shown that the balance of skills and challenges is one of the key predictors of flow, together with clear goals and a sense of control (Križanić, 2015).

Flow can be considered an extremely useful tool in education due to the tendency of pupils to repeatedly perform activities in which they experience flow that results "from high challenge combined with high skill" (Shernoff & Csíkszentmihályi, 2009, p. 132). That is, this tool can contribute to increasing motivation and other positive emotions, and, indirectly, to the development of skills. One of the first studies of flow in foreign language teaching (Egbert, 2003) showed that activities interesting to pupils, with a clear purpose and goals, in which the emphasis is on meaning instead of language, and for which they are provided enough time and receive clear feedback, contribute to the occurrence of flow. For example, it has been shown that flow is enhanced by interaction with a native speaker, i.e., authentic and meaningful communication, as well as the application of new tools and activities instead of routine ones. Such activities seem to cause satisfaction, boost motivation, contribute to an increase in time spent on the task, and increase risk readiness, which in turn can lead to changes in the pupils' foreign language skills. Ultimately, the research pointed to a two-way relationship between flow and skill: the balance between challenge and skill can lead to flow, which may result in improved performance. On the other hand, Egbert (2003) stated that there are also factors that make it difficult to achieve a state of flow, namely: low-level foreign language skills, teacher-oriented teaching methods, and lack of feedback.

Building on previous research, a study conducted by Czimmermann and Piniel (2016) confirmed that the prerequisites for flow are sufficiently motivating tasks that are difficult but feasible, and ample time for pupils to perform them independently,

without the teacher's interference. Therefore, an effective teacher should be aware of the level of their pupils' skill and continuously provide them with clear and sufficiently challenging tasks that they will be able to perform independently, with minimal support from the teacher. Research conducted by Rubio (2011) among pupils of Spanish as a foreign language indicated a higher probability of occurrence of flow in groupwork activities. With regard to groupwork, Ibrahim and Al-Hoorie (2019) recently proposed the notion of a continuous common connection that occurs "when groupwork is coupled with flow over a period of time, potentially making learning both effective and highly enjoyable" (p. 52). In this context, it is also interesting to note that the findings of research outside the framework of foreign language teaching show a high frequency of the flow between teachers and pupils "intersecting". The teachers stated that the high engagement of their pupils induced their own flow, while pupils often reported that their flow was caused by the flow of their teachers (cf. Basom & Frase, 2004; Bakker, 2005). In a study conducted by Dewaele and MacIntyre (2022) with 232 learners of Spanish as a foreign language from around the world, it was found that the proportion of time in the state of flow was positively associated with a higher degree of multilingualism, a high relative position in the group, age, and the number of years of learning a foreign language. Dewaele and MacIntyre (2022) also compared the proportion of time spent in a state of flow among learners of English as a foreign language and those learning non-English foreign languages. Pupils from the second group reported that they spent a significantly higher proportion of time in a state of flow than the first group, which was interpreted as evidence of stronger emotional engagement in classes of non-English foreign languages where pupils often already spoke English. At the same time, Dewaele et al. (2022) came to a very interesting and currently relevant finding regarding foreign language teaching, wherein the flow experienced in in-person classes lasted longer than in those taking place in a digital environment. Finally, summarizing recent research in foreign language teaching, Dewaele et al. (2022) state that the occurrence of flow in foreign language teaching is gradual and increases as pupils become more advanced and skilled, and that it has positive long-term effects on motivation.

New media storytelling

New media storytelling or digital storytelling (hereinafter "DS") is a personal digital narrative in the form of a short film created by amateurs, often containing personal and emotional elements (Castañeda, 2013a). These are clips or vignettes (Rossiter and Garcia, 2010) edited using a digital tool. At least two of the following modes are most commonly represented in DS: written text, oral narration, graphic elements, photographs, video and music (Robin, 2006; Rossiter & Garcia, 2010; Ohler, 2006).

Furthermore, educational digital storytelling (hereinafter "EDS"), according to Wu and Chen (2020) is a technology-aided approach to learning that is meant to develop the pupils', the students' (Ohler, 2006; Wu & Chen, 2020; Robin, 2006), and the teachers' (Simsek, 2020) contemporary (digital) literacy while they are designing, creating and presenting their digital story. Skills acquired by creating their own artifacts using EDS include writing and expression skills; research, organizational, presentation, interpersonal, digital skills (Ohler, 2006; Robin, 2006; Chan et al., 2017); creative and

practical skills (Simsek, 2020); as well as visual and multimodal literacy (Liu et al., 2018). The development of joint group creativity and cooperation is also extremely important (Schmoelz, 2018), encouraging also the development of awareness of oneself and other social groups (Benmayor, 2008). In addition to the aforementioned characteristics, Rossiter and Garcia (2010) indicate that DS also fosters so-called autobiographical learning, i.e., self-direction and self-authorship. These are practices in which students express their own identities, and recount and evoke their own lives (especially in personal narratives).

EDS research in the context of foreign language learning has also been on the rise in recent years (cf. Castañeda, 2013b; Kim & Lee, 2017; Rahimi & Yadollahy, 2017; Tsigani & Nikolakopoulou, 2018; Mirza, 2020; Sauro et al., 2020; Reyes Torres et al., 2012, and others). Many authors emphasize the importance of applying DS in foreign language teaching (Gregori Signes, 2008), the need for further research on the results and outcomes of this method in teaching (Barrett, 2005), as well as the necessity of introducing technology and digital tools in curricula (Sadik, 2008), and training on the use of EDS for (future) foreign language teachers (Mirza, 2020). The latter aspect is especially important in the context of teacher education. Blažič and Rončević (2009, p. 154, 155) point out the negative side of the use of new technologies in teaching if the teacher has not developed professional competences related to the didactic criteria for using multimedia in teaching. In other words, as Florjančič and Koselj (2017, p. 95) emphasize, we need digitally literate teachers, since the development of pupils' digital skills starts in primary school.

Furthermore, Kim and Lee (2017) highlight the development of language and narrative skills as one of the fundamental outcomes of using EDS. By using EDS, we practice oral and written expression, text structuring, and learn about the characteristics of the genre (Liu et al., 2014). What is more, if our goal is to encourage the aforementioned skills in pupils and students, Ohler (2006) and Tsigani and Nikolakopoulou (2018) emphasize that, within the framework of EDS, we should first focus on creating a story (writing and pronunciation skills, text structure), and only afterwards on the media and technology, since technology itself does not guarantee a good digital story (Tsigani & Nikolakopoulou, 2018, p. 71).

In her research, Castañeda (2013b) points out that, at the start of the implementation of DS activities, pupils were concerned about grammar and the use of technology, but later showed that they could master the phase of drafting the story and processing the recording, and that they were able to create "a compelling, emotional and in-depth story" (Castañeda, 2013b, p. 56). Furthermore, given that storytelling in teaching boosts pupils' self-confidence (Hung et al., 2012), Ohler (2006, p. 2) points out that it gives voice to less active and quieter students and those who do not fit the usual academic mould. In researching DS as a tool for designing a didactic unit, Castañeda (2013a) also concludes that EDS draws the attention of pupils possessing different learning styles and promotes groupwork and a sense of achievement.

Therefore, a review of the research shows that, by using EDS, pupils and students develop a number of skills necessary for the development of modern multiliteracy (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000, 2015). At the same time, some research conducted in non-foreign language teaching (Andersen, 2005) has shown that pupils are more likely to experience flow when teachers apply innovative pupil-oriented techniques. In this regard,

it has also been shown that there is a greater presence of flow in foreign language teaching during teaching activities conducted in a digital environment (see Trevino & Webster, 1992; Ghani & Deshpande, 1994). In light thereof, the aforementioned findings have encouraged us to explore flow in French language classes using the DS teaching method.

3 Research methodology

This paper explores flow in classes of French as a foreign language when creating a multimodal text using a digital tool in a group. Moreover, we are also interested in whether there are differences in the experience of flow with regard to individual pupil characteristics.

A review of flow research in applied linguistics showed that questionnaires and interviews are prevalent, with qualitative and quantitative approaches being used in equal measure (Almetev, 2018). The data are mainly collected on the basis of an individual's experiential memory shortly after completing the task or using devices, reminding participants during the activity to complete a questionnaire that examines their current psychological state (experience sampling method). Csíkszentmihályi (1992) and Jackson and Marsh (1996) believe that the use of solely quantitative instruments, such as questionnaires and scales, is not sufficient to measure flow, nor can the participants' memory be used as sufficient evidence to determine the presence of flow; therefore, this research involved two questionnaires and an interview.

The first questionnaire was prepared for the purposes of this research. Prior to the start of the main part of the research, this questionnaire collected basic demographic data and specific data on pupils related to research questions, such as previous educational and language experiences, and personal interests. The second questionnaire collected pupil impressions related to the flow experienced during the activity. A customized and translated standardized questionnaire used in previous studies of infatuation in foreign language learning (Egbert, 2003; Almetev, 2018) was used, with a 7-point Likert-type assessment scale in which respondents assessed the measure or frequency in which the research aspects applied to them personally. This questionnaire was completed online during the activities at the solicitation of the teacher. Upon completion of the activity, a semi-structured interview was conducted with the French teacher, obtaining qualitative data related to her experience of pupil involvement in the activity. Finally, some of the materials produced by the pupils during the activity enabled us to better understand the activities and their commitment thereto.

The data were collected during the 2022/2023 school year in two grammar schools, i.e., "II. gimnazija" in Osijek and "Gimnazija A. G. Matoša" in Đakovo, in which French is taught as a first, second and third foreign language. A total of 51 French language pupils, 11 boys and 40 girls, participated in the research, of whom a total of 10 pupils were in the 1st grade of secondary school, 9 pupils in the 3rd grade of secondary school and 32 pupils in the 4th grade of secondary school. A total of 39 students assessed their level of French language proficiency to be at the A1 level, 17 students at the A2 level and 8 students at the B1 level. Most students, namely 32 of them, had been learning French

because they had no other choice; 27 had been learning it for various affective reasons; only 5 students cited practical reasons as an incentive to learn French. Participation was completely anonymous and voluntary.

The analysis included the procedures normally used in research of this type, namely: basic mathematical and statistical procedures of descriptive statistics in order to clearly summarize and present the data, followed by the method of calculating the statistical significance of differences by a t-test between different groups of respondents and the Pearson correlation coefficient. The quantitative processing of the collected data was performed using JASP, a statistical data processing program. Qualitative data analysis involved a simultaneous analysis of data from all sources individually for each participant.

The teaching activity involved the creation of an animation closely related to the teaching content, and the students used a simple tool – Stop Motion Studio – to create a stop-motion video. Stop motion is a technique of making videos where objects/things are manually operated, and subsequently photographed and merged (or edited) into shorter sequences. Merging photos into video gives the impression that objects are moving around the space. Video quality is considered higher if objects move in smaller increments and if there are more photos (scenes) in the video as this achieves motion flow on video. Two examples of screenshots of the pupils’ works are shown below in Examples 1 and 2.

Example 1

Le journée fatiguée de Marie



Example 2

Je m'appelle Eugéné



The topics covered by the pupils in their works were related to the regular teaching content in each class, and covered the following thematic areas: daily routine, “My Life”, description of a city/town, and travelling. The working groups varied in number,

from three to four pupils, and their digital works were made during two school periods (some of the groups completed their work at home). They used items from their environment to create videos, creatively stacked and cut them, made different shapes, drew and wrote on paper, and used digital drawing and writing tools.

4 Results and discussion

In order to formulate more precise hypotheses, it seemed important to obtain information regarding the self-assessments of students with respect to the following variables: the skill of shaping texts in French, interest in participating in groupwork, digital literacy and creativity (see Table 1).

Table 1

Pupils' Self-Assessments regarding the Skill of Text Formatting in French Language Classes, Interest in Participating in Groupwork, Digital Literacy and Creativity

	<i>Text formatting skill</i>	<i>Interest in groupwork</i>	<i>Digital literacy</i>	<i>Creativity</i>
M	2.529	3	4.039	3.765

We also wanted to verify the connection between the experience of flow and the following individual characteristics: the level of proficiency in French, the reason for learning French, hobbies, and preferred forms of work in French language classes. Based on the results of the first questionnaire, as well as previous research on flow and digital storytelling in foreign language teaching, we have formed the following hypotheses:

- The experience of flow will be present in French language classes when creating multimodal texts in a group;
- More skilled pupils will experience greater flow than less skilled pupils;
- Pupils more intrinsically motivated to learn French will experience greater flow than less intrinsically motivated pupils;
- More creative pupils will experience greater flow than less creative pupils;
- More digitally literate pupils will experience greater flow than less digitally literate pupils;
- Pupils with greater interest in groupwork will experience greater flow than pupils with less interest in groupwork;
- Pupils who prefer working in a digital environment during foreign language classes will experience greater flow than other pupils;
- Pupils with hobbies in the digital environment will experience greater flow than other pupils.

The second questionnaire, filled in during the performance of the activity, showed that the mean value of the experience of flow during the preparation of the multimodal text was $M = 4.451$. Considering that the pupils' flow was measured on a 7-point assess-

ment scale, it can be concluded that pupils did experience flow in French classes. This can also be supported by the teacher’s own words:

- T: “You could see that they were carried away ... you could just tell that they were focused, you could see the pleasure ... they were present ... in the moment.”
- T: “Intrinsic motivation was clearly visible; it was evident that when they started, they did not feel like doing it, but once they got going, they could not stop.”

We were also interested in individual values of the questionnaire items that measured flow in the classes during which students formed a multimodal text (see Table 2).

Table 2

Individual Values of Questionnaire Items that Measured Flow in the Classes during Which Students Formed a Multimodal Text

<i>Item</i>	<i>Curiosity</i>	<i>Interest</i>	<i>Immersion</i>	<i>Excitement</i>	<i>Entertainment</i>
M	4.275	4.784	4.353	4.471	4.882

<i>Item</i>	<i>Control</i>	<i>Absorption</i>	<i>Autonomy</i>	<i>Imagination</i>
M	4.059	4.157	5.549	4.706

The item “autonomy” stands out, having been formulated in the following manner in the questionnaire: “During this activity, I make decisions about what I will draw, say and write.” Such a high result corresponds to the results of previous research of flow (cf. Keller & Landhäußer, 2012). In order to achieve a sense of flow, it is crucial, among other things, to offer pupils sufficiently challenging tasks that they will be able to perform independently with minimal support from the teacher, which the teacher confirmed in the interview:

- I: “How much did you support the pupils during the activity?”
- T: “I went around, answered questions, observed ... I didn’t interfere too much, it wasn’t too hard.”

Our hypothesis that more skilled pupils would experience greater flow than less skilled pupils has not proved to be correct. In fact, there was no statistically significant difference in the overall result of flow between beginners and continuers. However, the results show that beginner learners found this activity significantly more exciting than continuer learners (see Table 3). In that regard, we would like to emphasize that we have defined skill not only as the level of mastery of communicative language competence that depends on the pupil’s age, i.e., the class they attend (1st grade of secondary school vs. 3rd and 4th grade of secondary school), but we have also considered the differences within individual grades and the differences between all participants based on the self-assessment of communicative language competence.

Table 3*Differences According to Language Skill*

<i>Item</i>	<i>Language skill</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
The activity is exciting	Beginners	22	4.500	2.241	0.096	.924
	Continuers	29	4.448	1.594		

It is clear that these results do not support most of the results of the research to date, according to which more skilled pupils are more likely to experience a sense of flow than less skilled ones (Dewaele et al., 2022). However, such a result can be considered very encouraging, especially for the teaching of French in the Republic of Croatia, in the context of which, given the Croatian language education policy, a very small share of students has mastered B1-level communicative language competence.

Furthermore, given that it was confirmed that less skilled pupils feel the same level of flow as more skilled ones by participating in DS activities, this result can be compared with the conclusions which indicate that less active pupils and those who do not fit into the usual academic mould can stand out in such activities (Ohler, 2006), since those activities prove interesting to pupils of different learning styles (Castañeda, 2013b).

Regarding other research hypotheses related to the individual's characteristics (intrinsic motivation, creativity, digital literacy, hobbies in the digital environment, preference of working in the digital environment), none proved statistically significant. This result was confirmed by their teacher in the interview:

- I: "Did you perhaps notice any difference between the pupils with regard to their level of French or some other characteristic, for example, age, or their interests?"
- T: "No, it has nothing to do with age, or skill ... In Đakovo, they were more excited, more curious about the research ... they found it more interesting and rousing ... they were more interested in doing animation than a typical activity. It is different from person to person ... some enjoy expressing themselves while others find it a drag. Also, they often don't perceive anything as new, because, to them, everything has become commonplace."

From a pedagogical perspective, such a result can be considered very positive because it indicates with certainty that the individual's characteristics are not the only thing that prevents the occurrence of the experience of flow, but that environmental factors also play a part, which teachers can manage in most cases. In this regard, it is interesting that this research revealed only one statistically significant correlation. It has been shown that the pupils who prefer working in a group experienced a stronger sense of flow when shaping a multimodal text in a group than those who do not prefer such a form of classwork (see Table 4).

Table 4

Pearson Correlation Coefficient between the Feeling of Flow and Interest in Groupwork

		r	p
Flow – total	Groupwork – interest	0.400**	0.004

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

This result confirms that, by choosing appropriate teaching techniques and approaches tailored to particular pupil groups, the teacher can contribute to the occurrence of the experience of flow. The teacher also confirmed that working in a group can have an impact on the occurrence of the experience of flow:

- I: “Do you think their involvement was influenced by the fact that they participated in groupwork? Or was that a disruptive factor?”
- T: “It depends on the group; some were not that happy to be together, so I let them switch groups so that they were content... other than that, it seems to me that the flow is more frequent within a group ... ideas roll in ... from one idea to the next.”

Therefore, it has been demonstrated that working in a group contributes to the feeling of flow in pupils who prefer groupwork; however, the teacher’s reply also shows that the groupwork does not contribute to the occurrence of the experience of flow itself, nor is it an exclusive factor, but rather, the composition of the members of the group is key. Finally, it is worth mentioning that, in the questionnaire distributed before the activity, the pupils assessed their interest in working in a group and their creativity with a medium score (see Table 1). However, during the implementation of the activities, they assessed the instigation of autonomy and imagination with a high score. Considering that the pupils worked in a group, this also lends itself to the conclusion that this form of work stimulated the pupils’ autonomy. Likewise, although creativity is considered a skill, it requires imagination. Given that the activity greatly stimulated the pupils’ imagination, it is also possible to confirm that DS encourages the pupils’ creative practices.

5 Conclusion

The aim of this research was to examine the presence of flow in the classes of French as a foreign language using the teaching method of digital storytelling, during which pupils, divided into groups, designed and shaped their own multimodal digital works. It has been shown that pupils did experience flow in classwork based on the design of a multimodal text using a digital tool in a group. Moreover, we were also interested in whether there are differences in the experience of flow with regard to the characteristics of an individual pupil. The results show that none of the research hypotheses related to the relationship between the individual’s personal and educational characteristics (intrinsic motivation, creativity, digital literacy, hobbies in the digital environment, preference to work in the digital environment) and the experience of flow proved statistically significant. For example, our hypothesis that more skilled pupils

would experience greater flow than less skilled ones did not prove true regardless of the way we defined skill. However, it has been shown that the pupils who preferred working in a group experienced a stronger sense of flow when shaping a multimodal text in a group than those who did not prefer such a form of classwork. This result confirms that, although flow is an individual experience, it is largely dependent on environmental factors. Furthermore, there was another interesting finding where pupils expressed a medium-level interest in groupwork through self-assessment, while during the implementation of activities in groups they assessed their own autonomy with a high score, which shows that working in a group using DS fosters their autonomy. Likewise, they gave a high score to DS arousing their imagination, as opposed to the medium score by which they assessed their own creativity prior to performing the activity, which is another positive indicator of the use of this method in teaching.

Finally, one of the key prerequisites for achieving flow by using digital tools in foreign language classes, attended by pupils with different levels of communicative language competence, is that the tasks are not too difficult, but challenging enough for the pupils. Digital storytelling not “only” encourages practising the use of digital tools, but also written and oral expression, text structuring and presentation, among other important aspects outlined in the theory chapter. Digital practices, both the consumption of other people’s and the creation of one’s own texts, are still mostly represented in the pupils’ extracurricular activities (private life). Therefore, if we include digital practices in the teaching practice (i.e., in the curricula) and accept them as methods equal to other, “traditional” teaching methods, it is believed that we will attract greater attention and interest of pupils in learning. At the same time, pupils will be provided with critical and multimodal approaches to digital technologies and texts, and will be encouraged to be aware of the use of semiotic means and the meanings created by different texts (cf. Lim & Toh, 2020). However, above all, it is important for teachers to familiarize themselves with modern teaching methods and e-tools (Müller & Svalina, 2020, p. 174). To facilitate this, it is necessary to develop a metalanguage and to offer teachers and teacher trainees frequent training that will allow them to learn about these new methods and digital tools in the (foreign language) classroom.

The findings of this research were bound by several methodological limitations. Firstly, the possibility of generalizing the findings of this study is limited, given the size and selection of the sample. In this regard, future studies could take into account other participant samples, more representative samples of secondary and primary school pupils, as well as pupils studying other foreign languages. In addition, it is important to point out that the teacher in whose classes this research was conducted is otherwise exemplary in her application of modern approaches to the organization of classes, which also include digital tools. As pointed out previously in the text, given that previous research has revealed an “intersecting” flow between teachers and pupils, it is possible that the results were also influenced by the teacher’s characteristics. Furthermore, since some psychology research indicates that individuals with a high level of autonomy, an internal locus of control, and a focus on action are more likely to experience flow (see Keller & Landhäußer, 2012), it should be taken into account that this research has not verified the links of the experience of flow with personality traits, and it would be interesting to explore these aspects in future research. Lastly, is it possible for all pupils

to achieve flow and what could be done in the case of those who do not experience it during a DS activity?

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Vživetost in digitalno pripovedovanje zgodb pri poučevanju francoščine kot tujega jezika

Prispevek raziskuje učno metodo digitalnega pripovedovanja zgodb in njen vpliv na možnost pojava vživetosti (ang. flow) pri učencih med poukom francoščine kot tujega jezika. Temeljne predpostavke raziskave so, da bodo učenci z uporabo digitalnega pripovedovanja zgodb doživeli vživetost, kakor tudi, da se bodo razlike v doživljanju vživetosti pokazale glede na posameznikove osebnostne značilnosti. Med izvajanjem pedagoške dejavnosti na dveh gimnazijah so dijaki ustvarjali multimodalna besedila s pomočjo pisnega in govornega jezika, risb, zvoka, predmetov iz okolja itd., nato so vsebino obdelali z digitalnim orodjem Stop Motion Studio ter jo potem zmontirali v krajše video sekvence. S to tehniko smo se skušali odmakniti od "tradicionalnih" oblik ustnega in pisnega izražanja pri jezikovnem pouku in preveriti, ali se pri učencih med ustvarjanjem lastnega digitalnega besedila pojavlja vživetost.

Koncept vživetosti velja za eno izmed optimalnih stanj notranjega doživljanja, v katerem človek svojo pozornost posveča trenutni dejavnosti tako zelo, da se mu zdi, da je vanjo "potopljen". Če v skladu s prejšnjimi raziskavami (Egbert, 2003; Dewaele in MacIntyre, 2022) domnevamo, da je izkušnja vživetosti optimalno stanje za učenje, potem je smiselno raziskovati temo boljšega razumevanja posameznikovih in okoljskih dejavnikov, ki so povezani z doživljanjem vživetosti tako v znanstvenem kot v praktičnem smislu, še posebej na Hrvaškem, kjer ne beležimo raziskav, ki bi proučevale ta psihološki konstrukt pri poučevanju tujih jezikov. Ena izmed prvih študij vživetosti pri pouku tujih jezikov (Egbert, 2003) je pokazala, da pojavi vživetosti prispevajo k dejavnostim z jasnim namenom in cilji, ki učence zanimajo in pri katerih je poudarek na pomenu, ne pa na jeziku. Obenem pa imajo za te dejavnosti na voljo dovolj časa in o njih prejemajo jasne povratne informacije. Pokazalo se je na primer, da k vživetosti prispeva interakcija z naravnim govorcem, torej pristna in smiselna komunikacija ter uporaba novih orodij in dejavnosti namesto rutinskih dejavnosti. V povzetku pregleda najnovejših raziskav o pouku tujih jezikov Dewaele idr. (2022) navajajo, da se vživetost pri pouku tujih jezikov pojavlja postopoma in narašča, ko učenci napredujejo in postajajo bolj vešč, ter da ima pozitivne dolgoročne učinke na motivacijo.

Hkrati se v zadnjih desetih letih povečuje zanimanje za uporabo digitalnega pripovedovanja pri pouku (v nadaljevanju DPP ali DP) (Wu in Chen, 2020). Med drugim rezultati kažejo, da digitalno pripovedovanje pri pouku povečuje samozavest učencev (Hung idr., 2012) in afektivno motivacijo za učenje (Sadik, 2008; Hung idr., 2012), delo v skupini, socialne veščine, komunikacijske veščine (Ribeiro, 2016; Lin idr., 2013), kritično in ustvarjalno mišljenje (Yang in Wu, 2012), kot tudi jezikovne veščine, strukturiranje zgodbe in večmodalne veščine izražanja (Liu et al., 2018). Tudi Stanković in Blažič (2017) navajata, da je na ta način pri pouku mogoče izpostaviti manj aktivne in tihe študente ter

tiste, ki se ne vključujejo v običajne akademske prakse. Tudi Castañeda (2013) pri raziskovanju DP kot orodja za oblikovanje didaktične enote ugotavlja, da DP pritegne pozornost učencev z različnimi učnimi stili, spodbuja skupinsko delo in občutek dosežka. Zato številni avtorji poudarjajo pomen uporabe DP pri pouku tujih jezikov (Gregori Signes, 2008), potrebo po nadaljnjem raziskovanju izidov te metode (Barrett, 2005) ter nujnost uvajanja tehnologij in digitalnih orodij v pouk tujih jezikov in učne načrte (Sadik, 2008).

V tej raziskavi smo uporabili dva vprašalnika in intervju z učiteljico. Prvi vprašalnik smo sestavili za namene te raziskave. Pred začetkom glavnega dela raziskave smo s tem vprašalnikom zbrali osnovne demografske in specifične podatke o dijakih, ki so pomembni za raziskovalna vprašanja, kot so na primer prejšnje izobraževalne in jezikovne izkušnje ter osebni interesi. Z drugim vprašalnikom smo zbrali izkušnje dijakov, povezane z njihovim doživljanjem živjetosti med izvajanjem dejavnosti DP-ja. Prevedli in prilagodili smo standardiziran vprašalnik iz predhodnih raziskav živjetosti pri učenju tujega jezika (Egbert, 2003; Almetev, 2018) s 7-stopenjsko ocenjevalno lestvico Likertovega tipa, na kateri so anketiranci ocenjevali, v kakšnem obsegu ali kako pogosto so raziskovani vidiki veljali za njih osebno. Ta vprašalnik so dijaki na pobudo učiteljice reševali online med dejavnostjo. Po zaključku dejavnosti smo s polstrukturiranim intervjujem z učiteljico francoščine pridobili kvalitativne podatke o njeni izkušnji vključevanja dijakov v dejavnost.

Podatki so bili zbrani v šolskem letu 2022/2023 v II. Gimnaziji Osijek in Gimnaziji AG Matoš Đakovo, kjer se francoščina poučuje kot prvi, drugi ali tretji tuji jezik. V raziskavi je sodelovalo 51 učencev francoskega jezika (11 dijakov in 40 dijakinj), od tega skupaj 10 dijakov 1. letnika, 9 dijakov 3. letnika in 32 dijakov 4. letnika gimnazije. Svojo stopnjo obvladovanja francoskega jezika je na ravni A1 ocenilo 39 dijakov, na ravni A2 17 dijakov in na ravni B1 8 dijakov. Prvi vprašalnik je pokazal, da se večina dijakov, 32, uči francoščine, ker nimajo druge izbire, 27 se jih uči francoščine iz različnih afektivnih razlogov in le 5 učencev je kot spodbudo za učenje francoščine navedlo utilitarne razloge.

Postopek analize je vključeval osnovne matematično-statistične postopke deskriptivne statistike za povzemanje in pregledno prikazovanje podatkov, metodo izračuna statistične pomembnosti razlik med različnimi skupinami anketirancev s t-testom in Pearsonov koeficient korelacije. Za kvantitativno obdelavo zbranih podatkov smo uporabili JASP in program za statistično obdelavo podatkov. Kvalitativna analiza podatkov je vključevala simultano analizo podatkov iz vseh virov, za vsakega udeleženca posebej.

Za oblikovanje natančnejših predpostavk se je zdelo pomembno vedeti, kako se dijaki samoocenjujejo zaradi naslednjih spremenljivk: raven znanja francoskega jezika, razlog za učenje francoskega jezika, večšina oblikovanja besedil v francoskem jeziku, zanimanje za skupinsko delo, digitalna pismenost in ustvarjalnost, konjički ter naklonjenost oblikam dela pri pouku francoskega jezika. Na podlagi rezultatov, pridobljenih s prvim vprašalnikom, pa tudi na podlagi predhodnih raziskav o živjetosti in digitalnem pripovedovanju zgodb pri pouku tujega jezika, smo oblikovali dve glavni predpostavki:

- izkušnja živjetosti bo prisotna pri pouku francoskega jezika med ustvarjanjem multimodalnih besedil v skupini; in
- osebnostne in izobrazbene značilnosti bodo vplivale na pojav živjetosti (kot so raven znanja, motivacija, ustvarjalnost, digitalna pismenost, naklonjenost skupinskemu delu itd.).

Drugi vprašalnik, ki smo ga uporabili med izvajanjem dejavnosti, je pokazal, da je bila povprečna vrednost izkušnje vživetosti pri nastajanju multimodalnega besedila $M = 4,451$. Glede na to, da so dijaki vživetost merili na 7-stopenjski ocenjevalni lestvici, lahko sklepamo, da so dijaki pri pouku francoskega jezika izkusili vživetost. Zanimale so nas tudi posamezne vrednosti okenc iz vprašalnika, s katerim so merili vživetost pri učni uri, pri kateri so učenci ustvarjali večmodalno besedilo (glej tabelo 2). Izstopa okence "avtonomnost", ki se v vprašalniku glasi: Pri tej dejavnosti se odločam, kaj bom narisal, rekel in napisal. Tako visok rezultat ustreza prejšnjim rezultatom raziskav o vživetosti (Keller in Landhäußer, 2012). Za doseganje občutka vživetosti je namreč med drugim ključno, da učencem ponudimo dovolj zahtevne naloge, ki jih bodo ob minimalni podpori učitelja lahko opravili samostojno.

Naša domneva, da bodo bolj vešč učenci doživeli večjo vživetost kot manj vešč, se je izkazala za napačno. Med začetniki in tistimi na nadaljevalnih stopnjah namreč ni bilo statistično pomembne razlike v skupnem rezultatu vživetosti. Iz tega sledi, da naši rezultati ne podpirajo večine rezultatov prejšnjih raziskav, po katerih bolj vešč učenci pogosteje doživljajo občutek vživetosti kot manj vešč (Dewaele idr., 2022). Vendar pa naši rezultati kažejo, da se je učencem začetnikom ta dejavnost zdela bistveno bolj vznemirljiva kot učencem na višjih stopnjah (glej tabelo 3). Nobena izmed raziskovalnih predpostavk, povezanih z lastnostmi posameznika (notranja motivacija, ustvarjalnost, digitalna pismenost, konjički v digitalnem okolju, naklonjenost delu v digitalnem okolju), se ni izkazala za statistično pomembno. S pedagoškega vidika lahko takšen rezultat jemljemo kot zelo spodbuden, saj kaže, da pojava izkušnje vživetosti ne preprečujejo le lastnosti posameznika, ampak gotovo tudi okoljski dejavniki, ki jih lahko učitelj pogosteje obvlada. V povezavi s tem je bila v raziskavi ugotovljena le ena statistično pomembna korelacija. Izkazalo se je namreč, da so tisti učenci, ki jim je ljubše skupinsko delo, občutili močnejši občutek vživetosti pri ustvarjanju večmodalnega besedila v skupini kot tisti, ki jim je taka učna oblika dela manj ljuba (glej tabelo 4). Takšna ugotovitev potrjuje, da lahko učitelj z izbiro ustreznih učnih tehnik in pristopov, prilagojenih posamezni skupini učencev, prispeva k izkušnji vživetosti. Nenazadnje lahko glede na to, da smo dobili potrditev, da pri sodelovanju v dejavnostih DP manj vešč učenci čutijo enako vživetost kot bolj vešč učenci, ta rezultat povežemo z zaključki, da se lahko v takih dejavnostih izkažejo manj aktivni učenci in tisti, ki se ne vključujejo v običajne akademske prakse (Ohler, 2006), ker se je dejavnost izkazala zanimiva za učence z različnimi učnimi stili (Castañeda, 2013b).

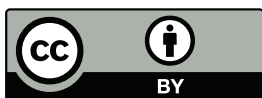
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Študija motivacije srednješolcev in prepričanj učiteljev o motivaciji

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KLJUČNE BESEDE: učna motivacija, notranja motivacija, zunanja motivacija, motivacijski dejavniki, samopodoba

POVZETEK – Izvedena študija se osredotoča na problem učne motivacije med učenci srednjih šol in jo primerja s prepričanji učiteljev o tem, kaj motivira učence. Hkrati preučuje povezave med dejavniki učne motivacije in samopodobo glede izgovorjave ter učne motivacije. Kot del obsežnejše raziskave ta drobec izbrane teme ponuja vpogled v povezavo med motivacijo, učno motivacijo, samopodobo motivacije in prepričanji učiteljev o motivaciji učencev. Omenjeni motivacijski dejavniki so razdeljeni na zunanje in notranje dejavnike. Izkaže se, da so učitelji našli enake ali podobne motivacijske dejavnike kot učenci, kar kaže na odsotnost vrzeli v dojemanju tega, kaj motivira. Učitelji natančno vedo, zakaj se učenci učijo. Edina odstopanja so v tem, da učitelji verjamejo, da je motivacija, ki je pridobljena z ocenami, bolj prisotna, kot v resnici je.

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KEYWORDS: learning motivation, internal motivation, external motivation, motivational factors, self-perception

ABSTRACT – The conducted study focuses on the problem of learning motivation among middle school students and compares it with teachers' beliefs about what motivates students. Simultaneously, it examines the correlations between these learning motivation factors and the self-perception of pronunciation and learning motivation. As part of a larger investigation, this fragment of the selected topic provides insights into the correlation between motivation, learning motivation, self-perception of motivation, and teachers' beliefs about student motivation. The mentioned motivational factors are divided into external and internal factors. It turns out that teachers listed the same or similar motivational reasons as the learners, indicating no gap in the perception of what motivates them. Teachers are aware of exactly why students learn. The only deviation was that teachers believe motivation through grades is more prevalent than it actually is.

1 Uvod

Predstavljena analiza in opis izvedene raziskave skušata najti korelacijo med učno motivacijo srednješolcev in dojemanjem učiteljev o učni motivaciji, in sicer z osrednjim vprašanjem: "Ali imajo učitelji in učenci enako predstavo o tem, kaj učence motivira?" Izvedena je bila kvantitativna in kvalitativna analiza v obliki ankete in intervjujev na srednjih šolah v severovzhodni Sloveniji, rezultate ankete pa smo primerjali z odgovori učiteljev v intervjujih, da bi ugotovili, ali obstaja povezava v dojemanju učne motivacije.

Modernejši življenjski elementi, kot so mediji, multikulturalnost, jezikovna raznolikost in zgoščevanje prebivalstva, vplivajo ne le na življenjski slog ljudi, temveč tudi na razvoj učencev. Večplastna zgoščenost obšolskih obveznosti in s tem povezane življenjske odločitve dijake bremenijo. V tem okviru je pomembno natančno razumeti motivacijo, da se dijakom olajša in optimizira usmeritve v življenju.

2 Metodologija

Kompleksen pojem motivacija opredeljujemo na več ravneh in v kontekstu specifičnih področij, kar otežuje kratko povzemanje ekonomične definicije. Osnovna funkcija, na katero se sklicujemo, je:

“Motivacija je zagon, ki daje vedenju namen ali smer in deluje pri ljudeh na zavestni in nezavedni ravni.” (American Psychology Assosiation).

Ta definicija je bila izbrana, ker je cilj raziskave neposredno povezan z zavestno in nezavestno motivacijo ter skuša analizirati njeno vlogo pri razvoju učne motivacije študentov. Poleg tega se z njo poskuša razložiti tudi pojma intrinzična in ekstrinzična motivacija ter komentirati motivacijo samo s perspektive učitelja in učenca.

Pri tem je treba opozoriti, da motivacija vključuje več vidikov in učinkov. Motivacija lahko pomeni voljo osebe, da vloži telesne ali duševne napore v sledenje cilju ali doseganje rezultata (American Psychological Association). Ta vidik se lahko interpretira kot motivacija oziroma volja, ki jo mora dijak izraziti, da se udeleži pouka in se nauči predstavljenega gradiva. Pri tem igrajo vlogo številni dejavniki. Po eni strani lahko to vključuje oceno, ki dijaka motivira bodisi sama po sebi bodisi kot dejavnik priznavanja in statusa, ki ga ocena dijaku daje. Druga možnost je, da ta ocena prinese občutek uspeha, kar še naprej spodbuja motivacijo. Pomembno vlogo igrajo tudi odnosi s starši, učitelji in sošolci, prav tako pa tudi občutek, da je pridobljeno znanje obogatitveno, pomembno in uporabno (American Psychological Association).

Treba je narediti pomembno razliko med notranjimi silami, ki spodbujajo motivacijo, in zunanji dejavniki, kot so nagrade ali kazni, ki lahko podpirajo ali odvrčajo določeno vedenje. Zunanja motivacija je zunanji dražljaj, da se vključimo v določeno dejavnost (American Psychological Association).

Drugače povedano, zunanja motivacija je tista, ki izhaja iz pričakovanja kazni ali nagrade. Ta kazen ali nagrada prihaja iz smeri osebe z avtoriteto. V primeru dijaka so to na primer starši, ki določajo hišni red ali dajejo žepnino, ali učitelji, ki dodeljujejo dobre ali slabe ocene.

Na drugi strani je intrinzična motivacija spodbuda za sodelovanje v določeni dejavnosti, ki izhaja iz užitka same dejavnosti (American Psychological Association). Drugače povedano: iskreno zanimanje za (v tem primeru) učenje tujih jezikov, ki ni pogojeno z zunanjimi dejavniki, kot so ocene ali denar. Čeprav imata obe obliki motivacije pozitivne in negativne vidike, se intrinzično motivacijo lahko opiše kot učinkovitejšo. Prav tako lahko rečemo, da ljudje, ki delajo in so intrinzično motivirani, poročajo o večjem občutku sreče. Intrinzična motivacija se šteje za optimalno motivacijo:

“Zato morda ni presenetljivo, da je usmerjenost k obvladovanju (bolj notranje usmerjena motivacija za učenje) postavljena v ospredje kot optimalna motivacija, ki jo je podprlo več teoretikov.” (Sansone in Harackiewicz, 2000, str. 251).

Enako lahko predstavlja dejanje ali proces motivacije spodbujanje drugih, da se trudijo v smeri skupinskega ali organizacijskega cilja. Lahko je sposobnost motiviranja privržencev, kar je pomembna funkcija vodenja (American Psychological Association). Ta tipologija se lahko nanaša tudi na učitelja, saj je v razredu vodja, ki usmerja in or-

ganizira učni proces skupine ter deluje kot motivator in vodja, ki usmerja motivacijo. Hkrati je tudi vodja, ko motivacije ni, a morajo dijaki vseeno doseči rezultat.

Kar je zanimivo, je, da se lahko intrinzično motivacijo opisuje kot usmerjeno k cilju učenja ali cilju obvladovanja, medtem ko se ekstrinzično motivacijo opisuje kot usmerjeno k cilju izvedbe ali cilju rezultata. Vse bolj se kaže, da obstajajo močni argumenti za to, da se obe smeri motivacije lahko opisuje kot optimalni, saj je namen njune uporabe različen. Z vidika večciljnega pristopa:

“Namesto da bi podpirali perspektivo usmerjenosti k obvladovanju, v kateri optimalna motivacija izhaja iz izključno zasledovanja ciljev obvladovanja, naša ugotovitev močno podpira perspektivo več ciljev, v kateri lahko cilji obvladovanja in cilji dosežkov skupaj spodbujajo optimalno motivacijo.” (Sansone in Harackiewicz, 2000, str. 251).

Še ena vrsta motivacije je učna motivacija, ki je neposredno povezana z intrinzičnimi in zunanji dejavniki ter opredeljuje razvoj (v tem primeru) učenca v kognitivni, senzorični in motorični smeri. Ti dejavniki se pojavljajo v učnih situacijah, pa tudi v učnih situacijah izven šolskega okolja, na primer pri domačih nalogah ali samoiniciativni učenca (Knörzer, 1976; Krapp in Hascher, 2014).

“Pod učno motivacijo je treba razumeti pripravljenost posameznika, da senzorične, kognitivne in motorične funkcije usmeri in uskladi v učni situaciji, ki je prestrukturirana z zahtevami šole tako, da se doseže določen učni cilj.” (Knörzer 1976, str. 139).

Izpolnjevanje domačih nalog in posledično učni uspeh sta kljub temu malo verjetna brez lastne pobude, ki jo lahko opisujemo kot intrinzični motivacijski dejavnik, ali brez ekstrinzične motivacije, ki jo predstavljajo na primer starši, ocene ali izbira študija. Še en dejavnik je pozornost, ki jo učenec namenja učni snovi tako med kot tudi izven pouka (Knörzer, 1976; Liu idr., 2024). Obstajata eksperimentalno potrjeni povezavi med stopnjo pozornosti in učnim uspehom (Entwisle, 1961; Loh idr., 2023). Učenci, ki imajo višjo stopnjo pozornosti, dosegajo tudi boljše učne uspehe. Baker in Madell (1965) sta to prav tako potrdila: študenti z visokimi ocenami na fakulteti so manj zmotljivi kot tisti z nizkimi ocenami. Podobna ponovna potrditev je sledila na University of Chicago (2017).

Tudi prečna in medpredmetna perspektiva razlikuje med primarno in sekundarno motivacijo (Correll, 1961; Yeung idr., 2011). Primarna motivacija naj bi bila stanje, ko posameznik izvaja dejavnost zaradi same dejavnosti. Gre za motivacijo, ki nastane z namenom zadovoljevanja primarnih potreb:

“Prirojena potreba, ki izhaja iz bioloških procesov in vodi do fizičnega zadovoljstva, kot sta potreba po vodi in spanju.” (American Psychological Association).

Sekundarna motivacija se pojavi, ko posameznik aktivno deluje, da doseže nekaj, kar je le navzven povezano s to dejavnostjo. Gre za motivacijo, ki ne zadovoljuje primarnih potreb, ampak razvija osebne pobude:

“Sekundarna motivacija je motivacija, ki jo ustvarjajo osebni ali socialni spodbudniki namesto primarnih ali psiholoških potreb.” (American Psychological Association).

Čeprav se zdi, da se Correllova definicija in definicija Ameriške psihiatrične zveze (APA) na prvi pogled razlikujeta in analizirata različne ravni življenja, sta si vseeno

semantično podobni. Potreba po vodi ali spanju je motivacija, brez katere ne bi preživel, in jo je treba sistematično zasledovati. Podobno je treba obravnavati različne učne vsebine, ki so gradniki, brez katerih prihodnje delo ni mogoče. Prav tako predstavlja motivacijo to, da je potrebno nekaj narediti, ker mora biti narejeno, in ne zato, ker si to želimo. Sekundarna motivacija izkazuje približevanje ekstrinzični in intrinzični motivaciji, saj obe opredeljujeta osebne ali družbene pobude.

3 Postavitev hipoteze

Posledično to pomeni, da učenci ne potrebujejo le optimalne intrinzične in ekstrinzične motivacije, ampak morajo tudi usmeriti pozornost med poukom in šolskimi aktivnostmi izven pouka tako, da je čim manj motenj zaradi učnega uspeha. To je zahtevno delo, ki ga je brez strokovne pedagoške pomoči težko doseči. Zato je poudarek na motivaciji pri učiteljih, ki se morajo zavedati te kompleksnosti in voditi učni proces tako, da optimalno vključujejo in upoštevajo vse dejavnike. Pri opravljanju pedagoškega vodenja obstajajo metode, kot so npr. opravljanje domačih nalog, ki so vzročno-posledično povezane z uspešnostjo na preverjanjih znanja (Harl, 2021, str. 88), katerih se lahko učitelji poslužujejo za razvoj in promocijo učne motivacije na podlagi dobrega uspeha.

Iz tega konflikta interesov in zaznavanja, kaj in kako motivirati, sledi vprašanje: “Ali imajo učitelji in učenci različne predstave o tem, kaj motivira učence?”

Vzorec anketirancev

V okviru raziskave smo pripravili anketo, ki se nanašata na področje nemščine kot tujega jezika (DaF) in angleščine kot tujega jezika (EFL), ter ju izvedli na štirih srednjih šolah v Mariboru in okolici. Te šole so: I. gimnazija Maribor, II. gimnazija Maribor, Srednja zdravstvena in kozmetična šola Maribor ter Gimnazija Franca Miklošiča Ljutomer. Skupno smo anketirali 362 dijakov in dijakinj, ki obiskujejo pouk nemščine in angleščine kot tujih jezikov. Vsi anketirani so morali obiskovati oba predmeta, da so smeli izpolniti anketo.

Anketiranje je potekalo v dveh delih. Vsak del predstavlja samostojno anketo, eno anketo za DaF in eno za EFL. Obe anketi sta smiselno in vsebinsko enaki. Vprašanja oz. trditve (Q1, Q2, Q3 in Q4) so tematizirale učno motivacijo.

Rezultati anket

Tema vprašanj oz. trditvev je učna motivacija. Vsebinsko se podrobneje navezuje na vprašanje, kaj opredeljuje učno motivacijo anketiranih dijakov. Vprašanja oz. trditve poskušajo opredeliti razloge za učenje, kaj spodbuja učno motivacijo dijakov, ali so sploh motivirani in ali nameravajo v prihodnosti nadaljevati z učenjem tujih jezikov.

To vprašanje poskuša raziskati, kaj je primarni razlog, da se dijaki učijo tujih jezikov. Ta motivacija lahko izvira iz notranjih (intrinzičnih) ali zunanjih (ekstrinzičnih) dejavnikov. Anketirani so lahko navedli več razlogov.

Tabela 1

Tujega jezika angleščine se učim s primarnim oz. glavnim namenom ...

<i>Q1</i>	<i>Tujega jezika angleščine se učim s primarnim oz. glavnim namenom ...</i>		
	<i>Trditve</i>	<i>Frekvenca</i>	<i>% – veljavni</i>
Q1a	Ker je to moja lastna želja.	247	69%
Q1b	Ker tako želijo moji starši.	12	3%
Q1c	Ker bom znanje nekoč potreboval/-a.	272	76%
Q1d	Za nekaj sem se moral/-a odločiti.	46	13%
Q1e	Ker jezik že znam in bom imel/-a manj dela.	161	45%

Večina dijakov trdi, da se učijo angleški jezik zaradi prihodnjih potreb (76%) in lastne želje (69%). 45% se jih jezika uči, ker ga že poznajo. Najmanj navajajo vpliv staršev kot razlog, in sicer samo v 3%.

V povezavi z znanjem za prihodnost ugotavljata Tiabut in Lipavic Oštir (2023), da se nemščina na poklicnih šolah uveljavlja predvsem na področju gastronomije, turizma in gospodarstva, med tem ko se splošna jezikovna ponudba omejuje samo na angleščino.

Razvidno je, da pripadajo motivaciji obe kategoriji: tako intrinzična kot tudi ekstrinzična motivacija. Odgovori, ki predstavljajo intrinzično motivacijo, so Q1a in Q8c, medtem ko se odgovori, ki obravnavajo ekstrinzično motivacijo, nanašajo na Q1b, Q1d in Q1e.

Primerjalno sledi anketa za nemščino kot tuji jezik, ki kaže razlike v primerjavi z anketo za angleščino kot tuji jezik.

Tabela 2

Tujega jezika nemščine se učim s primarnim oz. glavnim namenom ...

<i>Q1</i>	<i>Tujega jezika nemščine se učim s primarnim oz. glavnim namenom ...</i>		
	<i>Trditve</i>	<i>Frekvence</i>	<i>% – veljavni</i>
Q1a	Ker je to moja lastna želja.	121	34%
Q1b	Ker tako želijo moji starši.	71	20%
Q1c	Ker bom znanje nekoč potreboval/-a.	224	62%
Q1d	Za nekaj sem se moral/-a odločiti.	160	44%
Q1e	Ker jezik že znam in bom imel/-a manj dela.	43	12%

Najpogostejši odgovor je bil tisti, ki se nanaša na potrebo po znanju v prihodnosti (62%). Sledi mu odgovor “moral sem se odločiti za nekaj” (44%). 10% manjši delež anketirancev je navedel lastno željo (34%), le 12% pa jih trdi, da se učijo nemščine zaradi predhodnega znanja.

Zanimivo je dejstvo, da se več kot 80 % učencev na osnovnih šolah odloča za izbirni predmet drugega jezika nemščine. 65 % se jih odloča za nemščino kot obvezni predmet (Tibaut in Lipavic Oštir, 2023). To izpostavlja predvsem razliko med obema anketama s perspektive predhodnega znanja jezika. Dijaki, ki so se v 45 % odločili za učenje angleščine na podlagi predznanja in v 12 % za nemščino na podlagi predznanja, so morda to predznanje pridobili na osnovni šoli, a ga zaradi kulturne in zgodovinske stigme niso razvili do začetka srednje šole.

Na tej točki Lipavic Oštir (2018) vpeljuje termin “ständiger Anfänger”, ki prevedeno pomeni “stalni začetnik”. Tukaj misli predvsem na učence, ki so stalno poskušali pridobivati znanje nemščine začetnega nivoja skozi osnovno šolo in niso nikoli dosegli predvidenega nivoja znanja. Predpostavlja nekonsistentno povezavo med jezikovno in šolsko politiko.

Pri obeh anketah je potreba po znanju za prihodnost najpogostejši razlog. To kaže na prihodnost usmerjeno učno motivacijo anketiranih, saj večinoma govorijo o možnem potrebnem znanju tujega jezika v prihodnjih življenjskih okoliščinah. Obe anketi kažeta tudi visoko stopnjo intrinzične motivacije, saj 69 % (anketa za angleščino) in 34 % (anketa za nemščino) anketirancev trdi, da se želijo učiti jezika iz lastne želje.

Razlike se pojavijo pri vplivu staršev, saj pri anketi za angleščino le 3 % anketirancev to navedejo kot glavni razlog, pri anketi za nemščino pa jih navede kar 20 %. Eden izmed razlogov za to bi lahko bil, da so učenci sami bolj motivirani za učenje angleščine kot nemščine, zato morajo ali želijo starši posredovati, da bi dijakom omogočili boljše možnosti za prihodnje delo. Kot ugotavlja Zajec (2022), 62,9 % staršev meni, da je tuji jezik nemščina v primerjavi s tujim jezikom angleščina podcenjen. Dodaten faktor, ki ga je potrebno vključiti v razumevanje prisotnosti starševskega vpliva na motivacijo, je sodelovanje staršev in učiteljev, ki je predstavljeno kot blago do zmerno pozitivno z vidika učiteljev in učiteljic (Čilić, 2021, str. 75), kar lahko posredno vpliva na zastopanost učenčeve motivacije pri učenju nemščine in angleščine.

Še ena velika razlika je, da 45 % anketiranih trdi, da se učijo angleščine, ker že imajo predznanje, medtem ko jih le 12 % trdi, da se učijo nemščine zaradi predhodnega znanja. Pri tem pa se pojavijo razlike v nivoju predznanja. Enak program izbirnega predmeta nemščina lahko obiskujejo posamezniki s predznanjem na nivoju L1 ali pa tisti, ki so čisti začetniki (Tibaut in Lipavic Oštir, 2023).

Sledeče vprašanje poskuša pridobiti neposredne odgovore, ali so dijaki motivirani ali ne oziroma ali so prepričani, da so motivirani za učenje tujega jezika.

Tabela 3

Motiviran sem za učenje tujega jezika angleščine.

Q2	<i>Motiviran sem za učenje tujega jezika angleščine.</i>		
	<i>Odgovori</i>	<i>Frekvenca</i>	<i>Odstotki</i>
	1 (Ne.)	89	25 %
	2 (Da.)	269	75 %
Veljavni	Skupaj	358	99 %

Razvidno je, da tri četrtine (75 %) vseh anketiranih trdijo, da so motivirani za učenje angleščine, medtem ko jih 25 % trdi, da niso motivirani.

Razvidno je, da je motivacija dijakov za angleščino kot tuji jezik visoka. Razlog za to bi lahko bile predhodne izkušnje. Znano je, da so dijaki v tem primeru bolj motivirani, če imajo več predhodnih izkušenj z učenjem tujih jezikov.

Drugi razlog bi lahko bil, da se večina dijakov uči angleški jezik iz lastne želje. To je ponovno primer intrinzične motivacije, ki jo pogosto opisujejo kot najboljšo učno motivacijo (Sansone in Harackiewicz, 2000).

Primerjalno sledijo rezultati iz ankete za nemščino kot tuji jezik, ki dajejo podobne odgovore.

Tabela 4

Motiviran sem za učenje tujega jezika nemščine.

Q2	<i>Motiviran sem za učenje tujega jezika nemščine.</i>		
	Odgovori	Frekvenca	Odstotki
	1 (Ne.)	209	58 %
2 (Da.)	152	42 %	
Veljavni	Skupaj	361	100 %

Razvidno je, da skoraj 60 % vseh anketiranih trdi, da niso motivirani za učenje nemščine kot tujega jezika. Le 42 % jih trdi, da so motivirani.

Ob primerjavi je opazna velika razlika v učni motivaciji za nemščino kot tuji jezik (DaF) in angleščino kot tuji jezik (EFL). Medtem ko v anketi za EFL 75 % dijakov trdi, da so motivirani za učenje tujega jezika, jih le 58 % trdi isto v anketi za DaF. 17 % več dijakov trdi, da so manj motivirani za nemščino kot za angleščino.

Eden od možnih razlogov je spet predznanje. Trditi je mogoče, da so dijaki, ki imajo več predznanja, bolj motivirani za učenje določenega tujega jezika, kar jasno izhaja iz rezultatov ankete. Prav tako je pomemben faktor identifikacija s tujim jezikom. Kot ugotavlja Juriševič (2017, str. 106), zunanjo motivacijo na ravni neodvisne samoregulacije, ki predpostavlja višje stopnje zunanjih spodbud, anketirancem predstavljata predvsem identifikacija in integracija s študijem oz. študijskimi vsebinami, ki sta pomemben faktor in vir motivacije.

Na pomanjkanje učne motivacije za DaF lahko vplivajo tudi zunanji motivacijski dejavniki. Starši in učitelji, ki morda neenako motivirajo učence za oba jezika, sta dva od omenjenih dejavnikov. Študija iz leta 2022 ugotavlja, da na severozahodu Slovenije 68,8 % staršev trdi, da se njihovi predšolski otroci učijo angleščine, in (samo) 28,8 % jih trdi, da se učijo nemščine (Zajec, 2022). Drugi dejavniki lahko vključujejo zgodovinsko jezikovno ozadje, saj bi nemščina lahko bila povezana z nacistično Nemčijo in zato bi lahko bili dijaki manj motivirani. Drugi razlogi pa lahko vključujejo primarni in sekundarni jezikovni stik, saj se nemščino redko uporablja izven šolskega okolja.

O spremembi odnosa med nemščino in slovenščino z zgodovinskega vidika pišeta Tibaut in Lipavic Oštir (2023). Omenjata razpad dolgoletnega odnosa med nemščino

in slovenščino zaradi nastalega slovanskega konteksta (SHS), ki se je po letu 1960 (po II. svetovni vojni) zaradi potrebe po delovni sili vzpostavil nazaj. Kljub temu pa je bilo obdobje po 19. stoletju, v katerem je bila orientacija slovenske jezikovne politike nasprotna slehernemu nemškemu vplivu.

Z vprašanjem želimo analizirati, koliko dijakov želi razvijati znanje posameznega tujega jezika po končanem šolanju.

Tabela 5

Po zaključku srednje šole si želim še naprej izboljševati znanje angleščine.

Q3	<i>Po zaključku srednje šole si želim še naprej izboljševati znanje angleščine.</i>		
	Odgovori	Frekvenca	Odstotki
	1 (Ne.)	88	24 %
2 (Da.)	269	75 %	
Veljavni	Skupaj	357	99 %

Razvidno je, da si 75 % anketiranih dijakov želi izboljšati svoje znanje angleškega jezika po končanem maturitetnem izpitu. 25 % pa jih ne namerava izboljševati svojega znanja angleškega jezika po zaključku šolanja.

Tabela 6

Po zaključku srednje šole si želim še naprej izboljševati znanje nemščine.

Q3	<i>Po zaključku srednje šole si želim še naprej izboljševati znanje nemščine.</i>		
	Odgovori	Frekvenca	Odstotki
	1 (Ne.)	189	52 %
2 (Da.)	172	48 %	
Veljavni	Skupaj	361	100 %

Razvidno je, da skoraj polovica anketiranih namerava po zaključku šolanja še naprej izboljševati svoje znanje nemškega jezika, medtem ko več kot polovica te namere ne izraža.

Opazno je, da več dijakov namerava po končanem maturitetnem izpitu nadaljevati z izobraževanjem na področju angleščine, pri čemer jih 23 % ne namerava nadaljevati z izboljševanjem znanja nemškega jezika. Razlogi za to lahko vključujejo več dejavnikov. Med drugim so dijaki manj motivirani za učenje nemščine kot angleščine. Nekateri učenci se ne zanimajo za študij v tujini, še posebej ne v nemško govorečih državah.

To vprašanje neposredno preverja, ali se dijaki zanimajo za študij v bližnjih nemško govorečih državah. Obe anketi vsebujeta enako vprašanje, ki služi kot kontrolno vprašanje.

Tabela 7

Razmišljam, da bi študiral/-a v Avstriji ali Nemčiji.

Q4	<i>Razmišljam, da bi študiral/-a v Avstriji ali Nemčiji.</i>		
	<i>Odgovori</i>	<i>Frekvenca</i>	<i>Odstotki</i>
	1 (Ne.)	237	66 %
	2 (Mogoče.)	94	26 %
3 (Da.)	25	7 %	
Veljavni	Skupaj	356	99 %

Razvidno je, da večina dijakov (66%) ne izkazuje interesa za študij v Avstriji ali Nemčiji. 26% anketiranih še nima dokončnega mnenja glede tega, 7% pa jih izraža zanimanje za študij v tujini.

Podatke se zdi smiselno primerjati z anketo za nemščino kot tujim jezikom, ki prikazuje enake statistike.

Tabela 8

Razmišljam, da bi študiral/-a v Avstriji ali Nemčiji.

Q4	<i>Razmišljam, da bi študiral/-a v Avstriji ali Nemčiji.</i>		
	<i>Odgovori</i>	<i>Frekvenca</i>	<i>Odstotki</i>
	1 (Ne.)	234	65 %
	2 (Mogoče.)	101	28 %
3 (Da.)	22	6 %	
Veljavni	Skupaj	357	99 %

Razvidno je, da spet 66% dijakov ne izkazuje interesa za študij v nemško govoreči tujini, 28% je še neodločenih, 6% pa jih izraža zanimanje za študij v tujini.

Opazna je razlika za 1%. Jasno je, da med dijaki ni veliko interesa za študij v nemško govoreči tujini po zaključeni maturi. Prav tako je jasno, da so dijaki za študij v tujini v veliki meri nezainteresirani.

Rezultati kažejo, da so dijaki v veliki meri zelo nezainteresirani za učenje nemščine, hkrati nimajo želje po nadaljnjem razvijanju jezikovnih spretnosti iz nemščine po končani šoli in ne kažejo zanimanja za študij v nemško govorečih državah. Nasprotno pa so dijaki zelo motivirani za angleščino, hkrati izkazujejo veliko zanimanja za nadaljnji razvoj jezikovnih spretnosti iz angleščine po zaključku šole in prav tako ne kažejo zanimanja za študij v nemško govorečih državah.

Sklepamo lahko, da so dijaki nezainteresirani za učenje nemščine in zelo motivirani za učenje angleščine. Ta razlika se kaže ne le na ravni lastne ocene znanja nemščine in angleščine, ampak tudi na ravni načrtov in interesov za prihodnost. Fenomen interesa do učenja nemščine in angleščine preučujeta tudi Tibaut in Lipavic Oštir (2023). Ugo-

tavljata razliko v dinamiki učenja nemščine in angleščine. Med letoma 1962 in 1990 ostaja seštevek učečih se nemščine enak, v letu 2000/2001 sledi kratek porast interesa, nato pa ponoven spust. Glede interesa za učenje angleščine pa poročata, da je do leta 2000/2001 krivulja učencev angleščine paralelna dvigu krivulje vseh učencev tujega jezika, po letu 2008/2009 pa se krivulji praktično prekrivata.

Dodatno ugotavljata, da se angleščino kot tuji jezik ponuja na skoraj vseh slovenskih osnovnih šolah (okoli 420), medtem ko se nemščino kot prvi jezik ponuja le na nekje 30 osnovnih šolah.

Rezultati intervjujev

Največ problemov z učno motivacijo se v opravljenih intervjujih ugotavlja pri nemščini kot tujem jeziku (DaF). Učitelji menijo, da so dijaki primarno motivirani od zunaj, pri čemer optimalni učni rezultati niso doseženi. Dijaki, ki morda dobro govorijo nemško, vendar nimajo notranje motivacije, zaostajajo. Prehitijo jih tisti, ki so notranje motivirani za učenje nemškega jezika.

“Največji problem je ta, da veliko vlogo pri učenju nemščine igra notranja motivacija. To pomeni, da ti, ki imajo interes, včasih prekosijo tiste, ki so se učili nemščine tudi 8 let v osnovni šoli. Pridejo sem, se učijo 4 leta, govorijo bolje in imajo boljše znanje, gredo na maturo in maturo naredijo tudi s 5.” (Intervju 2)

Kot primeri motivacijskih dejavnikov so bili navedeni s strani učiteljev različni razlogi, tako notranji kot zunanji motivacijski dejavniki. Učitelji izpostavljajo pomembnost zunanje motivacije. Trdijo, da je brez notranje motivacije zelo težko učiti nemščino ali pomagati dijakom izboljšati njihovo znanje nemškega jezika.

“Notranjo motivacijo za njih predstavlja delo v tujini, da naredijo DSD (nemško jezikovno diplomu), to je velika motivacija. Ali pa sorodniki v tujini. Zunanja motivacija je pomembna, s strani učitelja pomeni, da jih vzpodbujamo in hvalimo, če nekaj zelo dobro naredijo. Da imamo različne projekte. Ampak brez notranje motivacije je pa zelo težko. Zato tudi ti s slabšo izgovorjavo so jezikovno šibkejši, zato tudi nimajo motivacije. Za njih je nemščina grd, trd jezik in v bistvu tudi nimajo želje po napredovanju. Pomembna jim je ocena. To so dijaki, ki nimajo visokih ambicij, torej njim je tudi 3 dovolj.” (Intervju 1)

Za nekatere je še vedno glavni motivacijski dejavnik ocena. Razlog za to je, da mnogi po končani maturi želijo nadaljevati s študijem, ki ima visoke omejitve vpisa, kot sta na primer medicina ali psihologija. Dodatno učitelji kot motivacijo za učenje omenjajo tudi študij v tujini.

“Upam, da ne ocena. Nekatere sigurno vodi ocena. Ker so perfekcionisti, kar pomeni, da strmijo po tem, da hočejo iti študirat medicino, to je vsak drugi. To je sigurno ena motivacija. V ospredju pa predvsem to, da si želijo študirati v tujini, npr. Avstriji. To je potem ta motivacija, zakaj se učijo nemščine.” (Intervju 3)

Če povzamemo, lahko ugotovimo, da učitelji menijo, da je učencem pomembna tako notranja kot tudi zunanja motivacija, pri čemer je notranja motivacija pomembnejša, saj je brez nje težje poučevati. Na žalost so še vedno pomembni motivacijski

dejavniki ocena in drugi zunanji dejavniki motivacije, ki vplivajo na dijake. Tisti, ki so notranje motivirani, lahko pri znanju nemškega jezika prehitvajo tiste, ki so zunanje motivirani.

4 Rezultati in interpretacija

Da bi ocenili hipotezo, da imajo učitelji in dijaki različno predstavo o tem, kaj dijake motivira, je treba trditve o učni motivaciji dijakov primerjati z opažanji in predstavami učiteljev. Tako lahko ocenimo, ali imata obe skupini enak ali primerljiv pogled na to, kaj dijake motivira.

Dijaki navajajo kot glavni razlog za učenje tujih jezikov predvsem možno potrebo v prihodnosti (76 %) in lastno željo (69 %), kadar gre za učenje angleščine, ter predvsem potrebo v prihodnosti (62 %), sledi prisilna odločitev za nekaj (44 %) in lastna želja (34 %), kadar gre za učenje nemščine. Očitno je, da sta v obeh primerih večino dijakov motivirali potreba v prihodnosti in lastna želja po učenju tujega jezika. Študija, ki jo je izvedel Laznik (2020, str. 134) s področja zdravstvene nege v korelaciji z motivacijo, navaja, da je motivacijski faktor večjega ugleda velik motivacijski motiv, kar sodi med zunanje motivacijske dejavnike in je zajet v kategorijo potrebe v prihodnosti.

Učitelji predvsem poudarjajo, da so dijaki motivirani za učenje jezikov zato, ker želijo najti delo v tujini, imajo sorodnike v tujini, so ambiciozni in se želijo vpisati na študij z omejitvami vpisa ali študijskimi zahtevami, da bi opravili diplomski izpit, na primer (za nemščino) DSD. Še en motivacijski dejavnik je ocena.

Najti delo v tujini, ambicioznost in pridobitev jezikovne diplome lahko uvrstimo med potrebe v prihodnosti. Učenje zaradi sorodnikov v tujini pa bi lahko uvrstili med lastne želje. Motivacija preko ocene je zunanji motivacijski dejavnik, ki ga dijaki niso navedli kot motivacijski razlog. Vendar pa so bili navedeni drugi zunanji motivacijski dejavniki: 20 % udeležencev v anketi DaF trdi, da se učijo nemščine, ker je to želja staršev, in 3 % trdijo isto v anketi EFL.

Hipotezo, ki izhaja iz vprašanja, lahko zavrnamo, saj so učitelji ugotovili glavne razloge učencev za učenje tujih jezikov. Vendar pa poudarjajo motivacijo preko ocen kot enega od razlogov, ki ga lahko uvrstimo med zunanje motivacijske dejavnike enako kot željo staršev, ki je sicer bolj izrazita v anketi DaF, vendar jo je kljub temu kot razlog navedel relativno velik del udeležencev.

5 Zaključki in diskusija

Raziskava je razkrila razlike med percepcijami učiteljev in učencev o motivacijskih dejavnikih pri učenju tujih jezikov. Medtem ko učenci izpostavljajo notranje motive, kot sta potreba po prihodnji uporabi jezika in osebna želja, učitelji poudarjajo zunanje faktorje, kot so pridobitev dela v tujini in ambicija. Vendar pa učitelji tudi navajajo pomembnost ocen, ki jo opazijo kot motivacijski dejavnik, česar pa učenci ne omenja-

jo. Čeprav so ugotovili podobne motive, obstajajo razlike v poudarkih med učitelji in učenci.

Naša raziskava se ujema z obstoječo literaturo o motivaciji v izobraževanju, ki poudarja pomembnost razumevanja notranjih in zunanjih motivacijskih dejavnikov. Kot kažejo ugotovitve, je intrinzična motivacija, ki izhaja iz notranje želje po učenju, ključna za dolgoročen uspeh in zadovoljstvo učencev. Po drugi strani pa so tudi ekstrinzični dejavniki, kot so ocene, lahko pomembni za spodbujanje učenja, vendar imajo lahko manj dolgoročen učinek.

Poleg tega je naša raziskava dodala vpogled v procese motivacije pri učenju tujih jezikov, ki jih lahko uporabimo pri oblikovanju bolj učinkovitih pristopov k poučevanju. Razumevanje, kako učitelji in učenci zaznavajo motivacijo, lahko prispeva k bolj prilagojenemu in individualiziranemu poučevanju, ki upošteva različne potrebe in želje učencev. Pri tem ne smemo pozabiti na korelacijo med percepcijo tujih jezikov in razcepljeno družbo ter strmenje k preprečitvi moralnega eskapizma, nastalega v družbi zaradi ponotranjene kulturne in zgodovinske preteklosti, ki mora biti dijakom priučen oz. privzgojen skozi dostojen akademski in pedagoški pristop za izgradnjo sodobne humanistične in integrativne družbe (Drobnič, 2021, str. 124).

Na koncu je pomembno poudariti, da motivacija ni enovita, temveč kompleksna in večplastna. Različni dejavniki, kot so notranje želje, zunanji vplivi in cilji, lahko vplivajo na učenje in motivacijo učencev. Zato je ključno, da pri načrtovanju izobraževalnih programov upoštevamo te različne faktorje, da spodbudimo trajno in smiselno učenje.

Naša raziskava je prispevala k razumevanju motivacije pri učenju tujih jezikov in poudarila potrebo po nadaljnjih študijah na tem področju. Z nadaljnjim raziskovanjem lahko še bolj osvetlimo procese motivacije in razvijemo boljše prakse za poučevanje in učenje tujih jezikov.

Jernej Čelofiga

Learning Motivation and Function of Pronunciation for Students in German and English Classes

Motivation, a complex concept, is defined on multiple levels and within the context of specific fields, making a concise summary of an economical definition challenging. The basic function we refer to is: "Motivation is the impetus that gives purpose or direction to behavior and operates in humans at a conscious and unconscious level." (American Psychology Association). This definition was chosen because the research goal is directly related to conscious and unconscious motivation and aims to analyze its role in the development of students' academic motivation. Additionally, it attempts to explain the concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and comments on motivation from both the teacher's and student's perspectives.

It is important to note that motivation encompasses multiple aspects and effects. Motivation can signify a person's willingness to exert physical or mental effort towards a goal or result (American Psychological Association). This aspect can be interpreted

as the motivation or will that a student must express to attend classes and learn the presented material. Numerous factors play a role in this. On the one hand, this may include grades, which motivate students either as the grade itself or as a factor of recognition and status it provides. Another possibility is that these grades bring a sense of achievement, further fostering motivation. Relationships with parents, teachers, and classmates also play a significant role, as well as the feeling that the acquired knowledge is enriching, important, and applicable (American Psychological Association).

A crucial distinction must be made between internal forces that drive motivation and external factors, such as rewards or punishments, which can either support or deter certain behaviors. External motivation is an external stimulus to engage in a particular activity (American Psychological Association). In other words, external motivation arises from the expectation of punishment or reward. This punishment or reward comes from an authoritative figure. In the case of a student, these could be parents who set household rules or provide allowance, or teachers who assign good or bad grades.

On the other hand, intrinsic motivation is the drive to engage in an activity, stemming from the pleasure derived from the activity itself (American Psychiatric Association).

In other words, genuine interest in (in this case) learning foreign languages, uninfluenced by external factors, such as grades or money. Although both forms of motivation have positive and negative aspects, intrinsic motivation can be described as more effective. It can also be said that individuals who work and are intrinsically motivated report a greater sense of happiness. Intrinsic motivation is considered optimal motivation (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000, p. 251).

Similarly, the act or process of motivation can inspire others to strive towards a collective or organizational goal. It can be the ability to motivate followers, which is an important function of leadership (American Psychiatric Association). This typology can also relate to a teacher; as they act as the leader in the classroom, directing and organizing the group's learning process while serving as a motivator and leader directing motivation. At the same time, they are also leaders when motivation is lacking, but students still need to achieve results.

What is interesting, is that intrinsic motivation can be described as goal-oriented towards learning or mastery goals, while extrinsic motivation is described as goal-oriented towards performance or outcome goals. Strong arguments exist for both directions of motivation to be described as optimal, as their purpose of use is different. From a multi-goal approach perspective, this means, instead of supporting the mastery goal perspective, in which optimal motivation stems from the exclusive pursuit of mastery goals, the finding of Sansone and Harackiewicz (2000) offers a strong support for a multiple goal perspective, in which mastery goals and performance goals can both promote optimal motivation.

Fulfilling homework assignments and subsequent academic success are unlikely without intrinsic motivation, described as an internal motivational factor, or without extrinsic motivation, such as parental influence, grades, or choice of study. Another contributing factor is the attention that students devote to academic material both during and outside of class (Knörzer, p. 139; Liu et al., 2024). Experimentally confirmed correlations exist between the level of attention and academic achievement (Entwistle,

1961; Loh et al., 2023). Students with higher levels of attention tend to achieve better academic outcomes. Baker and Madell (1965) also corroborated this finding: college students with high grades exhibit fewer errors than those with lower grades. A similar finding was made by the University of Chicago (2017).

Another perspective, crossing disciplinary boundaries, distinguishes between primary and secondary motivation (Correll, 1961; Yeung et al., 2011). Primary motivation is thought to occur when an individual engages in an activity for the activity's own sake. Motivation that arises to fulfill primary needs is described as follows: "An innate need that arises out of biological processes and leads to physical satisfaction, such as the need for water and sleep." (American Psychological Association). Secondary motivation arises when an individual actively pursues something externally associated with the activity. This type of motivation does not satisfy primary needs, but rather develops personal initiatives: "Secondary motivation is motivation that is created by personal or social incentives rather than by primary or psychological needs." (American Psychological Association).

Although Correll's definition and the American Psychological Association (APA) definition may seem different at first glance, they are semantically similar. The need for water or sleep is a motivation necessary for survival and should be systematically pursued. Similarly, various academic subjects, which are essential components for future work, must be approached in the same manner. Furthermore, motivation can be driven by the necessity of completing a task, rather than the desire to do so. Secondary motivation shows a convergence between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, as both define personal or social initiatives.

Consequently, students not only require optimal intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, but also need to direct their attention during class and extracurricular activities to minimize distractions and enhance academic performance. Achieving this is a challenging task that is difficult to accomplish without professional pedagogical assistance. Therefore, the emphasis on motivation lies with teachers, who must be aware of this complexity and guide the learning process to optimally integrate and consider all factors.

From this conflict of interests and perceptions of what and how to motivate, arises the question: Do teachers and students have different conceptions of what motivates students?

The presented analysis and description of the conducted research attempt to find a correlation between high school students' academic motivation and teachers' perceptions of academic motivation, specifically addressing the central question: Do teachers and students have the same perception of what motivates students? A quantitative and qualitative analysis was conducted through surveys and interviews at high schools in northeastern Slovenia, with the survey results compared to teachers' responses in interviews to determine whether there is a connection in the perception of academic motivation.

Modern life elements such as media, multiculturalism, linguistic diversity, and population densification not only influence people's lifestyles, but also impact students' development. The multifaceted density of extracurricular obligations and related life decisions burdens students. Therefore, having a precise understanding of motivation is crucial to facilitate and optimize students' life directions.

To assess the hypothesis that teachers and students have different perceptions of what motivates students, claims about students' academic motivation must be compared with teachers' observations and perceptions to evaluate whether both groups have a similar or comparable view of what motivates students. Students primarily cite the potential need for future use (76%) and personal desire (69%) as the main reasons for learning foreign languages, particularly English. Similarly, the potential future need (62%) is the primary motivator for learning German, followed by compulsory requirements (44%) and personal desire (34%). It is evident that in both cases, the majority of students are motivated by future needs and a personal desire to learn a foreign language.

Teachers mainly emphasize that students are motivated to learn languages because they want to find work abroad, have relatives abroad, are ambitious and wish to study something with enrollment limitations or study requirements, such as passing the DSD exam for German. Another motivational factor are grades. Finding work abroad, ambition, and obtaining a language diploma can be classified as future needs. Having relatives abroad could be considered a personal desire. Motivation through grades is an external motivational factor that students did not mention as a motivational reason. However, other external motivational factors were mentioned: 20% of participants in the DaF survey claim to learn German because of parental desire, and 3% claim the same in the EFL survey.

The hypothesis stemming from the question can be considered rejected, as teachers identified the main reasons for students' motivation to learn foreign languages. However, they emphasize motivation through grades as one of the reasons, which can be classified as an external motivational factor, similarly to parental desire, which, although more pronounced in the DaF survey, was still cited by a relatively large proportion of participants.

The answer to the question of whether teachers and students have different perceptions of what motivates students is that teachers identified the same or similar reasons for motivation as students. Hence, teachers have a clear understanding of motivational factors, which can be categorized into two groups:

- Potential future needs for knowledge of the German and English languages.
- Personal desire to learn the foreign languages German and English.

The only deviation from teachers' and students' identical perception of students' academic motivation is on the teachers' side, particularly the motivational factor of grades, which students do not mention.

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Razvoj kompetenčnega modela za svetovalne delavce

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KLJUČNE BESEDE: svetovalno delo, svetovalna služba, svetovalni delavec, kompetence, kompetenčni model

POVZETEK – Za optimalno in kakovostno opravljanje svojega dela potrebujejo svetovalni delavci znanja in kompetence s področja temeljnih pedagoško-psiholoških in didaktično-metodičnih vsebin, sociale, menedžmenta, inkluzivne pedagogike, komunikacijskih veščin, poznavanja evropske zakonodaje, prava ipd. Z namenom priprave predlogov za oblikovanje kompetenčnega modela za svetovalne delavce, ki ga v slovenskem prostoru še nimamo, smo se v raziskavi osredotočili na stališča svetovalnih delavcev o kompetenčnem modelu pedagogov po Staničiču (2001, v Ledić idr., 2013). Ugotovili smo, da svetovalni delavci za kakovostno opravljanje dela svetovalne službe pripisujejo visoko pomembnost osebnim kompetencam, ki imajo prav tako velik pomen pri implementaciji in nadaljnji modifikaciji kompetenčnega modela v našem prostoru. Najnižjo pomembnost pripisujejo kompetencam evropske dimenzije izobraževanja. Respondenti prav tako ocenjujejo, da je kompetenčni model učinkovito orodje samorefleksije v procesu ugotavljanja lastnih močnih in šibkih področij ter potreb po dodatnem izobraževanju.

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KEYWORDS: counselling work, counselling service, counselling professional, competencies, competency model

ABSTRACT – In order to perform their work in an optimal and quality way, counsellors need knowledge and competencies in the field of basic pedagogical-psychological and didactic-methodological contents; social, managerial and inclusive pedagogy; communication skills; knowledge of European legislation, law, etc. With the aim of developing proposals for the creation of a competency model for counselling professionals, which we do not yet have in Slovenia, in the research we focused on the views of counselling professionals on the competency model for educators according to Staničič (2001, as cited in Ledić et al., 2013). We have found that counsellors attach high importance to personal competencies, which are also of great importance in the implementation and further modification of the competency model in our field, for the quality of counselling work. They attach the least importance to the competencies of the European dimension of education. The respondents also appreciate that the competency model is an effective tool for self-reflection in order to identify one's own strengths and weaknesses, as well as the need for additional education.

1 Uvod

Zadnjih nekaj let je v slovenski šolski sistem prineslo mnoge spremembe, ki pomembno vplivajo na položaj svetovalnih delavcev in njihovo delovno obremenjenost. Novi zakoni so svetovalnim delavcem naložili nekatere dodatne naloge, ki močno vplivajo na udejanjanje fleksibilnega ravnotežja treh osnovnih dejavnosti svetovalne službe, ki jih opredeljujejo programske smernice. Svetovalni delavci se tako večkrat srečujejo z nalogami, za katere niso dovolj kompetentni, kar lahko prispeva k izgubi strokovne samoza vesti posameznika in identitete svetovalne službe kot celote, saj jih vse to odmika od vloge strokovnega sodelavca vsem udeleženi v vzgojno-izobraževalnem procesu (Bizjak, 2014). Mrvar (2014, v Bizjak, 2014) poudarja, da bi bilo v okviru iskanja novih rešitev

za uspešnejše delovanje svetovalnih služb nujno opraviti dodatne strokovne razprave in oblikovati ustrezen kompetenčni model, ki bi bil osnova za določanje kadrovskih pogojev za opravljanje svetovalnega dela in bi opredelil tiste strokovne profile, ki bodo lahko zagotavljali uresničevanje sprejetih smernic in veljavnih pojmovnih rešitev na področju svetovalnega dela. V Sloveniji torej še nimamo oblikovanega kompetenčnega modela svetovalnih delavcev, zato smo v našem delu za namen raziskave uporabili kompetenčni model pedagogov po Staničiču (2001, v Ledić idr., 2013), ki ga uporabljajo na Hrvaškem in nam je služil kot osnova za raziskovanje. Zanimalo nas je, kakšno pomembnost svetovalni delavci pripisujejo posameznim sklopom kompetenc, ki so del prej omenjenega kompetenčnega modela pedagogov, in kakšni so njihovi predlogi za nadgradnjo le-tega. Na podlagi pridobljenih stališč zaposlenih v svetovalni službi smo pripravili predloge za oblikovanje prvega tovrstnega kompetenčnega modela v Republiki Sloveniji.

2 Kompetenčni model pedagogov – svetovalnih delavcev

Gregorič Mrvar in Resman (2019) navajata, da pedagog kot svetovalni delavec deluje na različnih strokovnih področjih, ki se vežejo na delo vzgojno-izobraževalne ustanove nasploh, kot tudi na področju neposredne pomoči otrokom in mladostnikom pri učenju in napredku na vseh področjih razvoja. Menita, da se pedagogova identiteta gradi na podlagi področij del, ki jih opravlja, in njegovih kompetenc. Po podatkih Statističnega urada Republike Slovenije iz leta 2018 (v Gregorič Mrvar in Resman, 2019) je v svetovalni službi v vrtcih in osnovnih šolah zaposlenih največ pedagogov, v svetovalni službi srednjih šol pa pedagogi sledijo psihologom. Kompetence vključujejo teoretične konstrukte, psihološke procese in sistem vrednot, ki jih posameznik pridobi z vzgojo, izobraževanjem in izkušnjami. Štefanc (2012) pri tem opozarja, da se to lahko kaže kot dvorezen meč. Po eni strani lahko vzpostavimo pojem kompetence kot ideološke formule, ki sama po sebi nima jasne vsebinske opredelitve, pač pa njen pomen določa vsakokratni partikularni diskurz, v katerega je kot pojem vpeta, po drugi strani pa prav paradigmatko različne opredelitve vsaj na ravni teorije omogočajo drugačne, morda za polje vzgoje in izobraževanja produktivnejše razumevanje kompetenc.

Kompetenčni model je dokument, v katerem so jasno opredeljeni opisi kompetenc, potrebni za uspešno delovanje določenega dela, delovne skupine, oddelka ali organizacije. Pomembno je, da ga oblikujemo v želji po uporabnosti in da so opisi v njem jasni, objektivni in natančno opredeljujejo ključne kompetence. Videz kompetenčnega modela je prilagojen potrebam podjetja oziroma ustanove. Z njegovo pomočjo se lahko bolj jasno in objektivno ocenjuje izraženost določene kompetence posameznika in načrtuje nadgradnje, če so te potrebne, kar tudi posamezniku pomaga pri izpopolnjevanju svojega znanja. Dubois in Rothwell (2008, v Sienkiewicz idr., 2014) opredeljujeta, da kompetenčni model vključuje zapisane kompetence, ki so potrebne za doseganje zadovoljivih in kakovostnih rezultatov na določenem delovnem mestu, v timu, oddelku ali organizaciji. Sienkiewicz idr. (2014) pa kompetenčni model opisujejo kot skupek vseh kompetenc, ki se zahtevajo od zaposlenih v določeni organizaciji in so združene v ustrezne sklope za posamezna delovna mesta. Kompetenčni model torej določa predvsem, katere veščine, znanja in značilnosti so potrebne za opravljanje dela in kakšno vedenje

ima največji vpliv za uspešno opravljanje dela v okviru vlog in odgovornosti, ki jih prevzame zaposleni v organizaciji.

V Sloveniji še nimamo oblikovanega kompetenčnega modela za zaposlene v svetovalni službi, zato smo se osredotočili na kompetenčni model pedagogov po Staničiču (2001, v Ledič idr., 2013), ki velja za Hrvaško. Staničič (2001, v Ledič idr., 2013) je izvedel raziskavo, v kateri je proučil kompetence "popolnega" pedagoga. Na podlagi rezultatov je opredelil najpomembnejše kompetence in jih razdelil v pet širših skupin oziroma področij: osebne kompetence, razvojne kompetence, strokovne kompetence, medosebne kompetence in akcijske kompetence. Ta področja so bila na podlagi študija in analize literature razčlenjena na 34 kompetenc. Tem osnovnim področjem so avtorji v raziskavi Ledič idr. (2013) dodali še področje, imenovano "kompetence evropske dimenzije izobraževanja", ki je razčlenjeno na 7 kompetenc.

Pri osebnih kompetencah gre za osebnostne lastnosti pedagoga, ki vplivajo na obvladovanje večšin pedagoškega vodenja in svetovalnega dela. Pomembno je, da je pedagog iskren, dosleden in marljiv pri delu in izvrševanju nalog. Prav tako je pomembno, da je komunikativen in zaupa v svoje sodelavce ter je razumevajoč za različne poglede in rešitve pri delu (Ozvaldič, 2019). Pri tem ne smemo zanemariti področja rezilientnosti, ki je kompleksen, dinamičen in večdimenzionalen koncept znotraj kompetenc pedagoških delavcev (Drljić in Kiswarday, 2021, str. 4). Dotično področje je razčlenjeno na štiri posamezne kompetence (Ledič idr., 2013): usposobljenost za samostojno delo; usposobljenost za prilagajanje novim pedagoških situacijam; usposobljenost za odprtost v komunikaciji in empatičnost; sposobnost etičnega in moralnega sklepanja.

Razvojne kompetence se nanašajo na pedagogova organizacijska in vodstvena znanja in spretnosti, ki omogočajo napredek vzgojno-izobraževalnega dela. Pedagog pozna jasno vizijo dela vrtca oziroma šole in sodeluje pri organizaciji vzgojno-izobraževalnega procesa, pridobiva in posreduje aktualne strokovne informacije ter inovacije uvaja v delo. Pomembno je tudi, da pozna in zna uporabljati informacijsko-komunikacijsko tehnologijo (Ozvaldič, 2019). V področje razvojnih kompetenc spada pet posameznih kompetenc (Ledič idr., 2013): sposobnost načrtovanja osebnega in strokovnega razvoja in usposabljanja (vseživljenjsko učenje); usposobljenost za uvajanje novosti v vzgojno-izobraževalni proces; sposobnost oblikovanja in razvoja individualiziranih programov za otroke, učence, dijake; poznavanje oblikovanja razvojnih strategij vrtca oziroma šole; usposobljenost za pripravo in izvedbo raziskav v pedagoški teoriji in praksi.

Strokovne kompetence zajemajo pedagogovo znanje s področja vzgojno-izobraževalnega dela, predvsem poznavanje didaktičnih načel, načrtovanja, oblik in metod dela. Pedagog mora tudi razumeti načela vzgoje in izobraževanja ter razumeti smisel in pomembnost kakovostnega načrtovanja dela šole in poznati učne priprave ter programe (Ozvaldič, 2019). To področje je razčlenjeno na 16 posameznih kompetenc (Ledič idr., 2013): poznavanje strukture šolskega sistema na nacionalni ravni; poznavanje nacionalne zakonodaje na področju vzgoje in izobraževanja; poznavanje načrtovanja dela vrtca oziroma šole; poznavanje področij dela vzgojiteljev/učiteljev in ostalih strokovnih delavcev; usposobljenost za svetovalno delo z otroki/učenci/dijaki; usposobljenost za izdelavo pedagoških inštrumentov (za evalvacijo); poznavanje pedagoške dokumentacije; poznavanje sistemskega spremljanja dela vzgojiteljev/učiteljev; usposobljenost za izdelavo učnih priprav in didaktičnih načel dela vzgoje in izobraževanja; poznavanje oblik vrednotenja in evalvacije rezultatov vzgojno-izobraževalnega procesa; usposo-

bljenost za organizacijo obšolskih in prostočasnih dejavnosti otrok/učencev/dijakov; usposobljenost za poklicno usmerjanje otrok/učencev/dijakov; usposobljenost za delo z nadarjenimi otroki/učenci/dijaki; usposobljenost za prepoznavanje in integracijo otrok s posebnimi potrebami; usposobljenost za uporabo informacijsko-komunikacijske tehnologije in poznavanje slovenskega jezika, slovnice, pravil.

Medosebne kompetence se nanašajo na pedagogovo komunikacijo in odnos z vzgojitelji oziroma učitelji, otroki, učenci, dijaki in starši ter stil pedagoškega vodenja in motiviranja zaposlenih. Pedagog mora razumeti zakonitosti medosebnih odnosov in prepoznati individualne kvalitete pedagoških in drugih delavcev (Ozvaldič, 2019). Področje je razčlenjeno na pet posameznih kompetenc (Ledić idr., 2013): usposobljenost za timsko delo z vzgojitelji, učitelji in drugimi sodelavci; usposobljenost za delo s starši; usposobljenost za interdisciplinarno delo; usposobljenost za pogajanje in vplivanje na odločitve na institucionalni in nacionalni ravni; usposobljenost za sodelovanje z lokalno skupnostjo in zunanjimi ustanovami.

Pri akcijskih kompetencah gre za praktično delovanje pedagoga, ocenjevanje dela in delovne uspešnosti. Pedagog mora ustvarjati pogoje in odstranjevati ovire pri delu pedagoškega osebja, poslušati in svetovati pri delu, izpostaviti uspehe in rezultate posameznikov, odkrito delati s sodelavci in reševati probleme na šoli (Ozvaldič, 2019). Pod akcijske kompetence spadajo naslednje štiri posamezne kompetence (Ledić idr., 2013): usposobljenost za pripravo, vodenje in ocenjevanje projektov; usposobljenost za motiviranje zaposlenih in ustvarjanje spodbudnega delovnega okolja; usposobljenost za obravnavanje in reševanje konfliktov, mediacijo; usposobljenost za uvajanje novosti in sprememb v delo vrtca oziroma šole.

Kompetence evropske dimenzije izobraževanja se nanašajo na poznavanje postopkov prijave na programe EU, njeno strukturo in način delovanja, seznanjenost z evropskimi trendi v izobraževanju, sposobnost za delo v interkulturnih in multikulturnih okoljih, poznavanje področja demokratičnega državljanstva in temeljnih človekovih pravic ter usposobljenost za usmerjanje učencev in učiteljev k družbeni odgovornosti in obvladovanje vsaj enega tujega jezika (Ozvaldič, 2019). Področje kompetenc evropske dimenzije izobraževanja je razčlenjeno na sedem kompetenc (Ledić idr., 2013): poznavanje postopka prijave na programe Evropske unije; poznavanje strukture in načina delovanja temeljnih organov Evropske unije (Evropski parlament, Svet Evrope ipd.); poznavanje evropskih trendov na področju vzgoje in izobraževanja; poznavanje vsaj enega tujega jezika; usposobljenost za delo v interkulturnem okolju; poznavanje področja demokratičnega državljanstva in temeljnih človekovih pravic; usposobljenost za usmerjanje otrok, učencev oziroma dijakov in vzgojiteljev oziroma učiteljev k družbeni odgovornosti.

Predstavljen kompetenčni model pedagogov je bil uporabljen tudi v raziskavi, kjer smo preverjali, kakšno pomembnost svetovalni delavci pripisujejo posameznim kompetencam za opravljanje dela svetovalne službe ter kako ocenjujejo ustreznost modela za namen samoocene in samorefleksije lastnega dela.

3 Raziskovalni problem, namen in cilji

Glede na izpostavljena problemska izhodišča smo v raziskavi želeli preučiti stališča svetovalnih delavcev o kompetenčnem modelu pedagogov po Staničiču (2001) ter na podlagi pridobljenih rezultatov raziskave pripraviti predloge za oblikovanje prvega tovrstnega kompetenčnega modela, ki bo veljal za svetovalne delavce v Republiki Sloveniji. Glede na obravnavano problematiko smo si pred raziskovanjem postavili naslednji raziskovalni hipotezi:

- H1: Med svetovalnimi delavci obstajajo statistično pomembne razlike pri ocenjevanju pomembnosti posameznih sklopov kompetenc za delo svetovalne službe glede na leta delovnih izkušenj in vrsto vzgojno-izobraževalne ustanove, v kateri so zaposleni.
- H2: Večina svetovalnih delavcev meni, da je uporaba kompetenčnega modela za namen samoocene in samorefleksije lastnega dela učinkovita.

Raziskovalne metode in raziskovalni vzorec

Pri raziskovanju smo uporabili deskriptivno in kavzalno-neeksperimentalno metodo empiričnega pedagoškega raziskovanja. V raziskavo so bili vključeni svetovalni delavci in svetovalne delavke v Republiki Sloveniji. Od $N = 187$ rešenih vprašalnikov je bilo 114 ustreznih in 73 neustreznih.

V raziskavi je sodelovalo 109 (95,6%) žensk in trije (2,6%) moški. Dva udeleženca (1,8%) nista odgovorila na vprašanje o spolu. Glede na smer zaključene izobrazbe je v raziskavi sodelovalo 51 (44,7%) pedagogov, 19 (16,7%) psihologov, 16 (14,0%) socialnih delavcev, 11 (9,6%) inkluzivnih pedagogov, 10 (8,8%) socialnih pedagogov in 5 (4,4%) specialnih in rehabilitacijskih pedagogov. Dve osebi (1,8%) sta zaključili izobraževanje smer učitelj in smer družinski terapevt. Porazdelitev anketirancev glede na vrsto vzgojno-izobraževalne ustanove, kjer so zaposleni, kaže, da je 52 (45,6%) zaposlenih v osnovni šoli, 16 respondentov (14,0%) je zaposlenih v vrtcu in 15 (13,2%) v osnovni šoli z vrtcem. V osnovni šoli s podružnico/podružnicami je zaposlenih sedem (6,1%), pet (4,4%) je zaposlenih v srednji šoli za strokovno in tehniško izobraževanje (4-letni program), štiri (3,5%) v srednji šoli za splošno izobraževanje, trije (2,6%) v srednji šoli s poklicnim izobraževanjem, dva svetovalna delavca (1,8%) sta zaposlena v osnovni šoli za otroke s posebnimi potrebami. Po en respondent (0,9%) je zaposlen v zavodu za otroke in mladostnike s posebnimi potrebami ter (0,9%) v dijaškem domu. Osem (7,0%) udeležencev je navedlo odgovor šolski center oziroma več programov srednje šole skupaj.

V raziskovalnem vzorcu so prav tako zastopane vse regije: osrednjeslovenska regija (23,7%), podravska regija (13,2%), savinjska regija (12,3%), gorenjska regija (11,4%), pomurska regija (7,0%), jugovzhodna Slovenija (6,1%), posavska, primorsko-notranjska in goriška regija (5,3%), koroška in obalno-kraška regija (3,5%), zassavska regija (2,6%).

Opis pripomočkov

Vprašalnik je sestavljen iz dveh delov in zajema 11 vprašanj. Prvi del sestavlja sedem vprašanj, ki so demografske narave, sledijo vprašanja, ki se navezujejo na kompetenčni model pedagogov, ki smo ga povzeli po Staničiču (2001, v Ledič idr., 2013). Pomembnost kompetenc so respondenti ocenjevali na lestvici od 1 do 5, pri čemer 1 pomeni “zelo nepomembna” in 5 “zelo pomembna”. Sledijo vprašanja odprtega in zaprtega tipa.

Opis postopka zbiranja in obdelave podatkov

Anketni vprašalnik smo poslali vsem svetovalnim delavcem v Republiki Sloveniji. Podatke smo nato obdelali z računalniškim programom SPSS (IBM SPSS Statistics 22). Za analizo anketnega vprašalnika smo uporabili naslednje statistične postopke: frekvenčno distribucijo (f , $f\%$) – mere srednje vrednosti, mere razpršenosti; inferenčno statistiko; Kruskal-Wallisov H preizkus.

4 Rezultati z razpravo

Razlike v ocenah pomembnosti, ki jih svetovalni delavci glede na leta zaposlitve pripisujejo posameznim sklopom kompetenc

Zanimalo nas je, kako svetovalni delavci, glede na leta zaposlitve na področju vzgoje in izobraževanja, ocenjujejo pomembnost posameznih sklopov kompetenc za delo v svetovalni službi. V raziskavi smo si zastavili hipotezo H1: Med svetovalnimi delavci obstajajo statistično pomembne razlike pri ocenjevanju pomembnosti posameznih sklopov kompetenc za delo svetovalne službe glede na leta delovnih izkušenj. Hipotezo smo preverjali s Kruskal-Wallisovim H preizkusom.

Tabela 1

Vrednost Kruskal-Wallisovega H preizkusa pri ocenah pomembnosti svetovalnih delavcev glede na leta zaposlitve

<i>Sklop kompetenc</i>	<i>Kruskal-Wallisov H preizkus</i>	<i>α</i>
Osebnostne kompetence	1,723	0,787
Razvojne kompetence	3,536	0,472
Strokovne kompetence	4,106	0,392
Medosebnostne kompetence	2,868	0,580
Akcijske kompetence	6,530	0,163
Kompetence evropske dimenzije izobraževanja	5,211	0,266

V tabeli so prikazani rezultati Kruskal-Wallisovega H preizkusa, iz katerih lahko razberemo, da med svetovalnimi delavci ne obstajajo statistično pomembne razlike pri ocenjevanju pomembnosti posameznih sklopov kompetenc za delo svetovalne službe glede na leta delovnih izkušenj. Skupne povprečne ocene pomembnosti, ki jih svetovalni delavci pripisujejo posameznim osebnim kompetencam za delo v svetovalni službi, glede na leta zaposlitve, so zelo visoke ($\bar{x} \geq 4,58$), na podlagi česar lahko sklepamo, da so osebne kompetence zelo pomembne za kakovostno opravljanje dela svetovalne službe. Tudi posamezne medosebne kompetence so svetovalni delavci, glede na leta zaposlitve, ocenili kot pomembne za opravljanje dela svetovalne službe, saj so jim pripisali skupne povprečne ocene v razponu od 3,81 do 4,82.

Posamezne razvojne, strokovne in akcijske kompetence so svetovalni delavci ocenili z nekoliko nižjimi ocenami, in sicer razvojne kompetence s skupnimi povprečnimi ocenami med 3,74 in 4,43, strokovne kompetence med 3,37 in 4,88 ter akcijske kompetence med 3,70 in 4,64. Kljub nižjim ocenam lahko predpostavljamo, da so vsi ti sklopi kompetenc pomembni za opravljanje dela svetovalne službe. Pomembnost posameznih kompetenc evropske dimenzije izobraževanja so svetovalni delavci, glede na leta zaposlitve, ocenili nižje kot ostale sklope kompetenc, s skupnimi povprečnimi ocenami med 2,95 in 4,08.

Glede na rezultate predpostavljamo, da so po ocenah anketiranih svetovalnih delavcev kompetence evropske dimenzije izobraževanja nekoliko manj pomembne za opravljanje dela svetovalne službe kot kompetence ostalih sklopov. Zanimivo, da so najnižjo oceno pomembnosti osebnih kompetenc za delo v svetovalni službi pripisali svetovalni delavci z najmanj let delovnih izkušenj, kar je ravno nasprotje rezultatom raziskave avtorice Ozvaldič (2019), kjer pa so najnižjo pomembnost osebnih kompetenc pripisali pedagogi z največ let delovnih izkušenj.

Razlike v ocenah pomembnosti, ki jih svetovalni delavci glede na vzgojno-izobraževalno ustanovo, v kateri so zaposleni, pripisujejo posameznim sklopom kompetenc

V nadaljevanju nas je zanimalo, kako svetovalni delavci ocenjujejo pomembnost posameznih sklopov kompetenc glede na vzgojno-izobraževalno ustanovo, v kateri so zaposleni.

Tabela 2

Vrednost Kruskal-Wallisovega H preizkusa pri ocenah pomembnosti svetovalnih delavcev glede na vzgojno-izobraževalno ustanovo, v kateri so zaposleni

<i>Sklop kompetenc</i>	<i>Kruskal-Wallisov H preizkus</i>	<i>a</i>
Osebne kompetence	8,458	0,584
Razvojne kompetence	12,831	0,234
Strokovne kompetence	11,887	0,292
Medosebne kompetence	13,000	0,224
Aksijske kompetence	6,824	0,742
Kompetence evropske dimenzije izobraževanja	7,065	0,719

Skupne povprečne ocene pomembnosti, ki jih svetovalni delavci, glede na vzgojno-izobraževalno ustanovo, v kateri so zaposleni, pripisujejo posameznim osebnim kompetencam, so zelo visoke ($\bar{x} \geq 4,58$), podobno kot pri ocenah pomembnosti svetovalnih delavcev glede na leta zaposlitve, kar nakazuje na visoko pomembnost osebnih kompetenc za kakovostno opravljanje dela svetovalne službe. Tudi posamezne medosebne kompetence so svetovalni delavci, glede na vzgojno-izobraževalno ustanovo, v kateri so zaposleni, ocenili kot pomembne za opravljanje dela svetovalne službe, saj so jim pripisali skupne povprečne ocene v razponu od 3,73 do 4,80. Razvojne kompetence, strokovne kompetence in akcijske kompetence so bile nekoliko nižje ocenjene, in sicer: razvojne kompetence s skupnimi povprečnimi ocenami med 3,70 in 4,35; strokovne kompetence med 3,35 in 4,87; ter akcijske kompetence med 3,57 in 4,60. Vseeno lahko predpostavljamo, da so vsi ti sklopi kompetenc pomembni za opravljanje dela svetovalne službe. Najnižje skupne povprečne ocene pomembnosti so svetovalni delavci, glede na vzgojno-izobraževalno ustanovo, v kateri so zaposleni, pripisali posameznim kompetencam evropske dimenzije izobraževanja, in sicer z ocenami med 2,86 in 4,06. Glede na te rezultate lahko zaključimo, da so po ocenah anketiranih svetovalnih delavcev kompetence evropske dimenzije izobraževanja nekoliko manj pomembne za opravljanje dela svetovalne službe kot kompetence ostalih sklopov.

Učinkovitost uporabe kompetenčnega modela za namen samoocene in samorefleksije

Zanimalo nas je, kako svetovalni delavci ocenjujejo učinkovitost uporabe kompetenčnega modela za namen samoocene in samorefleksije lastnega dela. Svetovalni delavci so učinkovitost ocenjevali na lestvici od 1 do 5, pri čemer 1 pomeni zelo neučinkovit in 5 zelo učinkovit. Izhajali smo iz predpostavke o mnenju večine svetovalnih delavcev, da je uporaba kompetenčnega modela za namen samoocene in samorefleksije lastnega dela učinkovita. Gre namreč za t. i. karijerne kompetence, ki odražajo posameznikovo interpretacijo lastne situacije na karierni poti, ki se v skladu s spreminjajočim se okoljem stalno spreminja (Blažič, 2021, str. 100). Hipotezo smo preverjali glede na odstotke, pridobljene iz odgovorov anketirancev.

Ugotovitve kažejo, da je skoraj polovica (43,9%) svetovalnih delavcev ocenila uporabo kompetenčnega modela za namen samoocene in samorefleksije kot učinkovito. Sledijo svetovalni delavci, ki so uporabo kompetenčnega modela za namen samoocene in samorefleksije ocenili kot niti neučinkovito niti učinkovito (24,6%). Devet (7,9%) svetovalnih delavcev je uporabo ocenilo kot zelo učinkovito, trije (2,6%) so ocenili, da je uporaba kompetenčnega modela za omenjen namen neučinkovita, en (0,9%) svetovalni delavec pa je ocenil, da je uporaba kompetenčnega modela za omenjen namen zelo neučinkovita.

Predpostavljamo, da svetovalni delavci uporabo kompetenčnega modela za namen samoocene in samorefleksije ocenjujejo kot učinkovito, saj je 43,9% svetovalnih delavcev odgovorilo, da se jim uporaba zdi učinkovita, skoraj 8% svetovalnih delavcev pa je uporabo ocenilo kot zelo učinkovito, kar nakazuje na to, da jih skupaj več kot polovica vidi uporabo kompetenčnega modela za namen samoocene in samorefleksije lastnega dela kot učinkovito.

Svetovalne delavce smo prosili, da svojo odločitev tudi pojasnijo. Dobili smo naslednje odgovore: "Ponuja dobro izhodišče za načrtovanje nadaljnjega dela, izobraževanja, osebnega in strokovnega razvoja"; "Pregleden glede dela svetovalnega delavca"; "Vrednotenje lastnih ciljev je pomemben del profesionalnega razvoja"; "Zajema zelo različna področja, zato menim, da je učinkovit"; "Na ta način se lahko poglobim v svoje trenutno delovanje"; "Ocena sebi, da vidiš, na katerih področjih smo šibki in jih moramo okrepiti"; "V bistvu gre za instrument, ki ti pomaga spremljati in oceniti svoje kompetence na različnih področjih. Na podlagi tega lahko načrtuješ nadaljnje izobraževanje in usposabljanje"; "Poznavanje lastne kompetentnosti je pogoj, da vemo, kako se lahko izboljšamo"; "Učinkovit, ker lepo zajame in povzame kompetence svetovalnega delavca, morda pa manjka še nekaj komunikacijskih, moralnih kompetenc in presojanja"; "Morda model vzbudi občutek, da je področij dela preveč in so vsa hkrati neobvladljiva. Obvladanje vseh naštetih kompetenc zahteva nadčloveka"; "Razmišljanje o sebi in vseživljenjsko učenje ter spremljanje lastnega profesionalnega napredka"; "Menim, da je samoocena in samorefleksija posameznega svetovalnega delavca zelo pomembna za kvalitetno delovanje svetovalnih služb"; "Mislim, da zajema večino kompetenc, pomembnih za svetovalnega delavca. S pregledom le-teh lahko ugotoviš, kje si. Kaj imaš in kje ti še kaj manjka. Odvisno tudi od tega, čemu daješ prednost pri svojem delu"; "Postavi okvir, kaj svetovalni delavec počne in hkrati ga lahko uporabimo za argument, česa pa ne počne oziroma ni njegova naloga znotraj šolskega prostora. Hkrati bolj strukturirano postavlja izhodišča, na osnovi katerih lahko reflektiramo, kje pri svojem delu smo, kaj so naša močna področja in na katerih področjih še potrebujemo dodatna znanja oziroma spodbude"; "Menim, da kompetenčni model zajema vse zadeve oziroma področja, ki naj jih svetovalni delavec čim bolj pozna in na podlagi teh točk lahko tudi samoevalvira svoje delo"; "Za tako samorefleksijo, ki je čemu namenjena, moraš imeti tudi podporo okolja. Torej model je uporaben, če je za to izpolnjenih več pogojev, tudi okoljski"; "Zajete so mnoge kompetence, ki jih svetovalni delavci potrebujemo, se pa mnogi tega ne zavedajo, pa naj so začetniki ali z izkušnjami. Večinoma so vsi usmerjeni v pomoč otroku in kako bodo delali z otroki, pozabljajo pa na vse ostalo, kar je v tem modelu krasno opredeljeno. Tudi izobraževanje svetovalnih delavcev bi moralo iti v tej smeri, saj prihajajo nepripravljene na mnoge različne naloge in težko spreminjajo svoja stališča. Prevelik delež teh"; "Samoocena oziroma samorefleksija je pri opravljanju dela ŠSS pomembna, a se je premalo zavedamo. Smernice so zato ključne" itd.

Iz odgovorov respondentov je razvidno, da so svetovalni delavci naklonjeni uporabi kompetenčnega modela, saj ga vrednotijo kot učinkovit pripomoček za samoevalvacijo/samopresojo. Veliko svetovalnih delavcev poudarja pomen samoocene in samorefleksije, nekaj pa je sicer skeptičnih, saj je po njihovem mnenju ta ocena preveč subjektivna in bi se morala po takšni oceni izvesti tudi objektivna ocena v obliki psihološkega testa. Kot je bilo ugotovljeno že pri odgovorih o možnostih nadgradnje dotičnega kompetenčnega modela, lahko tudi pri teh odgovorih vidimo, da je nekaj svetovalnih delavcev izpostavilo pomanjkanje kompetenc, ki se vežejo na odnosno raven, ki je po njihovem mnenju zelo pomembna za kakovostno opravljanje dela svetovalne službe.

Pomen samoevalvacije izpostavljata tudi Lorger (2020) in Petlák (2021, str. 43), ki sicer v ločenih študijah navajata podobno, in sicer, da se kakovost šole in delo učitelja utemeljuje na samoevalvaciji in da lahko le-ta popelje dobro šolo/učitelja v odlično šolo/učitelja. Poleg tega je bilo izpostavljeno tudi, da kompetenčni model postavi dober

okvir, kaj svetovalni delavec počne in hkrati ga lahko uporabijo za argument, česa pa ne počne oziroma ni njegova naloga znotraj šolskega prostora. Raziskava Gregorič Mrvar idr. (2020) je namreč pokazala, da delo svetovalnega delavca postaja vedno obsežnejše in bolj zahtevno, tudi zaradi nalog, ki ne sodijo na njihovo področje dela, a jim ga vodstvo šole vseeno dodeli. Podobno je ugotavljal tudi Kovač (2015, str. 112), ki v svojem empirično podprtem prispevku prikaže pomembnost supervizije pri soočanju s stresom na delovnem mestu ter nadaljnjemu dvigu vzgojno-izobraževalnega dela.

5 Sklep

Z empirično raziskavo smo prišli do naslednjih ugotovitev: analiza podatkov med svetovalnimi delavci glede na leta zaposlitve ni pokazala statistično pomembnih razlik pri ocenjevanju pomembnosti posameznih sklopov kompetenc za opravljanje dela svetovalne službe. Analiza nadalje prav tako ni pokazala statistično pomembnih razlik med svetovalnimi delavci pri ocenjevanju pomembnosti posameznih sklopov kompetenc za opravljanje dela svetovalne službe glede na vzgojno-izobraževalno ustanovo, v kateri so zaposleni.

Ugotovili smo, da so svetovalni delavci najvišje ocene pomembnosti pripisali:

- osebnim kompetencam, sledijo
- medosebne kompetence,
- strokovne kompetence,
- razvojne kompetence,
- akcijske kompetence in najnižje ocenjene
- kompetence evropske dimenzije izobraževanja.

Kljub temu, da se ocene pomembnosti med seboj nekoliko razlikujejo, pa lahko glede na višino povprečnih ocen zaključimo, da so po mnenju respondentov vse kompetence pomembne za kakovostno opravljanje dela svetovalne službe.

Med predlogi za nadgradnjo kompetenčnega modela pedagogov je bilo največ odgovorov vezanih na kompetence, ki bi se uvrstile v sklopa osebnih in medosebnih kompetenc, kar lahko povežemo tudi z visokimi ocenami pomembnosti teh dveh sklopov. Največ predlogov se je navezovalo na empatičnost, sočutnost, človečnost, razumevanje drugačnosti in drugačnih mnenj, čut za sočloveka in sposobnost vzpostaviti dobre odnose z vsemi udeleženci vzgojno-izobraževalne ustanove. Ledić idr. (2013) so v svoji raziskavi prav tako ugotovili, da imajo osebne lastnosti velik pomen za delo šolskega pedagoga, saj je empatična komunikacija ključna za uspešno delo šolskega pedagoga v odnosu do učencev, staršev in učiteljev.

Na vlogo svetovalnih delavcev v družbi vpliva družbena dinamika, česar bi se morala zavedati tudi stroka, ki ureja zakonodajo tega področja. Svetovalno delo ne le sledi uveljavljenim doktrinom, ampak se prilagaja tudi spreminjajočim se potrebam posameznikov in institucij. Skozi leta se je pokazala nepogrešljivost svetovalne dejavnosti v šolah, saj z visoko strokovnimi pristopi spodbuja razvoj posameznika in prispeva k napredku institucij (Privošnik in Urbanc, 2009). Goltnik Urnaut (2022, str. 162) pri tem izpostavi dejstvo, da je v Sloveniji sistemsko sicer dobro poskrbljeno za vseživljenjsko

izobraževanje kadrov na področju osnovnega in srednjega izobraževanja ter poudari pomen razvoja kadrov kot najpomembnejšega procesa kadrovskega menedžmenta v vsaki organizaciji (prav tam, str. 125).

Prikazane rezultate razumemo kot pomembno izhodišče za uresničitev že omenjenega predloga o oblikovanju kompetenčnega modela za zaposlene v svetovalni službi v Sloveniji, ki bo osnova za določanje kadrovskih pogojev za opravljanje svetovalnega dela. Pri tem moramo poudariti, da lahko kompetenčni model za svetovalne delavce pomaga opredeliti ključne kompetence in veščine, ki so potrebne za uspešno opravljanje nalog v svetovalnem delu, ne pa vseh, saj se zaposleni pogosto srečujejo z raznolikimi izzivi, povezanimi z osebnim, šolskim, kariernim ali družbenim delovanjem. Kompetenčni model za svetovalne delavce torej lahko učinkovito pomaga pri načrtovanju izobraževalnih programov, izboljšanju kakovosti svetovalnega dela in ocenjevanju/vrednotenju uspešnosti dela svetovalnih delavcev.

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Development of a Competency Model for School Counsellors

In Slovenia, we do not yet have a developed competency model for counselling professionals, so in our article, for the purpose of research, we used the competency model for educators according to Staničić (2001, as cited in Ledić et al., 2013), which is used in Croatia and will serve as the basis for our research. We were interested in the importance that counsellors attach to the individual bundles of competencies that are part of the previously mentioned competency model for educators and what suggestions they have for its expansion. On the basis of the opinions gathered from the counsellors, we will prepare proposals for the creation of the first competency model of this kind in the Republic of Slovenia.

Competency model for educators – counsellors: A competency model is a document that clearly defines the descriptions of competencies required for the successful performance of a particular job, workgroup, department, or organisation. It is important that it is designed to be easy to use and that the descriptions in it are clear, objective, and accurately define the key competencies. The appearance of the competency model is adapted to the needs of the company or institution. With its help, it is possible to evaluate more clearly and objectively the expression of a particular competency of a person and, if necessary, to plan improvements, which also helps the person to improve his/her knowledge.

Staničić (2001, as cited in Ledić et al., 2013) conducted a study in which he examined the competencies of the “perfect” educator. Based on the results, he defined the most important competencies and divided them into five broad groups or domains: personal competencies, developmental competencies, professional competencies, interpersonal competencies, and action competencies. Based on the study and analysis of the literature, these areas were divided further into 34 competencies. To these basic areas, the authors of the Ledić et al. (2013) study added an area called “Competencies of the European dimension of education”, which is divided further into seven competencies. The White Paper (2011) states that, despite the perception of the skilled worker in the national

context, it is becoming increasingly necessary to place him/her clearly in the European context (e.g., knowledge of languages, history, multiculturalism, mobility, etc.).

The presented educators' competency model was also used in the present research, in which we reviewed the importance that counsellors attach to each competency for performing the work of the counselling service, and how they evaluate the appropriateness of the model for the purpose of self-assessment of and self-reflection on their own work.

Research problem, purpose, and objectives: Based on the highlighted starting points, in the research we aimed to explore the views of counselling professionals on the competency model for educators according to Staničič (2001, 2013) and, based on the obtained research results, to develop proposals for the creation of the first such competency model to be applied to counselling professionals in the Republic of Slovenia. Considering the problem under study, we have prefaced the research with the following research hypotheses:

- H1: There are statistically significant differences between counselling professionals in their assessment of the importance of individual competency packages for the work of the counselling service, depending on the years of professional experience and the type of educational institution in which they are employed.
- H2: The majority of counsellors believe that the use of the competency model is effective for the purpose of self-evaluation of and self-reflection on their own work.

In the research, we used the descriptive and causal-non-experimental method of empirical pedagogical research. Counsellors in the Republic of Slovenia were included in the study. Of the 187 completed questionnaires, 114 were appropriate, and 73 were inappropriate. The questionnaire consists of two parts and includes 11 questions. The first part consists of seven questions of a demographic nature, followed by questions about the competency model for educators, which we summarised according to Staničič (2001, as cited in Ledič et al., 2013). Respondents rated the importance of competencies on a scale from 1 to 5, where 1 was "very unimportant", and 5 was "very important". Open and closed questions followed. We sent the questionnaire to all counsellors in the Republic of Slovenia. The data were then processed using the computer program SPSS (IBM SPSS Statistics 22). The following statistical methods were used to analyse the questionnaire: Frequency distribution (f , $f\%$) – measure of mean, measure of dispersion; inferential statistics: Kruskal-Wallis H test.

Results with discussion: The hypothesis was tested using the Kruskal-Wallis H test.

Based on years of employment, the average overall ratings of the importance that counsellors attribute to each personal competency for working in counselling services are very high ($\bar{x} \geq 4.58$), from which we can conclude that personal competencies are very important for the quality of work performance in counselling services. Depending on the years of employment, individual interpersonal competencies were also rated as important to job performance by the counsellors, as they received an average total score in the range of 3.81 to 4.82. Individual developmental, professional, and action competencies were rated slightly lower by counsellors, with the average total scores of developmental competencies ranging from 3.74 to 4.43, of professional competencies ranging from 3.37 to 4.88, and of action competencies ranging from 3.70 to 4.64. Despite the lower scores, we can assume that all of these groups of competencies are important to the work of a counselling service. The importance of each of the competencies in the European educa-

tion dimension was rated lower than the other sets of competencies by counsellors as a function of years of employment, with an average overall rating between 2.95 and 4.08.

Differences in importance ratings attributed by counsellors to each competency package depending on the educational institution in which they are employed: The average overall importance ratings that counsellors ascribe to each personal competency depending on the educational institution in which they are employed are very high ($\bar{x} \geq 4.58$), similar to counsellors' importance ratings depending on years of employment, indicating a high importance of personal competencies for the quality of a counselling service's work. Depending on the educational institution in which they are employed, individual interpersonal competencies were also rated by counsellors as important for performing the work of a counselling service, as they were assigned average total scores ranging from 3.73 to 4.80. Developmental competencies, professional competencies, and action competencies were rated slightly lower, with average total scores of developmental competencies ranging from 3.70 to 4.35; of professional competencies ranging from 3.35 to 4.87; and of action competencies ranging from 3.57 to 4.60. However, we can assume that all of these groups of competencies are important for performing the work of a counselling service. Depending on the educational institution in which they are employed, the counsellors, on average, attributed the least importance to each of the competencies of the European dimension of education, with scores ranging from 2.86 to 4.06. From these results, we can conclude that, according to the assessment of the surveyed counsellors, the competencies of the European dimension of education are somewhat less important for the performance of the work of a counselling service than the competencies of the other domains.

Effectiveness of using the competency model for the purpose of self-assessment and self-reflection: The results show that almost half (43.9%) of the counsellors consider the use of the competency model for the purpose of self-assessment and self-reflection to be effective. This was followed by counsellors who rated the use of the competency model for the purpose of self-assessment and self-reflection as neither ineffective nor effective (24.6%). Nine counsellors (7.9%) rated the use as very effective, three (2.6%) rated the use of the competency model for the stated purpose as ineffective, and one counsellor (0.9%) rated the use of the competency model for the stated purpose as very ineffective.

We assume that the counsellors rate the use of the competency model for the purpose of self-assessment and self-reflection as effective because 43.9% of the counsellors answered that they consider its use to be effective, and almost 8% of the counsellors rated its use as very effective. This indicates that, overall, more than half consider the use of the competency model for the purpose of self-assessment of and self-reflection on their own work to be effective.

It is clear from the respondents' answers that the counsellors are in favour of using the competency model because they value it as an effective tool for self-evaluation/self-assessment. Many counsellors emphasise the importance of self-assessment and self-reflection, but some are sceptical because they believe that this assessment is too subjective and that such an assessment should also be followed by an objective evaluation in the form of a psychological test. As has already been stated in the answers about the possibilities of upgrading the relevant competency model, we can also see in these answers that some counsellors point out the lack of competencies linked to the level in question, which, in their opinion, is very important for the quality performance of the counselling service's work.

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Starševska vpletenost kot dejavnik enakosti in pravičnosti v šoli

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KLJUČNE BESEDE: pravičnost v izobraževanju, enake izobraževalne možnosti, starševska vpletenost, starševsko sodelovanje, starševska skrb

POVZETEK – V prispevku se osredotočamo na temeljni teoretični načeli enakosti in pravičnosti, iz katerih izhaja načelo enakih možnosti v izobraževanju. Predstavimo izhodišča in izsledke domačih in tujih raziskav z navedenega področja, na podlagi katerih v razpravi iščemo odgovore na postavljena raziskovalna vprašanja, in sicer (1) kakšen je vpliv starševske vpletenosti na izobraževanje otrok, (2) kako se načeli enakosti in pravičnosti kažejo v izobraževalnem sistemu in (3) kako lahko starševsko vpletenost upoštevamo kot dejavnik uresničevanja načela enakosti in pravičnosti pri otrocih, pri katerih je stopnja starševske vpletenosti v njihovo izobraževanje nižja. Iz izsledkov raziskav nesporno izhaja, da ima starševska vpletenost v izobraževanje otrok številne pozitivne učinke na učni uspeh in tudi socializiranost in motiviranost otrok. Ključ do vključevanja staršev se nahaja v oblikovanju ustreznih medosebnih odnosov, pri čemer učitelji upoštevajo raznolikost potreb staršev, njihove različne izkušnje in raznovrstno znanje. Iz raziskav tudi izhaja, da je pomembna ovira, ki omejuje vključevanje staršev v sodelovanje s šolo, občutek manjvrednosti, tako da ugotovljamo, da so potrebni bolj proaktivni in individualno prilagojeni načini vključevanja staršev, ki izhajajo iz tega, v čemer so starši dobri, oz. temeljijo na tem, kaj starši znajo, in ne na tem, česa ne znajo.

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KEYWORDS: equity in education, equal educational opportunities, parental involvement, parental participation, parental care

ABSTRACT – In this paper, we focus on the fundamental theoretical principles of equality and equity, which underpin the principle of equal opportunities in education. The authors present the starting points and findings of domestic and international research in this field, which are used in the discussion to answer the research questions posed, namely (1) what is the impact of parental involvement on children's education, (2) how are the principles of equality and equity manifested in the education system, and (3) how can parental involvement be taken into account as a factor in the implementation of the principle of equality and equity for children with lower levels of parental involvement in their education. There is no doubt from the research findings that parental involvement in children's education has a number of positive effects on children's educational achievement, as well as on their socialisation and motivation. The key to parental involvement lies in the development of appropriate interpersonal relationships, with teachers taking into account the diversity of parents' needs, experiences and skills. Research also shows that a significant barrier limiting parental involvement with schools is a sense of inferiority, so we conclude that more proactive and tailored ways of engaging parents are needed, based on what parents are good at, or based on what parents know rather than what they do not know.

1 Uvod

Temeljni strateški dokument, ki vsebuje strokovne podlage za razvoj sistema vzgoje in izobraževanja, je Bela knjiga o vzgoji in izobraževanju v Republiki Sloveniji (Krek in Metljak, 2011). V njej so opredeljena štiri osnovna načela izobraževanja, in sicer človekove pravice in odgovornost, avtonomija, pravičnost in kakovost (prav tam). Pravičnost je tesno povezana z zagotavljanjem enakih možnosti za uspeh v življenju za vse državljanke, za kar so potrebne enake možnosti za pridobivanje izobrazbe. V Beli knjigi je zapisano:

“Ker je enakost možnosti, ki jih ima nekdo v družbi, močno odvisna od njegovih možnosti za izobraževanje, mora država, ki si prizadeva za pravično družbo, z različnimi ukrepi najprej zagotoviti enake izobraževalne možnosti.” (Krek in Metljak, 2011, str. 14). Vendar na izobraževanje vpliva še vrsta drugih dejavnikov, ki so mnogokrat prisotni že v predšolskem obdobju. Šola je stičišče različnih skupin otrok, ki izhajajo iz raznovrstnih socialno-ekonomskih in kulturnih okolij, poleg tega je k tej raznovrstnosti potrebno dodati tudi določene naravno predisponirane dejavnike, ki se zrcalijo kot psihofizične značilnosti ali naravne danosti (npr. nadarjenost). Tako se v izobraževalnem sistemu pojavi vprašanje, kako tako raznoliki populaciji nuditi enake možnosti na izobraževalni poti.

V zadnjih letih se kot pomemben razlikovalni dejavnik vse bolj pojavlja tudi vpliv staršev in starševska vpletenost v izobraževanje otrok, ki je osrednja tema tega prispevka. Iz izsledkov domačih in tujih raziskav, predstavljenih v nadaljevanju prispevka, nesporno izhaja, da ima starševska vpletenost v izobraževanje otrok številne pozitivne učinke na učni uspeh in tudi socializiranost in motiviranost otrok. Ule (2015) v vpletenosti staršev v šolsko delo in izobraževanje otrok prepoznava nov dejavnik socialne diferenciacije otrok in ugotavlja, da slednji “tiho sankcionira tiste starše in otroke, ki ne znajo ali ne zmorejo ustvariti podporne družinske klime” (Ule, 2015, str. 43). Avtorica Epstein (2011) je poudarila, da se je v zadnjih dveh desetletjih prejšnjega stoletja koncept razmerja med družino in šolo spremenil tako, da se je postopoma vse bolj odmikal od ideje ločevanja med njima proti ideji vse večjega sodelovanja.

Razlike takega sodelovanja se kažejo že v predšolskem obdobju in pomembno vplivajo na nadaljnje izobraževanje. Košak (2010, str. 15) tako povzema rezultate študije kognitivnih sposobnosti otrok ob vstopu v šolo. Ugotavlja (prav tam), da na razlike v kognitivnem funkcioniranju odločilno vpliva tudi stimuliranje, ki so ga otroci deležni v svojem družinskem okolju. Kot avtorica zaključuje (prav tam), se “pomembne razlike pokažejo že pri otrokovem vstopu v šolo, v času njegove primarne socializacije. Ta se odvija predvsem v družini, učinki pa segajo v naslednje stopnje socializacije in so pomembni za otrokovo uspešnost.” (Košak, 2010, str. 15). Tudi v študijah, ki se nanašajo na šolsko obdobje, ugotavljajo podobno. Tako v raziskavi o vpletenosti staršev v otrokovo šolanje (Cugmas idr., 2010) rezultati kažejo, da so starši bolj dejavno vpleteni v šolanje svojih hčerk kot sinov ter osnovnošolcev kot srednješolcev, da so bolj izobraženi starši bolj vpleteni v šolanje svojih otrok kot manj izobraženi starši in da je stopnja vpletenosti staršev v šolanje njihovih otrok pomembno povezana z otrokovim šolskim uspehom in izobrazbenimi aspiracijami. To potrjujejo tudi podatki mednarodnega zbornika Education at a glance (MZIZŠ, 2018) o stanju in učinkih izobraževanja v državah članicah OECD in partnerskih državah ter kažejo na to, da se posamezniki z nižje izobraženimi starši

“še vedno manj vključujejo v predšolske programe, manj jih dokonča srednješolsko izobraževanje in nadaljuje na višjih ravneh izobraževanja v primerjavi s posamezniki, ki imajo vsaj enega od staršev z doseženo višjo ali visokošolsko izobrazbo. Dve tretjini posameznikov, starih 25–64 let, katerih starši nimajo srednješolske izobrazbe, bosta verjetno dosegli višjo izobrazbo kot njihovi starši. Večinoma je to srednješolska poklicna izobrazba.” (MZIZŠ, 2018, str. 3).

Tuja literatura pritrjuje izkušnjam doma. Zasedimo lahko vrsto raziskav (Catsambis in Bever Okidge, 2001; Sheldon in Epstein, 2002; Simon, 2004, Epstein in Rodriguez Jansorn v Cankar idr., 2009), iz katerih izhaja, da sodelovanje staršev s šolo prispeva k boljšim učnim rezultatom učencev v šoli. Tudi Menheere in Hooge (2010) v

preglednem prispevku, v katerem sta preučili številne raziskave s področja, ugotavljata, da obstaja dokaz pozitivnega vpliva vključenosti staršev na izobraževanje in šolske dosežke otrok, na učenje, motivacijo, vztrajnost in socialno vedenje otrok.

2 Metodologija

Namen in cilji

Osrednji namen prispevka temelji na opredelitvi načel enakosti, pravičnosti in enakih možnosti v izobraževanju ter starševske vpletenosti v otrokovo izobraževanje kot enega izmed potencialnih dejavnikov, ki vplivajo na uresničevanje pravičnosti in enakosti v izobraževanju. Dodatno odpiramo še vprašanje o ovirah za starševsko vpletenost v izobraževanje otrok in kako lahko neenakosti, ki izhajajo iz tega, ublažimo ali celo odpravimo. Cilj prispevka je ugotoviti, kako se načeli enakosti in pravičnosti uresničujeta skozi izobraževalni sistem ter kako na uresničevanje teh načel vpliva starševska vpletenost v izobraževanje otrok. Ugotavljamo tudi, katere so možne rešitve, s katerimi bi uresničevali načeli enakosti in pravičnosti pri otrocih, pri katerih je stopnja starševske vpletenosti v njihovo izobraževanje nižja.

Zastavili smo si naslednja raziskovalna vprašanja:

- Kakšen je vpliv starševske vpletenosti na izobraževanje otrok?
- Kako se načeli enakosti in pravičnosti kažejo v izobraževalnem sistemu?
- Kako lahko starševsko vpletenost upoštevamo kot dejavnik uresničevanja načela enakosti in pravičnosti pri otrocih, pri katerih je stopnja starševske vpletenosti v njihovo izobraževanje nižja?

Metode

Prispevek temelji na deskriptivni metodi pedagoškega raziskovanja. S pomočjo le-te bomo opisovali, kakšno je stanje, ki ga preučujemo. Pri tem se bomo opirali na slovensko in tujo literaturo. Uporabili bomo komparativno metodo ter metodo analize in sinteze, s pomočjo katerih bomo primerjali in analizirali različne raziskave z navedenega področja.

3 Razprava

Vpliv starševske vpletenosti na izobraževanje otrok

Po avtorici Novak (2004) je starševstvo v teoriji družinskega prava opredeljeno kot izvajanje ustavnih pravic in dolžnosti staršev, ki ima značaj temeljne človekove pravice. Iz tega pojma izhaja tudi roditeljska pravica oz. starševska skrb, ki omogoča

in hkrati nalaga staršem, da skrbijo za svoje otroke, kar zajema tudi področje vzgoje in izobraževanja (Kraljić, 2014).

Nov Družinski zakonik (Uradni list RS, št. 15/17 in 21/18 – ZNOrg) pojmuje to dolžnostno upravičenje med starši in otroki starševska skrb. V Zakonu o zakonski zvezi in družinskih razmerjih (Uradni list RS, št. 69/04 – uradno prečiščeno besedilo in spremembe), ki je veljal pred Družinskim zakonikom, pa je bilo poimenovano kot roditeljska pravica.

Avtorica pa hkrati ugotavlja (prav tam), da sodobni starši velikokrat to svojo dolžnostno upravičenje jemljejo tako resno, da se njihovo ravnanje odraža kot novodobni pojav intenzivnega starševstva (Kraljić, 2014). Ule (2015) temu pojavu deloma soroden pojem "starševske vpletenosti" opredeljuje "ne le kot sodelovanje staršev v izobraževanju otrok v okviru družine, temveč tudi kot sodelovanje staršev s šolo" (Ule, 2015, str. 33). Menheere in Hooge (2010) poudarjata razlikovanje med dvema pojmom – med starševsko vključenostjo (ang. parental involvement) in sodelovanjem staršev (ang. parental participation). Starševska vključenost je vključevanje staršev v vzgojo in izobraževanje lastnega otroka doma in v šoli, starševsko sodelovanje pa se kaže kot aktivni prispevek staršev pri šolskih dejavnostih (Smit idr., 2007 v Menheere in Hooge, 2010). Oba pojma se medsebojno povezujeta, kaže pa se tendenca, da ima starševska vpletenost večji pozitivni učinek na otrokov razvoj (Desforges in Abouchaar, 2003 v Menheere in Hooge, 2010). Berčnik in Devjak (2018) navajata, da je

"sodelovanje s starši ključni faktor učinkovite vzgoje in izobraževanja, partnerstvo med šolo in starši pa naj bi spodbujalo k skupni zavezanosti k uspehu posameznega učenca, oblikovalo etos razumevanja in odprtosti v odnosih med šolo in starši ter pomagalo staršem razviti pozitivno vlogo pomoči pri vzgoji in izobraževanju njihovega otroka" (Berčnik in Devjak, 2018, str. 73).

Vec (2009) navaja izsledke dveh longitudinalnih študij, in sicer Morisona idr. (2003), ki opozarjajo, da je že interakcija matere z otrokom, ki je komaj vključen v vrtec, povezana tako s socialnim vedenjem kot z ucnim uspehom, in Izza idr. (1999), ki na podlagi empiričnih podatkov ugotavljajo, da je starševska skrb za šolsko delo najpomembnejši dejavnik pri napovedovanju šolskega učnega uspeha otroka. Razlogi staršev za sodelovanje so različni in so pogojeni s starostjo otrok, vrsto šole in krajevnimi posebnostmi. Različni avtorji (Peklaj in Pečjak, 2015; Berčnik in Devjak, 2017) poudarjajo, da je sodelovanje med šolo in starši pomembno tako za učno uspešnost kot za njihovo socialno prilagojenost. To potrjujejo tudi avtorji Kalin, Resman, Šteh, Mrvar, Govekar-Okoliš, Mažgon (2009), ki izpostavljajo, da je sodelovanje med domom in šolo namenjeno boljšemu delu in razvoju otrok, vendar ne smemo pozabiti, da tako sodelovanje lajša ali otežuje življenje in delo učiteljev in staršev. Dobri ali slabi učinki sodelovanja se ne pojavljajo ločeno, ampak najpogosteje verižno. Ob tem velja opozoriti tudi na Bronfenbrennerjevo (1994; 2005) ekološkossistemsko teorijo, ki izpostavlja pomen kompleksne dvosmerne interakcije med posameznikom in okoljem, pri čemer posameznika opredeljuje kot rastočo, dinamično osebo, ki se postopno vključuje v okolje in ga spreminja. Interakcijo med osebo in okoljem tako jasno razume in opisuje kot dvosmerno oziroma recipročno. Okolje, kjer se posameznik razvija, poleg tega ni omejeno na eno samo okolje, temveč je razširjeno tako, da vključuje medsebojne povezave med različnimi okolji in zunanje vplive, ki prihajajo iz posameznikove širše okolice.

Majerčikova in Puhrova (2019) sta v raziskavi, ki je vključevala učence v starosti od 7 do 12 let na Češkem, ugotovili, da so učne aspiracije velike in povezane z zahtevami in pričakovanji njihovih staršev. Pri tem se je socialno-ekonomski status staršev pokazal kot pomembna spremenljivka. Avtorici (prav tam) pri rezultatih izpostavljata tudi, da imajo starši pomembno vlogo tudi pri obšolskih dejavnostih, kjer so starši najmanj v vlogi pobudnikov pri oblikovanju interesov in hobijev svojih otrok.

Že uvodoma smo izpostavili ugotovitve avtorice Ule (2015), ki v vpletenosti staršev v šolsko delo in izobraževanje otrok prepoznava nov dejavnik socialne diferenciacije otrok. Košak (2010) k temu dodaja, da razlike v predšolski socializaciji vplivajo na raven dosežkov v izobraževalnem sistemu. Kot pojasnjuje avtorica (prav tam), so otroci manj izobraženih staršev ob vstopu v šolo praviloma v slabšem položaju, saj so za učno uspešnost pomembni dejavniki tudi dejavnosti, ki se odvijajo v družini.

“Otroci manj izobraženih staršev so praviloma deležni manj ali sploh nič obiskov kulturnih prireditev, doma imajo manj knjig in slovarjev, spodbud za branje, manj didaktičnih igrac, nimajo računalnika ali celo svoje pisalne mize. Zanje je šola velikokrat edina, ki jim omogoči in ponudi različne izlete, ogledne prireditev, uporabo knjig, računalnika ipd. Ti otroci so v primerjavi s tistimi, ki so že v zelo zgodnjih otroških letih deležni vsega omenjenega, v neenakem položaju.” (Košak, 2010, str. 16).

Razlike so vidne tudi v pričakovanjih staršev glede učnega uspeha svojih otrok. Medtem ko manj izobraženi starši gojijo nizka pričakovanja, imajo nasprotno bolj izobraženi starši, kot pravi avtorica (prav tam), “praviloma že izdelano vizijo za prihodnost svojega otroka” (Košak, 2010, str. 16) in lahko zaradi boljše ekonomske situacije otrokom nudijo boljše motivacijsko okolje in nagrajevanje, medtem ko manj izobraženi starši velikokrat otrokom niti ne znajo pomagati ali so tudi pri tem ohromljeni zaradi lastnih slabih izkušenj s šolo.

Postavlja se torej vprašanje, kako dejavnik starševske vpletenosti v izobraževanje otrok približati spoštovanju načel enakosti in pravičnosti v izobraževalnem sistemu, do česar se opredeljujemo v nadaljevanju prispevka.

Enakost in pravičnost v izobraževanju

Kodelja (2006) povzema široko sprejeto definicijo pojma pravičnosti, ki ima dva osnovna pomena. “Enkrat pomeni skladnost ravnanja z neko normo: naravno, božansko ali pozitivno, drugič pa pomeni enakost.” (Kodelja, 2006, str. 11). Splošno načelo o enakih možnostih pa je načelo, na katerem slonijo sodobne socialne demokracije, izhaja pa iz “klasičnega pravila o pravičnosti” (Kodelja, 2006, str. 29), ki v osnovi pravi, da je potrebno enake obravnavati enako in neenake različno. Za pojma enakost in pravičnost so tako v pravnem kot tudi pedagoškem smislu na voljo številne razlage. Rawlsovo teorijo pravičnosti (Rawls, 1971), ki jo tudi Kodelja (2006) navaja kot najbolj pomembno teorijo pravičnosti v sodobni družbi, je potrebno razumeti kot temeljno vrtilino družbenih institucij (Košak, 2010). Kodelja (2004) sicer ugotavlja, da Rawls večkrat omenja vzgojo in izobraževanje, ampak se v svojem temeljnem delu *The theory of justice* do njiju neposredno ne opredeljuje. Avtor (prav tam) še nadaljuje, da se Rawls v imenu enakih možnosti zavzema za sistem javnega šolstva ter da pojem poštene enakosti v tem kon-

tekstu pomeni, da “vlada poskuša zagotoviti enake izobraževalne in kulturne možnosti tistim, ki so podobno nadarjeni in motivirani, bodisi s subvencioniranjem zasebnih šol bodisi z ustanovitvijo javnega šolskega sistema” (Rawls, 1999 v Kodelja, 2004, str. 395).

Sardoč (2013) pravi, da “enake izobraževalne možnosti tradicionalno povežemo z vrsto različnih idealov, ki so v sodobni pluralni družbi – bolj ali manj – nevprašljivi” (Sardoč, 2013, str. 49), kar v nadaljevanju razčlenjuje s tremi med seboj povezanimi sklopi. Prvi je ta, da imajo vsi posamezniki omogočen dostop do ustrezne izobrazbe, drugi se nanaša na to, tako avtor (prav tam), da t. i. “moralno arbitrarni dejavniki” (Sardoč, 2013, str. 49), ki jih razlaga kot spol, raso, veroizpoved, etnično pripadnost, socialno-ekonomski položaj, ne vplivajo na postopke, s katerimi posamezniki želijo doseči in zasesti določene družbene položaje, tretji pa se nanaša na to, da se določen položaj dodeli najboljšemu kandidatu. Tako avtor (prav tam) zaključuje, da so v tem smislu enake izobraževalne možnosti “eden od temeljev javnega šolanja ter eden od osnovnih mehanizmov zagotavljanja pravičnosti v okviru procesov distribucije selektivnih družbenih položajev” (Sardoč, 2013, str. 49).

Če od tu dalje sledimo vsebini in pomenu enakih možnosti v izobraževanju, po razlagi avtorice Novak (2004) načelo enakih možnosti v izobraževanju pomeni, da “mora vsak otrok imeti enake možnosti do izobrazbe, ki ustreza njegovemu življenjskemu načrtu oziroma načrtu njegovih staršev” (Novak, 2004, str. 133). Avtorica (prav tam) tako zaključuje, da je država tako odgovorna, da zagotovi vsem otrokom enake izhodiščne možnosti. Košak (2011) povzema, da izraz enake možnosti pomeni “enako dostopnost do izobrazbe in enaka izhodišča na začetku izobraževanja oziroma šolanja” (Košak, 2011, str. 11). Pri tem avtorica (prav tam) pojasnjuje, da enakost izhodišč pomeni enako začetno možnost za vse, kar predvsem vključuje ustrezne materialne pogoje in druge okoliščine, pomembne za posameznika. Z drugimi besedami – če želimo vse posameznike postaviti v enak izhodiščni položaj, je potrebno “privilegirati deprivilegirane in deprivilegirati privilegirane. To pomeni, da umetno ustvarimo razlike, ki jih prej ni bilo.” (Košak, 2010, str. 11). Podobno ponazarja Levitan (Forum of the American Journal of Education, 2016), ki pojasnjuje, da načelo enakosti zagotavlja vsem učencem enako količino dobrin, nasprotno pa se po načelu pravičnosti prepoznava različne potrebe posameznikov, ki zahtevajo različne začetne podpore, da bi lahko bili izenačeni v izhodišču doseganja istega cilja. Ta pomoč ni enaka za vse učence, ampak neenakomerna glede na osnovni položaj posameznika z namenom, da s to neenakomernostjo postavimo vse v enak izhodiščni položaj.

Splošno razumevanje enakosti v izobraževanju je, da morajo šole vsem učencem ponuditi enako izobrazbo. Tako bodo imeli vsi učenci enako možnost. Skupno razumevanje pravičnosti izobraževanja je, da je treba vsem otrokom zagotoviti izobraževanje, ki ga potrebujejo za doseganje določenih rezultatov. Obe ideji sta na prvi pogled smiselni in se jasno povežeta z idejami pravičnosti. Če pa se te ideje uporabi za usmerjanje političnih pristopov, se lahko pojavijo neželene posledice (Forum of the American Journal of Education, 2016). Tudi Rawls (v Kodelja, 2004) načelo poštene enakosti možnosti razlikuje od formalne enakosti možnosti. Pravi (prav tam), da

“formalna enakost izključuje le pravne ovire, ki preprečujejo nekaterim posameznikom, da bi dosegli določene družbene ali izobrazbene položaje. Za pošteno enakost možnosti pa ni dovolj, da so ti položaji dostopni vsem v formalnem pomenu, temveč mora vsakdo imeti poštene možnosti, da jih tudi zares doseže.” (Rawls, 1999 v Kodelja, 2004, str. 396).

Starševska vpletenost kot dejavnik enakosti in pravičnosti v izobraževanju

Avtorica Epstein (2011) ugotavlja, da so deležniki v vzgojno-izobraževalnem procesu (vzgojitelji, učitelji in strokovni delavci) usposobljeni za poučevanje oz. organizacijo pedagoškega procesa, hkrati pa ugotavlja, da je večina nepripravljena za učinkovito delo na področju, ki je, kot pravi avtorica, “stalnica v življenju” – delo z družinami učencev.

Pri iskanju odgovora o delitvi odgovornosti med starši in učitelji se največkrat v ospredje postavlja vprašanja o prednostih in slabostih vključevanja staršev v šolo ter ovirah, ki to vključevanje preprečujejo.

V empirični raziskavi projekta *Vzvodi uspešnega sodelovanja med šolo in domom* (Kalin idr., 2008) so si raziskovalci postavili vrsto raziskovalnih problemov, vezanih na sodelovanje med šolo in domom. Za potrebe tega prispevka izpostavljamo le del izsledkov, ki se nanašajo na izhodišča za sodelovanje staršev, ovire, ki sodelovanje preprečujejo, in kako starše vključiti v aktivno sodelovanje z učitelji oz. šolo. Avtorji (prav tam) so ugotovili, da je pomembno, da ima učitelj pred očmi starše vseh otrok v oddelku in da v svoji profesionalnosti upošteva njihovo raznolikost izkušenj in potreb. Temeljnega pomena je po mnenju staršev graditev ustreznih medosebnih odnosov. Zanimivo je, da učitelji vidijo rešitev predvsem v neformalnih oblikah sodelovanja – od delavnic za starše do različnih oblik medsebojnega druženja –, a to je zanimivo predvsem za starše z višjo formalno izobrazbo (Kalin idr., 2008). Avtorji (prav tam) še navajajo, da aktivno vlogo pri komunikaciji šole in staršev odigrajo otroci, ki so kot “poštariji”, ki prenašajo sporočila iz šole domov in od doma v šolo (Kalin idr., 2008).

Osnovna odgovornost šole je, da skozi dobro komuniciranje stalno in učinkovito informira starše o šolskem programu in učenčevem napredovanju. Za ta namen lahko šola uporablja različne načine komuniciranja – od pisnih sporočil, obvestil, časopisov do roditeljskih sestankov in uporabe sodobne informacijsko-komunikacijske tehnologije (elektronska pošta, šolske spletne strani, spletni forumi ipd.). Kot pravi Košak (2010), morajo biti učitelji dovolj občutljivi in prepoznati različnost učencev in upoštevati pozitivno diskriminacijo deprivilegiranih tudi v primerih, ki jih ne zajema zakonodaja. In kot avtorica poudarja (prav tam), je sodelovanje s starši zelo pomemben element zagotavljanja enakosti in pravičnosti, saj lahko s komunikacijo in razvojem medsebojnega partnerstva učitelj prepozna njihove želje in potrebe in skupaj z njimi sooblikuje “varen in uspešen prostor za vsakega otroka v šoli” (Košak, 2010, str. 18). Rezultati iz analize, ki sta jo opravili Menheere in Hooge (2010), kažejo, da bi morale šole pri pristopih za večjo vključenost staršev v šolske dejavnosti upoštevati tudi razlike med starši. Prav tako Crozier (2009) v svoji študiji analizira stališča staršev delavskega razreda v Veliki Britaniji o njihovi vlogi in odnosu, ki ju imajo pri izobraževanju svojih otrok. Kot avtor (prav tam) ugotavlja, imajo starši “s stališča svoje vloge res pragmatičen in kar fatalističen pogled na izobraževanje svojih otrok”. Kot avtor (prav tam) trdi v nadaljevanju, na tako percepcijo vplivajo učitelji, ki dajejo staršem občutek superiornosti, in tako meni, da so potrebni bolj proaktivni in prilagojeni načini vključevanja staršev, s katerimi bi skupaj razvili partnerski odnos med starši in šolo. Tako tudi Cankar, Kolar in Deutsch (2009) zaključujejo, da morajo šole, katerih cilj je vplivati na izboljšanje uspešnosti učencev, snovati partnerske programe, ki povezujejo družino in šolo v dejavnostih, ki spodbudno vplivajo na uspešnost otrok v šoli.

Kot smo že predhodno ugotavljali, so ena izmed ovir za vključevanje staršev njihove negativne izkušnje s šolo oz. dvom v lastne sposobnosti in znanje, da bi lahko pomagali otrokom pri šolskem delu. Kot eno izmed ključnih strategij, ki vodijo k uspešnemu partnerstvu med šolo in starši, O'Toole, Jan Kiely, McGillacuddy, O'Brien in O'Keefe (2019) prepoznajo proaktivnost pri vzpostavljanju pozitivnega odnosa s starši, ki vključuje odpravljanje ovir, ki temeljijo na tradicionalnih strukturah moči. Šole se tako osredotočajo predvsem na to, da prepoznajo in poudarjajo, v čem so posamezni starši dobri (njihovi talenti, znanja), oziroma, kot pravi Cooter (2006 v Menheere in Hooge, 2010), morajo biti osredotočene na to, kaj starši znajo, in ne na to, česa ne znajo. Avtorji (O'Toole idr., 2019) prav tako izpostavljajo, da je pomembno, da se stiki med učitelji in starši vzpostavijo iz pozitivnih razlogov in ne kot zgolj negativna interakcija v primeru težav otroka v šoli. V tem kontekstu Krmac (2021) izpostavlja, da se vse bolj pomembno mesto pripisuje avtoetnografiji, ki lahko ne le izboljša poučevanje učitelja in njegov odnos z učenci, ampak tudi odnos med učitelji in starši otrok. Z avtoetnografijo oziroma s takim načinom pisanja se namreč učitelji lahko približajo staršem, saj starši bolje razumejo, v kakšnih situacijah se znajdejo učitelji, kako poteka proces poučevanja in s kakšnimi izzivi se sooča učitelj pri poučevanju.

4 Sklepne ugotovitve

V prispevku smo obravnavali pojav starševske vpletenosti v izobraževanje otrok z vidika vpliva, ki ga slednji ima na spoštovanje načel enakosti, enakopravnosti in pravičnosti v šoli. Pri opredeljevanju pojma starševske vpletenosti ugotavljamo, da se ta praviloma pojavi z vpisom otroka v šolo, pri čemer pa domače in tuje študije kažejo, da je že takrat moč zaznati pomembne razlike pri kognitivnih funkcijah kot rezultat stimulacij staršev v predšolskem obdobju in da nedvomno obstaja močan dokaz pozitivnega vpliva vključenosti staršev na izobraževanje in šolske dosežke otrok.

Razprava, kako uresničevati načeli enakosti in pravičnosti pri otrocih, pri katerih je stopnja starševske vpletenosti v njihovo izobraževanje nižja, nas vodi do ugotovitve, da je ključ do vključevanja staršev, ki izhajajo iz različnih kulturnih in socialno-ekonomskih okolij, graditev ustreznih medosebnih odnosov, pri čemer učitelji upoštevajo njihovo raznolikost potreb, izkušenj in znanj. Iz raziskav tudi izhaja, da je pomembna ovira, ki omejuje vključevanje staršev v sodelovanje s šolo, občutek manjvrednosti, tako da ugotavljamo, da so potrebni bolj proaktivni in prilagojeni načini vključevanja staršev, ki izhajajo iz tega, v čem so starši dobri, oz. temeljijo na tem, kaj starši znajo, in ne na tem, česa ne.

Pozitivni učinki starševske vpletenosti na izobraževanje otrok so nedvomni, ključ do uspeha pa je v tem, kot pravi avtorica Košak (2010), da so učitelji dovolj občutljivi in zmorejo oz. znajo prepoznati različnost učencev in posledično njihovega družinskega okolja. Ko se te razlike prepozna, je potrebno prilagoditi pristope in načine, s katerimi se starše, upoštevajoč njihovo raznolikost, vključi v partnerstvo s šolo. Tako Menheere in Hooge (2010) poudarjata, da sta pomemben element sodelovanja med šolo in družino obojestransko zaupanje in partnerstvo, kar pa ni samoumevno. Na vzpostavitev partnerstva vpliva razlika "v moči" in strokovnosti med učitelji in starši. Klemenčič Rozman

in Poljšak Škraban (2020) zagovarjata stališče, da so strahovi učiteljev pred vključevanjem staršev odveč (strah izgube avtonomije), pri čemer poudarjata (prav tam), da je za omogočanje enakopravnega odnosa nujno potrebno jasno opredeliti pozicijo udeleženih v dialogu in odgovornosti zanj ter s skupnim namenom in skupnim ciljem podpreti otroka in njegov razvoj.

Martina Kovačič Kuzmič, Jurka Lepičnik Vodopivec, PhD

Parental Involvement as a Factor of Equality and Justice in School

A society with multiple opportunities and knowledge should ensure the fundamental human rights and values of modern society for all individuals. In this article, we focus on the most important aspects in implementing the basic principles of equality, equity and equal opportunities in education. These are issues which are still relevant today and are the subject of much debate among shareholders in the field of education. As reported by Lakota B. and Sardoč (2015), in OECD and EU member states, there is a general consensus among both experts and education policy makers on the importance of ensuring equal educational opportunities and fundamental human rights within the public education system. Over the last decades, most of the mentioned countries have increased their efforts to guarantee equal opportunities both in educational institutions and in societies in general.

The main strategic document for the development of the education system is the White Paper on Education in the Republic of Slovenia, hereafter referred to as the White Paper (Krek & Metljak, 2011). As the authors of the White Paper point out, "education and training are a necessary condition for all citizens in modern societies, which are based on liberal and democratic principles, to have an equal chance to succeed in life" (Krek & Metljak 2011, p. 14). It identifies four basic principles of education, namely human rights and responsibility, autonomy, equity and quality (ibid.). Equity is closely linked to ensuring equal opportunities for all citizens to succeed in life, which requires equal access to education. According to the White Paper (ibid.): "Since the equality of opportunities that a person has in society depends to a large extent on his or her access to education, a country striving for a just society must first ensure equality of educational opportunities through a variety of measures." (ibid., p. 14). However, education is influenced by a range of other factors, many of which are already present in the pre-school years. School is a meeting point for different groups of children from diverse socio-economic and cultural backgrounds. This raises the question of how to offer such a diverse population equal educational opportunities in the education system.

If discussions on the equity of public schooling are at the heart of debates on the issue of ensuring equality and on the acceptance and respect of diversity (Kodelja 2006), the issue of ensuring equal educational opportunities is its logical continuation, since the social status and social mobility of an individual are strongly dependent on his or her achievements or performance in the process of schooling in general. This is why the debate on the equity of public schooling is central to the issue of ensuring equality and on the issue of acceptance and respect for diversity (Kodelja, 2006). The author (ibid.) points out that too little attention is still paid to equity in education, and adds that it is

particularly troubling, because it is one of the fundamental virtues of social institutions (Rawls & Kodelja, 2006), which undoubtedly include kindergartens and schools. As Novak (2004) notes, the principle of equal opportunities in education means that “Every child should have an equal opportunity to an education that fits his or her life plan or that of his or her parents.” (Novak, 2004, p. 133). The author (*ibid.*) thus concludes that the state has a duty to ensure that all children have an equal starting point. With the democratization of the school environment, other stakeholders besides children and teachers are increasingly entering the school environment, especially parents.

Bronfenbrenner’s (1994) cultural context theory is based on the assumption that the child develops within the changing life environments with which he or she interacts. The author presents the environment as a set of interconnected systems, in which a person’s/child’s everyday life takes place and which have a significant impact on his/her development. Thus, within the framework of the theory, he identifies four levels of environmental influences on the child, starting with those close to the child, and in which he/she is directly involved, to those quite distant from him/her, and in which he/she is not directly involved. The author stresses that the child is at the center of the system, while the layers of the environment spread around him in concentric circles and influence his or her development to a greater or lesser extent. The parents are the closest to the child in the first system, which Bronfenbrenner (*ibid.*) calls the microsystem. It is thus quite understandable that parental influence and parental involvement in children’s education is an important factor that became of interest to researchers and stakeholders (parents, educators, teachers, etc.) involved in the child’s microsystem decades ago.

In this article, the authors focus on the fundamental theoretical principles of equality and equity, which underpin the principle of equal opportunities in education. The objectives are to identify how the principles of equality and equity are implemented through the education system and how parental involvement in their children’s education influences the implementation of these principles. The research questions are: What is the impact of parental involvement on children’s education? How are the principles of equality and equity reflected in the education system? How can parental involvement be considered as a factor in the implementation of the principles of equality and equity?

The article is based on a descriptive method of pedagogical research. The comparative method and the methods of analysis and synthesis are used to compare and analyse the findings of different researches in the field. In doing so, we will draw on Slovenian and foreign literature.

The authors note that the theory of family law defines parenthood as the exercise of the constitutional rights and duties of parents and that it has the character of a fundamental human right (Novak, 2004), which is implied in the parental right or parental care, which also includes parental care for the upbringing and education of children (Kraljić, 2014). Kraljić (*ibid.*) points out that modern parents approach parenthood with excessive seriousness, which can lead to intrusive parenthood. In addition to the involvement of parents with children, Ule (2015) points to the dimension of parents’ involvement with schools. Menheere and Hooge (2010) highlight a distinction between two concepts – parental involvement and parental participation. Parental involvement is the involvement of parents in their own child’s education, both at home and at school, while parental participation is the active contribution of parents in school activities (Smit et al. 2007; Menheere & Hooge, 2010).

Epstein (2011) pointed out that in the last two decades of the 20th century, the concept of the relationship between family and school changed in a way that gradually moved away from the idea of a separation between the two towards one of increasing collaboration. This raises the question of how to bring the factor of parental involvement in children's education closer to respecting the principles of equality and equity in the education system.

The general understanding of equality in education is that schools should offer the same education to all children. This will ensure that all children have the same opportunities. A common understanding of educational equity is that all children should be provided with the education they need to achieve certain outcomes. Both ideas seem relevant at first sight and are clearly linked to ideas of equity. However, if these ideas are used to guide policy approaches, unintended consequences can arise (Forum of the American Journal of Education, 2016). Rawls and Kodelja (2004) also distinguish the principle of fair equality of opportunity from formal equality of opportunity.

With regard to parental involvement as a factor of equality and equity, we highlight the findings of Epstein (2011), who concludes that stakeholders in the educational process (educators, teachers and practitioners) are trained to teach or organize the pedagogical process, but also that most are unprepared to work effectively in an area that, as the author contends, is "a constant in life" – working with children's families. In search for answers to dividing responsibilities between parents and teachers, the questions that most often come to the fore are the advantages and disadvantages of involving parents in school and the obstacles that prevent this involvement. In an empirical study conducted as part of the Factors of Successful School-Home Cooperation project (Kalin et al. 2008), researchers set out to address a number of research questions related to school – home cooperation. The authors (ibid.) concluded that it is important for a teacher to be aware of the parents of all the children in class and to take into account the diversity of their experiences and needs in his or her professionalism. Parents consider it fundamental to build appropriate interpersonal relationships.

The school's primary responsibility is to keep parents informed about the school's curriculum and their children's progress through good communication. To this end, the school can use a variety of means – from written communications, notices, newspapers to parent-teacher conferences and the use of modern information and communication technology (e-mail, school websites, internet forums, etc.). According to Košak (2010), teachers must be sensitive enough to recognise the diversity of children and take into account positive discrimination against the disadvantaged, even in cases not covered by legislation. And as the author points out (ibid.), collaboration with parents is a very important element in ensuring equality and equity, because through communication and the development of a mutual partnership, the teacher can identify their wishes and needs and, together with them, co-create "a safe and successful space for every child in school" (Košak, 2010, p. 18). From the analysis carried out by Menheere and Hooge (2010), the results suggest that schools should also take into account differences between parents in their approaches to increase parental involvement in school activities.

Research shows that parental involvement in children's education has a number of positive effects on children's academic achievement, as well as on their socialization and motivation. The key to parental involvement lies in the development of appropriate interpersonal relationships, where teachers take into account the diversity of parents'

needs, experiences and skills. Research also shows that a significant barrier limiting parental involvement with schools is a sense of inferiority, so we conclude that more proactive and tailored ways of engaging parents are needed, based on what parents are good at, or based on what parents know rather than what they do not know.

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Opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom v visokošolskem prostoru

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KLJUČNE BESEDE: opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom, profesionalni razvoj visokošolskih učiteljev, pedagoške kompetence, kolegialno opazovanje prakse, reflektirajoči praktik

POVZETEK – V članku predstavljamo rezultate raziskave o prispevku opazovanja z reflektivnim razgovorom k profesionalnemu razvoju visokošolskih učiteljev. Raziskava je bila izvedena kot študija primera opazovanja pedagoške prakse dveh visokošolskih učiteljev. V polstrukturiranih intervjujih smo ugotavljali prispevek opazovanja z reflektivnim razgovorom k profesionalnemu razvoju visokošolskega učitelja ter dejavnike, ki vplivajo, da opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom podpira profesionalni razvoj visokošolskega učitelja. Ugotovili smo, da opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom spodbuja uvedbo konkretnih sprememb v prakso, visokošolske učitelje podpira pri samoevalvaciji ter refleksiji lastne prakse in spodbuja profesionalne diskusije. Dejavniki vpliva pa so: večšine opazovalca ter večšine in osebnostne lastnosti opazovanega, vsebinsko poznavanje področja dela opazovanega, medkolegialno zaupanje, stopnja samokritičnosti opazovanega, motivacija za profesionalni razvoj, akademska kultura. Predlagamo sistemsko ureditev profesionalnega razvoja visokošolskih učiteljev na področju krepitev pedagoških kompetenc.

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KEYWORDS: observation with reflective discussion, professional development of higher education teachers, pedagogical competencies, peer observation of teaching, reflective practitioner

ABSTRACT – This article presents the results of a research on the contribution of observation with reflective discussion in fostering the professional development of higher education teachers. The study employed a case study approach, observing the pedagogical practices of two higher education teachers. Through semi-structured interviews, we assessed the impact of observation with reflective discussion on the professional development of higher education teachers, as well as the influencing factors supporting this process. Our findings indicate that observation with reflective discussion facilitates the implementation of tangible changes in teaching practices, supports higher education teachers in self-assessment and reflection on their own practices, and encourages professional discussions. Influencing factors supporting this process include the observer's competencies, the skills and personal attributes of the observed, domain-specific knowledge of the observer, the level of mutual trust between the observed and the observer, the capacity for self-critique of the observed, their motivation for professional growth, and the prevailing academic culture. We propose a systematic regulation of the professional development for higher education teachers to strengthen pedagogical competencies.

1 Uvod

V današnjem času vse bolj narašča potreba po večjem vlaganju v raziskovanje visokošolskega (v nadaljevanju: VŠ) prostora in v usposabljanje VŠ osebja (Vršnik Perše, 2021), kar je nedvomno posledica (tudi; op. a.) nenehnih sprememb “v znanosti, tehnologiji, kulturi, gospodarstvu in politiki” (Hmelak idr., 2020, str. 150). Raziskovanje VŠ prostora in usposabljanje VŠ osebja je pomembno še posebej zaradi dejstva, da univerza kljub kritikam glede kakovosti in učinkovitosti prenašanja raziskovalnih rezultatov v

uporabo in poučevalno prakso (Light idr., 2009) ohranja svoje dvojno poslanstvo, ki ga ima že od nekdaj: raziskovanje in poučevanje, ki se kaže tudi v dvojni nalogi VŠ učiteljev: raziskovalni in pedagoški (Mezgec, 2020). Pri tem ne smemo spregledati dejstva, da VŠ učitelji pogosto primarno niso pedagoški delavci, temveč znanstveniki, ki morajo del svojega časa posvetiti poučevanju (Graham, 2015). Znano je, da je znotraj evropskega prostora na sistemski ravni še vedno precej bolj izpostavljeno vrednotenje kazalnikov, ki so vezani na raziskovalno delo, kot pa vrednotenje profesionalnega razvoja VŠ učitelja na področju pedagoškega udejstvovanja (Graham, 2015; Vršnik Perše, 2021). Pri tem pa ni pomembna samo enkratna izkušnja vključenosti v dejavnost profesionalnega razvoja, temveč sinergija izkušenj različnih dejavnosti profesionalnega razvoja, v katere je VŠ učitelj vključen, ter post festum interakcije med VŠ učitelji, ki se udeležujejo dejavnosti profesionalnega razvoja (Rutz idr., 2012).

Ivanuš Grmek in Bezjak (2021, str. 38) na osnovi pregleda literature in raziskav v slovenskem prostoru (npr. Cvetek, 2015; Ivanuš Grmek idr., 2020; Marentič Požarnik, 1998a, 1998b; Marentič Požarnik, 2001; Marentič Požarnik in Lavrič, 2011; Marentič Požarnik idr., 2019; Marentič Požarnik, 2020; Vekić Kljaić in Lučić, 2021) izpostavlja ta, da so "za kakovostno in učinkovito izvajanje poučevanja /.../ še posebej pomembni refleksija, zavedanje in izboljševanje didaktične usposobljenosti in profesionalni razvoj VŠ učiteljev". Košir (2021, str. 55) poudarja, da je zaradi potrebe po izboljševanju pedagoških kompetenc pomembno, da so visokošolski učitelji "sistemsko spodbujeni k izboljševanju svojih pedagoških kompetenc". To utemeljuje na osnovi analize rezultatov raziskav, ki kažejo, da dobro poznavanje strokovnega področja še ni napovednik kakovostnega poučevanja *per se* na tem področju, prav tako "veščine, vezane na dobro pedagoško delo, niso stvar osebnostnih lastnosti, intuicije ali kakršnih koli drugih prirojenih sposobnosti učitelja". Poudari, da gre za kompetence, ki jih je treba sistematično izgrajevati, in sicer preko stalnega reflektiranja svoje pedagoške prakse z namenom izboljševanja lastnega poučevanja.

Govorimo o potrebi po vzpostavljanju pogojev, ki bodo VŠ učiteljem omogočili, da postanejo reflektirajoči praktiki; tj. učitelji, ki se učijo iz svojega *razmišljanja* o izkušnjah in med izkušnjami (Schön, 1983; Maksimović in Osmanović, 2018). Je pa izvajanje refleksije težavno, če to počne posameznik sam. Reflektirajoči učitelj zatorej potrebuje podporo, da svoje poučevanje "*sooč*i" z lastnimi izkušnjami in poznavanjem teorije, pri čemer proces refleksije postane sredstvo za rekonceptualizacijo pedagoške prakse. Iz tega izhaja, da reflektivna praksa pomeni predvsem *premislek* o lastnem procesu poučevanja; omogoča nam, da se vprašamo, *zakaj* in *kako* izvajamo svojo prakso (Chappell, 2007).

Eden od načinov, ki učiteljem pomaga, da postanejo reflektirajoči praktiki, je vključenost v proces medkolegialnih opazovanj z reflektivnimi razgovori. Nekateri tuji avtorji (Ackerman idr., 2009; Martin in Double, 1998; Yon idr., 2002) izpostavljajo, da se v VŠ prostoru za namen profesionalnega razvoja VŠ učiteljev vedno pogosteje uporablja kolegialno opazovanje prakse (KOP). KOP ima svoje teoretsko izhodišče v eksperimentalnem učenju (Martin in Double, 1998). Gosling (2002) navaja tri KOP-modele, in sicer evalvacijskega, razvojnega in sodelovalnega. Pri tem pa Hammersley-Fletcher in Orsmond (2007) poudarita, da postane orodje profesionalnega razvoja in ne mehanizem nadzora uspešnosti učiteljskega dela le, ko ga razumemo kot razvojni in/ali sodelovalni model.

Podobno kot Hammersley-Fletcher in Orsmond (2007) KOP razume Chappell (2007). Izpostavi pomen opazovanja VŠ učitelja pri poučevanju ter reflektivni razgovor, ki opazovanju sledi, in sicer z namenom zagotavljanja profesionalnega razvoja VŠ učitelja ter presoje pomena in primernosti načinov poučevanja študentov. Opazovanja niso namenjena ocenjevanju VŠ učitelja, pač pa prispevajo k prepoznavanju močnih področij, z njimi se predlaga področja izboljšav, ki bi jim bilo treba posvetiti dodatno pozornost, ali pa ponudi alternativne pristope. KOP tako “predstavlja obliko medsebojne podpore učiteljev, ki jim pomaga pri dvigu kakovosti pedagoškega procesa. Zaradi možnosti izmenjave izkušenj in razprave o kakovosti poučevanja, refleksije lastnega poučevanja, ki jo sproži konstruktivna kritika tujega in lastnega dela ter preizkušanja novih in učinkovitejših načinov dela z učenci, se je izkazal kot pomemben proces, ki spodbuja profesionalni razvoj.” (Labak idr., 2022, str. 82).

KOP je običajno strukturiran kot tridelni proces: predopazovalni sestanek, na katerem se opazovalec in opazovani dogovorita o področju opazovanja, opazovanje ter reflektivni razgovor, na katerem opazovalec in opazovani analizirata opazovano uro s perspektive tako opazovalca kot opazovanega (Carroll in O’Loughlin, 2014; Hammersley-Fletcher in Orsmond, 2007). Zeng (2020) v dejavnosti pred neposrednim opazovanjem vključuje poleg srečanja med opazovalcem in opazovanim še usposabljanje za izvedbo opazovanja, v dejavnosti po opazovanju pa poleg reflektivnega razgovora še oblikovanje akcijskega načrta.

Učenje, ki se v okviru KOP zgodi, se najpogosteje pripisuje opazovanemu, in sicer kot rezultat komentarjev opazovalca ter kasnejše refleksije opazovane osebe (Bell, 2002; Cosh, 1999; Hammersley-Fletcher in Orsmond, 2007). Labak, Sabljic in Škugor (2022, str. 87) ugotavljajo, da bi “KOP lahko umestili v kontekst vseživljenjskega učenja, in sicer kot proces, ki formalno vseživljenjsko učenje dopolnjuje z neformalnim oz. učenjem na delovnem mestu prek izvajanja delovnih nalog”. Pri tem Chappell (2007) ugotavlja, da je uporabnost reflektivnih razgovorov po opazovanju močno odvisna od posameznikove (opazovančeve) osebnosti, odprtosti za povratne informacije in v veliki meri od zavzetosti za sodelovanje v procesu refleksije. Temu pritrjuje tudi Hogston (1995), ki pravi, da bo proces reflektivnega razgovora podpiral profesionalni razvoj vključenih, če le-ti na eni strani posedujejo veščine, ki omogočajo konstruktivno kritiko prakse, ter na drugi strani veščine in osebnostne lastnosti, ki omogočajo sprejetje vrednosti takšnih presoj. Zato niso pomembne le veščine opazovalca, ampak tudi pripravljenost opazovanega, da reflektira lastno pedagoško prakso.

V raziskavi smo želeli opredeliti opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom kot metodo, ki podpira profesionalni razvoj VŠ učitelja. Pri tem nas je zanimalo, kako opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom prispeva k profesionalnemu razvoju VŠ učitelja (raziskovalno vprašanje 1; v nadaljevanju: RV 1) ter kateri dejavniki vplivajo, da opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom podpira profesionalni razvoj VŠ učitelja (RV 2).

2 Metoda

V raziskavi smo uporabili kvalitativno metodo empiričnega pedagoškega raziskovanja.

Vključeni v raziskavo in opis konteksta

Raziskava je bila izvedena kot študija primera opazovanja pedagoške prakse dveh VŠ učiteljev. Prvi (VŠU 1) ima 39 let izkušenj s poučevanjem na VŠ stopnji, drugi (VŠU 2) 21. Opazovanje je bilo v obeh primerih izvedeno pri predmetu na dodiplomskem študijskem programu. Predavanje pri VŠU 1 je potekalo v hibridni obliki (spletno in v živo), obravnaval je temo doživljanja smrti ter minljivosti. Predavanje pri VŠU 2 je potekalo v predavalnici z dvignjenim avditorijem in govorniškimi katedrom, tema predavanja je posegala na področje vzgoje in izobraževanja.

Potek zbiranja podatkov

Podatke smo pridobili z izvedbo individualnega polstrukturiranega intervjuja, ki smo ga z vsakim od VŠ učiteljev izvedli 3–5 mesecev po opazovanju z reflektivnim razgovorom. Le-to je vključenima v raziskavo služilo kot izkušnja, ki sta jo v intervjuju reflektirala z vidika vpliva na njun profesionalni razvoj.

Opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom je potekalo po že prej omenjeni tridelni strukturi (Carroll in O'Loughlin, 2014; Hammersley-Fletcher in Orsmond, 2007). Dodatno smo pred izvedbo opazovanja z reflektivnim razgovorom izvedli usposabljanje za opazovalce, na katerem so bili seznanjeni z namenom in protokolom opazovanja (Jager in Režek, 2023), *Instrumentom za opazovanje aktivnega učenja in razvijanja globalnih kompetenc v visokošolskem prostoru* (Jager idr., 2023) ter vsebino opazovanja. V reflektivnem razgovoru so opazovalci v pogovoru z opazovanima VŠ učiteljema podali povratno informacijo o opazovani pedagoški praksi, preverjali vsebino zapisanega in dopolnjevali zbrane podatke, VŠ učitelja pa sta na podlagi podane povratne informacije reflektirala lastno prakso.

Opis pripomočkov

Pripomočka, ki smo ju pri tem uporabili, sta bila *Vodila za opazovanje in reflektivni razgovor* (Jager in Režek, 2023), ki vsebujejo protokol opazovanja in reflektivnega razgovora, ter *Instrument za opazovanje* (Jager idr., 2023).

Individualni polstrukturirani intervju se je nanašal na pridobivanje odgovorov na raziskovalni vprašnji in je vseboval vprašanja, kot npr. kakšen je doprinos opazovanja z reflektivnim razgovorom k profesionalnemu razvoju VŠ učitelja; katere nove uvide za lastno poučevalno prakso je VŠ učitelj spoznal v tem procesu; katere spremembe je uvedel po opazovanju z reflektivnim razgovorom v svojo prakso itd.

Obdelava podatkov

Zvočna posnetka intervjujev sta bila dobesedno prepisana. Prepise smo analizirali po metodi kvalitativne analize vsebine, pri čemer smo podatke združevali tematsko glede na zastavljeni raziskovalni vprašnji ter jim določili kode.

3 Rezultati

V tabeli 1 prikazujemo rezultate glede RV 1: Kako opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom prispeva k profesionalnemu razvoju VŠ učitelja?

Tabela 1

Rezultati prvega raziskovalnega vprašanja

Koda	Primeri
Uvedba konkretnih sprememb v prakso	<p>VŠU 1: “Kaj bi pa mogoče tole vendarle bilo malo za razmisliti in mogoče malo spremeniti. V eno ali v drugo smer.”</p> <p>“Ampak so mi rekli (študenti, op. a.): ›Danes pa delamo drugače.‹ In sem jih vprašal, kako drugače. Sam sem vedel, zakaj sem naredil drugačen uvod. /.../ To zdaj recimo delam čisto na takšen način. In tukaj so spremembe v pozitivno.”</p> <p>“Že bom rekla sama drža telesa. To je bila prva zadeva. Potem glas. Da si pozoren. Tretje, da se tudi, preden greš ... Potem po enem takem razgovoru imaš zadaj nek čip: aha, tole so mi povedale. Torej tule bodi pozoren.”</p> <p>“Ena vaša kolegica je takrat rekla, da bi bilo dobro imeti vsaj nekaj časa za ogrevanje na začetku – nekaj minut na voljo. Dejansko to sem tudi upoštevala.”</p>
Spodbuda za samoevalvacijo	<p>VŠU 1: “Sem kolegici rekel, da je ta zadeva dejansko potrebna in da bi bila nujna pravzaprav, da bi delali kot neko obliko samorefleksije.”</p> <p>VŠU 2: “In se spomnim, da ko smo se mi takrat pogovarjali in usedli, sem v nekem kontekstu razmišljal, da ne bi bilo slabo kaj takega recimo ponoviti. Oziroma neko tako formo neke samoevalvacije spet obuditi.”</p>
Refleksija lastne prakse	<p>VŠU 1: “/.../ se sploh nisem zavedal, da hodim po predavalnici in da se sploh ne oziram na študente, ki so on-line.”</p> <p>VŠU 2: “Že sama situacija te postavi na nek način v položaj, ko razmišljaš o tem, kako bi bilo najbolj smiselno izpeljati ... Mislim tako, na nek način te prisili v neko premišljevanje o tem, kako boš izpeljal ta dogodek, na katerem boš opazovan.”</p> <p>“Ta razgovor, ki smo ga recimo mi potem opravili, me je pač postavil v situacijo, ko sem moral določene svoje premisleke ali določena svoja ravnanja in tako naprej utemeljiti, ubesediti. Prideš pač v bistvu v neko situacijo, ko moraš nekomu drugemu nekako pojasniti, povedati, zakaj si ravnal tako, kot si ravnal.”</p> <p>“In včasih recimo ugotoviš /.../, da mogoče kakšne stvari počneš, ne da bi jih znal čisto zares na tak način utemeljiti ali pa na tak način eksplicirati.”</p> <p>“Kaj torej lahko jaz naredim za to, da bi recimo predavanja pri tem predmetu, ta naša masovna srečanja na splošno bila čim bolj učno, akademsko in študijsko kakovostna?”</p> <p>“Da recimo razmišljaš, kaj bi pri svojem poučevanju lahko spremenil, dopolnil in tako.”</p>

<p>Spodbujanje profesionalnih diskusij med kolegi</p>	<p>VŠU 2:</p> <p>“/.../ ne bi bilo slabo, če bi ona prišla k meni na predavanje, ko o tem govorim, ali pa jaz k njej. In da bi se potem tako dobila na eni kavi in malo prediskutirala. Ne zato, da bi se zdaj eden drugemu prilagajala, /.../ ampak zato, da bi oba razumela, kako študentom to interpretirava.”</p> <p>“In tukaj bi bilo meni tudi recimo dobro, da če pride nekdo k mojemu predmetu, malo pogleda, ne vem, kako jaz neko stvar naredim, in da mi reče: ›Glej, se ti ne zdi, da bi mogoče tu lahko uporabil še to tehniko, to dejavnost? Ali pa bi jim postavil to vprašanje za diskusijo?‹ Ali kakor koli. V tem smislu bi se mi zdelo to zelo, zelo dobro.”</p> <p>“/.../ ljudje, ki skupaj delamo /.../, in to smo v bistvu štirje in bi bilo zelo dobro, če bi mi med sabo vedeli eden za drugega, kaj delamo, kako delamo, kje so poudarki in kje se recimo razlikujemo. Kje ne moremo priti skupaj in tako.”</p>
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V tabeli 2 prikazujemo rezultate glede RV 2: Kateri dejavniki vplivajo, da opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom podpira profesionalni razvoj VŠ učitelja?

Tabela 2

Rezultati drugega raziskovalnega vprašanja

<i>Koda</i>	<i>Primeri</i>
<p>Veščine opazovalca za konstruktivno vodenje reflektivnega razgovora</p>	<p>VŠU 1:</p> <p>“Jaz mislim, da nič ni narobe, če se nam to pove na tak način, kot ste ve naredile.”</p> <p>Govori o službah, “ki so po drugi svetovni vojni, in jaz sem jih doživljal, bili na zavodu ali kot inšpektorji ali kot svetovalci, kakor koli so se imenovali. Ampak vsi smo se jih, recimo, bali kot hudič križa. In to ste recimo ve presegle.”</p>
<p>Veščine in osebnostne lastnosti opazovanega</p>	<p>VŠU 1:</p> <p>Govori o izkušnji medkolegialnega opazovanja prakse z reflektivnim razgovorom v preteklosti in sprejemanju informacij, ki jih prejmeš od kolega v reflektivnem razgovoru: “Je pa to zelo osebno pogojeno. Nekateri učitelji bodo to doživeli kot atako. Češ, zdaj pa nisem dovolj dober.”</p> <p>VŠU 2:</p> <p>“Jaz mislim tudi, da bi bilo koristno, /.../ če bi bili pač pripravljeni na neke take prakse kritičnega prijateljavanja. /.../ Sem dovolj flegmatičen človek, da se ne obremenjujem s tem toliko, da bi zdaj hiperventiliral ob tem, da pridejo ljudje v predavalnico.”</p>
<p>Vsebinsko poznavanje področja dela opazovanega s strani opazovalca</p>	<p>VŠU 2:</p> <p>Govori o pomembnosti, da je opazovalec nekdo, ki vsebinsko pozna predmetno področje opazovanega: “/.../ v bistvu bi mi bilo dobrodošlo, da nekdo, ki dovolj dobro pozna tudi področje, s katerim se jaz ukvarjam /.../ /.../ da bi oba razumela, kako študentom to interpretirava.”</p>
<p>Medkolegialno zaupanje</p>	<p>VŠU 2:</p> <p>“Je pa res, da pač to terjaja, da imaš nek ..., da res to delaš s človekom, ki mu na nek način zaupaš. Z nekom, v kogar strokovno presojo zaupaš. Ne smeš imeti občutka, da je zdaj to nekdo, ki ti soli pamet in nima ... Tukaj bi res morala biti taka kolegialna zgodba.”</p>

Stopnja samokritičnosti opazovanega	VŠU 1: Govori o podpori pri samoevalvaciji: “Pri čemer moramo biti pazljivi. Do sebe je človek velikokrat bolj ali pa še preveč popustljiv, kot bi bil sicer.”
Motivacija za profesionalni razvoj na področju pedagoških kompetenc	VŠU 2: “Zdaj tako, vprašanje, če bi to bilo uspešno, če to predpišeš. V smislu, da bi zdaj morali to delati v sklopu samoevalvacijskih dejavnosti. Če je to prisiljeno, se potem zelo hitro samo pro forma izvede.” “Zdaj se srečujemo z vedno zahtevnejšimi populacijami študentov. In tudi ljudje, ki mogoče prej niso bili tako naklonjeni VŠ didaktiki, postajajo malo bolj zainteresirani zanjo.”
Akademsko kultura	VŠU 2: “Vprašanje res, koliko je pravzaprav ta naša akademska kultura taka, da je na to pripravljena. Ker če si zdaj jaz predstavljam, ne vem ..., zlahka si predstavljam kolegice in kolege, ki bi to pozdravili, prestavljam pa si tudi take, ki absolutno ne bi bili pripravljene kaj takega izpeljati.”

4 Razprava

Kot ugotavljajo avtorji (Bell, 2002; Cosh, 1999; Gosling, 2002; Hammersley-Fletcher in Orsmond, 2007), se učenje o lastni praksi, ki se odvija v okviru KOP, najpogosteje pripisuje opazovanemu, in sicer kot rezultat komentarjev opazovalca ter kasnejše refleksije opazovane osebe: “Potem po enem takem razgovoru imaš zadaj nek čip: aha, tole so mi povedale. Torej tule bodi pozoren.” (VŠU1). Pomembno pa je, da naučenemu sledi še konkretna uvedba sprememb v prakso: “Ena vaša kolegica je takrat rekla, da bi bilo dobro imeti vsaj nekaj časa za ogrevanje na začetku – nekaj minut na voljo. Dejansko to sem tudi upoštevala.” (VŠU 1). Navedeno z uvedbo akcijskega načrta predvideva tudi Zeng (2020).

Ugotovili smo tudi, da opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom VŠ učitelju služi kot spodbuda za samoevalvacijo, saj sta oba VŠ učitelja dejala, “da je ta zadeva dejansko potrebna in da bi bila nujna pravzaprav” (VŠU1) ter “da ne bi bilo slabo kaj takega recimo ponoviti. Oziroma neko tako formo neke samoevalvacije spet obuditi” (VŠU 2), kar se navezuje na ugotovitve Košir (2021), da pedagoške kompetence niso prirojene osebnostne značilnosti, temveč rezultat reflektiranega urjenja, k čemur naj bi bili VŠ učitelji sistemsko spodbujeni.

Prav tako smo ugotovili, da opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom služi kot pomoč pri refleksiji lastne prakse (“Ta razgovor, ki smo ga recimo mi potem opravili, me je pač postavil v situacijo, ko sem moral določene svoje premisleke ali določena svoja ravnanja in tako naprej utemeljiti, ubesediti.” (VŠU 2)), vendar le, če ta proces implementiramo kot razvojni in/ali sodelovalni KOP-model (Hammersley-Fletcher in Orsmond, 2007), kot je razumljen tudi proces opazovanja z reflektivnim razgovorom, ki ga predstavljamo v tem prispevku. Hkrati pa se moramo zavedati, da je “refleksija večšina, ki se razvija, in da bi učitelji uporabili kolegialno opazovanje in s tem postali aktivni udeleženci strokovnega razvoja, se morajo usposobiti za njegovo izvajanje” (Labak idr., 2022, str. 88).

Opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom spodbuja tudi profesionalne diskusije med kolegi, vključenimi v ta proces: *“In tukaj bi bilo meni tudi recimo dobro, da če pride nekdo k mojemu predmetu, malo pogleda, ne vem, kako jaz neko stvar naredim, in da mi reče: “Glej, se ti ne zdi, da bi mogoče tu lahko uporabil še to tehniko, to dejavnost? Ali pa bi jim postavil to vprašanje za diskusijo?” Ali kakor koli. V tem smislu bi se mi zdelo to zelo, zelo dobro.”* (VŠU 2). Izpostavljeni uvid VŠU 2 pritrjuje ugotovitvi, ki jo izpostavi Chappell (2007), da opazovanja niso namenjena ocenjevanju VŠ učitelja, temveč prepoznavanju močnih področij, iskanju morebitnih izboljšav in alternativnih pristopov.

V zvezi z dejavniki, ki vplivajo, da opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom podpira profesionalni razvoj VŠ učitelja (RV 2), smo ugotovili, da so v procesu pomembne tako veščine opazovalca za konstruktivno vodenje reflektivnega razgovora kot tudi veščine in osebnostne lastnosti opazovanega. V zvezi z veščinami opazovalca je VŠU 1 v intervjuju izpostavil službe, ki so v preteklosti opazovale pedagoški proces in *“smo se jih, recimo, bali kot hudič križa”* (VŠU 1). Na drugo stran je VŠU 1 postavil svojo izkušnjo vključenosti v ta proces in ovrednotil vlogo opazovalcev: *“In to ste recimo ve presegle.”* (VŠU1). Ne glede na to, da smo ga opozorili na pomanjkljivosti glede izvedbe pedagoškega procesa, je izjavil, *“da nič ni narobe, če se nam to pove na tak način, kot ste ve naredile”* (VŠU 1). Izkazuje se, da je pomembno, da opazovalec poseduje veščine, ki omogočajo konstruktivno kritiko prakse (Hogston, 1995).

V zvezi z veščinami in osebnostnimi lastnostmi opazovanega pa ugotavljamo, kot tudi Chappell (2007) in Hogston (1995), da na prepoznavanje pomena prejete povratne informacije s strani opazovalca za profesionalni razvoj opazovanega vpliva njegova pripravljenost za sprejemanje povratnih informacij: *“Je pa to zelo osebno pogojeno. Nekateri učitelji bodo to doživeli kot atako. Češ, zdaj pa nisem dovolj dober.”* (VŠU1).

Dejavnika, ki vplivata, da opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom podpira profesionalni razvoj VŠ učitelja, sta tudi poznavanje vsebinskega področja dela opazovanega s strani opazovalca ter medkolegialno zaupanje. VŠU 2 je izrazil pomembnost, da je opazovalec nekdo, ki vsebinsko pozna predmetno področje opazovanega: *“/.../ v bistvu bi mi bilo dobrodošlo, da nekdo, ki dovolj dobro pozna tudi področje, s katerim se jaz ukvarjam”,* pri čemer pa je poudaril, *“/.../ da pač to terja, da imaš nek ..., da res to delaš s človekom, ki mu na nek način zaupaš. Z nekom, v kogar strokovno presojo zaupaš. Ne smeš imeti občutka, da je zdaj to nekdo, ki ti soli pamet in nima ... Tukaj bi res morala biti taka kolegialna zgodba.”* Tudi v tem primeru se potrjuje pomen uvajanja KOP kot razvojnega in/ali sodelovalnega modela, če želimo, da le-to postane orodje profesionalnega razvoja VŠ učitelja (Hammersley-Fletcher in Orsmond, 2007).

Eden od dejavnikov je tudi stopnja samokritičnosti opazovanega. VŠU 1 v intervjuju izpostavi potrebo po podpori pri samoevalvaciji in v zvezi s tem izjavi: *“Do sebe je človek velikokrat bolj ali pa še preveč popustljiv, kot bi bil sicer.”* S tem vedenjem je še toliko bolj pomembno razvijati medkolegialno zaupanje in kritično prijateljstvo, saj reflektirajoči učitelj potrebuje podporo, da svoje poučevanje “sooči” z lastnimi izkušnjami in poznavanjem teorije (Chappell, 2007).

Zaradi različnih izzivov, s katerimi se VŠ učitelji dandanes srečujejo, npr. “razmere v družbi se hitro spreminjajo, znanje nenehno zastareva, spreminjajo se metode poučevanja, saj se fokus iz “na predavatelja osredinjenega poučevanja in učenja” vedno

bolj premešča v “na študenta osredinjeno poučevanje” (Goltnik Urnaut, 2022, str. 128), se izkazuje vedno večja potreba po profesionalnem razvoju na področju pedagoškega udejstvovanja. Temu pritrди tudi VŠU 2: “Zdaj se srečujemo z vedno zahtevnejšimi populacijami študentov. In tudi ljudje, ki mogoče prej niso bili tako naklonjeni VŠ didaktiki, postajajo malo bolj zainteresirani zanjo.” Sprašuje (VŠU 2) pa se, “če bi to bilo uspešno, če to predpišeš. V smislu, da bi zdaj morali to delati v sklopu samoevalvacijskih dejavnosti. Če je to prisiljeno, se potem zelo hitro samo pro forma izvede.” Treba je torej zagotoviti tako akademsko kulturo, ki bo spodbujala tovrstne dejavnosti, saj raziskave kažejo, da aktivna vpetost VŠ učiteljev v profesionalni razvoj na področju pedagoških kompetenc vpliva na izboljšanje učenja študentov (Coronel idr., 2003; Kennedy, 2016; Winch idr., 2015). Ob tem pa VŠU 2 izrazi dvom, “koliko je pravzaprav ta naša akademska kultura taka, da je na to pripravljena. Ker če si zdaj jaz predstavljam, ne vem ... Zlahka si predstavljam kolegice in kolege, ki bi to pozdravili, predstavljam pa si tudi take, ki absolutno ne bi bili pripravljene kaj takega izpeljati.”

5 Sklep

V raziskavi smo želeli ugotoviti, kako opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom prispeva k profesionalnemu razvoju VŠ učitelja ter kateri dejavniki vplivajo, da opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom podpira profesionalni razvoj VŠ učitelja.

Ugotovili smo, da opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom spodbuja uvedbo konkretnih sprememb v prakso, VŠ učitelje podpira pri samoevalvaciji ter refleksiji lastne prakse in spodbuja profesionalne diskusije med kolegi.

Identificirani dejavniki, ki vplivajo, da opazovanje z reflektivnim razgovorom podpira profesionalni razvoj VŠ učitelja, pa so: večšine opazovalca za konstruktivno vodenje reflektivnega razgovora, večšine in osebne lastnosti opazovanega, vsebinsko poznavanje področja dela opazovanega s strani opazovalca, medkolegialno zaupanje, stopnja samokritičnosti opazovanega, motivacija za profesionalni razvoj na področju pedagoških kompetenc in akademska kultura.

Po pregledu obstoječe literature in ugotovljenih izsledkov raziskave predlagamo, tako kot že Košir (2021), sistemsko ureditev profesionalnega razvoja VŠ učiteljev na področju krepitve pedagoških kompetenc, pri čemer pa poudarjamo, da KOP ne more služiti kot razvojni proces v funkciji izboljševanja prakse poučevanja, če je omejen na opazovanje enega predavanja enkrat letno, kar se v praksi pogosto primeri (Knight in Trowler, 2001). Pri tem je pomembno upoštevati tudi, da je KOP le ena od dejavnosti profesionalnega razvoja, če sledimo ideji o sinergiji izkušenj različnih dejavnosti profesionalnega razvoja (Rutz idr., 2012).

Jerneja Jager, PhD, Mateja Režek, MA

Observation with Reflective Discussion in a Higher Education Context

There is a growing need for increased investment in research within the higher education (HE) sector and in the training of HE staff (Vršnik Perše, 2021). This is particularly significant due to the university's dual mission of research and teaching, which is also reflected in the dual role of HE teachers (Mezgec, 2020). Consequently, HE teachers often face a dilemma regarding where to focus more: on pedagogical or research activities in their professional development (Glasby, 2015). Within the European context, it is well known that the evaluation of research indicators is still significantly more emphasised at the systemic level than the professional development in the field of pedagogical engagement (Graham, 2015; Vršnik Perše, 2021).

Ivanuš Grmek and Bezjak (2021, p. 38) point out, based on the literature review and research in the Slovenian context (e.g. Marentič Požarnik, 1998a, 1998b; Marentič Požarnik, 2001; Marentič Požarnik & Lavrič, 2011; Cvetek, 2015; Marentič Požarnik et al., 2019; Marentič Požarnik, 2020; Ivanuš Grmek et al., 2020), that “reflection, awareness and improvement of pedagogical competences and professional development of HE teachers are particularly important for high-quality and effective teaching.” Košir (2021, p. 55) emphasises that, due to the need to improve pedagogical competences, it is important that HE teachers are “systematically encouraged to improve them.” She underscores that these competencies need to be systematically developed through ongoing reflection on one's pedagogical practice with the aim of improving one's own teaching.

We are thus addressing the need to establish conditions that enable HE teachers to become reflective practitioners (Schön, 1983). However, engaging in reflection is challenging when done in isolation. Therefore, a reflective teacher requires support to “confront” their teaching with their own experiences and theoretical knowledge, whereby the reflection process becomes a means of re-conceptualizing pedagogical practice (Chappell, 2007).

One way to assist teachers in becoming reflective practitioners is through engagement in peer observation processes accompanied by reflective discussion. Some authors (Ackerman et al., 2009; Martin & Double, 1998; Yon et al., 2002) highlight that peer observation of teaching (POT) is increasingly utilised in HE for the purpose of the professional development of HE teachers.

Gosling (2005) outlines three POT models: evaluative, developmental and collaborative. However, Hammersley-Fletcher and Orsmond (2007) emphasise that POT becomes a tool for professional development, rather than a mechanism for performance evaluation, only when understood as a developmental and/or collaborative model.

Similarly to Hammersley-Fletcher and Orsmond (2007), Chappell (2007) conceptualises collegial observation of practice. He underscores the importance of observing HE teaching and the subsequent reflective discussion, aimed at facilitating the profes-

sional development of HE teachers and assessing the significance and suitability of teaching approaches.

POT is typically structured as a three-part process: a pre-observation meeting, where the observer and the observed agree on the area of observation; the observation itself; and a reflective discussion, during which the observer and the observed analyse the observed session from both perspectives (Carroll & O'Loughlin 2014; Hammersley-Fletcher & Orsmond 2007).

The learning that occurs within the framework of POT is most often attributed to the observed, as a result of the observer's comments and the subsequent reflection by the observed (Bell, 2002; Cosh, 1999; Hammersley-Fletcher & Orsmond, 2007). In this regard, Chappell (2007) notes that the usefulness of reflective discussions after observation strongly depends on the individual's (observer's) personality, openness to feedback and, to a large extent, commitment to participating in the reflection process. This is also confirmed by Hogston (1995), who states that the process of reflective discussion will support the professional development of those involved if they possess, on the one hand, the skills that enable constructive criticism of practice and, on the other hand, the skills and personality traits that enable them to accept the value of such assessments.

In the research, we aimed to define observation with reflective discussion as a method supporting the professional development of HE teachers. Specifically, we were interested in understanding how observation with reflective discussion contributes to the professional development of HE teachers (Research question 1; RQ1) and which factors influence observation with reflective discussion in supporting the professional development of HE teachers (RQ2).

In the research, we used the qualitative method of empirical pedagogical research. We conducted a case study of observing the pedagogical practice of two HE teachers. Data was collected through individual semi-structured interviews, conducted with each HE teacher 3–5 months after observation with reflective discussion. The tools used for observation were the Observation and Reflective Discussion Guides (Jager & Režek, 2023) and the Instrument for Observing Active Learning and Developing Global Competencies in Higher Education (Jager et al., 2023). The individual semi-structured interviews aimed to gather responses to the research questions. The interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed and analysed using the qualitative content analysis method.

As noted by Bell (2002), Cosh (1999), Gosling (2005), and Hammersley-Fletcher and Orsmond (2007), our research also revealed that learning about one's own practice within POT is most commonly attributed to the observed, as a result of the observer's feedback and the subsequent reflection by the observed. It is important, however, that learning is followed by a concrete implementation of changes in practice.

We also found that observation with reflective discussion serves as a stimulus for self-evaluation for HE teachers. Moreover, it was confirmed that pedagogical competencies are not innate personality traits but rather the result of reflective practice, to which HE teachers should be systematically encouraged (Košir, 2021).

Furthermore, we found that observation with reflective discussion supports reflecting on one's own practice. It is important to emphasise that this is the case only if the process is implemented as a developmental and/or collaborative POT model (Hammer-

sley-Fletcher & Orsmond, 2007), as is also understood in the process of observation with reflective discussion presented in this article.

Observation with reflective discussion also encourages professional discussions among colleagues involved in this process, which confirms Chappell's (2007) finding that observations are not intended to evaluate HE teachers, but rather to identify strengths, explore potential improvements and consider alternative approaches.

Regarding the factors influencing observation with reflective discussion in supporting the professional development of HE teachers, we found that both the observer's skills in facilitating constructive reflective discussion and the skills and personal qualities of the observed are significant in the process.

In relation to the skills and personal qualities of the observed, as noted by Chappell (2007) and Hogston (1995), we find that the willingness to accept feedback influences the recognition of the importance of feedback received from the observer for the professional development of the observed individual.

Two factors that influence observation with reflective discussion in supporting the professional development of HE teachers are the observer's familiarity with the content area of the observed work and intercollegiate trust. In this case as well, the importance of implementing POT as a developmental and/or collaborative model is confirmed if it is to become a tool for the professional development of HE teachers (Hammersley-Fletcher & Orsmond, 2007).

One of the highlighted factors – cultivating intercollegiate trust and critical friendship – is important because the reflective teacher requires support to 'confront' their teaching with their own experiences and theoretical knowledge (Chappell, 2007).

Due to the various challenges faced by HE teachers today (Mezgec, 2020; Vršnik Perše, 2021), there is an increasing need for professional development in the field of pedagogical competences. It is essential to ensure an academic culture that fosters such activities, as research shows that the involvement of HE teachers in professional development that enhances pedagogical competencies contributes to the improvement of student learning (Coronel et al., 2003; Kennedy, 2016; Winch et al., 2015).

After reviewing the existing literature and the findings of the research, we propose, similarly to Košir (2021), a systemic regulation of professional development for HE teachers in enhancing pedagogical competencies. However, we emphasise that POT cannot serve as a developmental process for improving teaching practice if it is limited to observing one lecture once a year, as is often the case in practice (Knight & Trowler, 2001). It is important to consider that POT is just one of professional development activities, especially if we are to follow the idea of synergy among experiences from various professional development activities (Rutz et al., 2012).

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Kvalitativna paradigma pedagoškega raziskovanja v evalvaciji visokega šolstva

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KLJUČNE BESEDE: visokošolsko izobraževanje, presojanje kakovosti, počutje na delovnem mestu, kvalitativne metode, pedagoška metodologija

POVZETEK – Zadovoljstvo zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu se najpogosteje spremlja s kvantitativno metodologijo pedagoškega raziskovanja, kot so ocenjevalne lestvice in zaprta anketna vprašanja. Bolj poglobljen vpogled v osebna razmišljanja, poglede in izkušnje zaposlenih na visokošolskih ustanovah pa zahteva vključitev tudi kvalitativne paradigme pedagoškega raziskovanja. V prispevku predstavljamo rezultate pionirskega projekta na Univerzi v Mariboru, v katerem je bil za ocenjevanje zadovoljstva zaposlenih uporabljen kvalitativni pristop fokusne skupine. V raziskavi je sodelovalo 10 predstavnikov strokovnih služb. Ugotovitve kvalitativne vsebinske analize so pokazale visoko stopnjo zadovoljstva in pripadnosti zaposlenih instituciji zaposlitve. Dobri medsebojni odnosi v kolektivu, dobro sodelovanje z različnimi deležniki, zanimanje za delo in dobro počutje na delovnem mestu predstavljajo ključne dejavnike zadovoljstva z delom pri zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu. Udeležba na strokovnih izobraževanjih in kvalitativni metodološki pristopi pri presojanju kakovosti pa pomembne strategije za izboljšanje delovne uspešnosti v visokem šolstvu.

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KEYWORDS: higher education, quality assessment, well-being at work, qualitative methods, pedagogical methodology

ABSTRACT – Employee satisfaction in higher education has most commonly been monitored using a quantitative educational research methodology, such as rating scales and closed-ended surveys. However, a more in-depth insight into the personal reflections, views, and experiences of employees in the higher education sector requires the inclusion of a qualitative paradigm of educational research. In the paper, we present the results of a pilot project at the University of Maribor, in which a qualitative focus group interview was used to assess employee satisfaction. A group of 10 representatives of administrative services were interviewed. Based on the qualitative content analysis, the results showed a high level of employee satisfaction and belonging to the institution. Good interpersonal relationships, effective cooperation with different stakeholders, interest in work, and well-being at the workplace were shown to be key factors in job satisfaction among employees in the higher education sector. Participation in professional trainings and qualitative methodological approaches to quality assessment seem to be important strategies for improving work performance in higher education.

1 Uvod

Kakovost izobraževanja je kompleksna lastnost, ki je neposredno povezana s kakovostjo življenja in gospodarsko rastjo v državi ter vključuje na eni strani zadovoljevanja izobraževanih potreb in doseganja vzgojnih norm za posameznika, družbo in državo ter na drugi strani kakovost upravljanja izobraževalnega sistema in njegovih procesov (Dubaseniuk idr., 2020, str. 132–133). Namen presojanja kakovosti visokošolskega izobraževanja je spremljanje uresničevanja vizije in strategije visokošolskega zavoda (Komisija za ocenjevanje kakovosti FF UM, 2020, 2021). Dobro razvit sistem podajanja povratnih informacij o kakovosti dela lahko razumemo kot pozitivno povra-

tno zanko, ki visokošolskim učiteljem in sodelavcem omogoča karierni in osebnostni razvoj. Rezultat slednjega je bolj kakovostno visokošolsko izobraževanje, ki pri študentih spodbuja interes za študij in pripomore k boljšim študijskim dosežkom, kar prispeva k večji uspešnosti in ugledu celotne univerze (Pogorelčnik in Boštjančič, 2023).

Pri presojanju kakovosti je ključno poznavanje njenih kriterijev oz. standardov. Avtorica Starc (2015, str. 136–137) poudarja, da se kakovosti visokošolskega zavoda ne meri samo s številom zaposlenih z najvišjimi nazivi, številom vpisanih študentov in številom diplomantov, ampak tudi po tem, kakšna je energija visokošolskega zavoda, ki nastaja v procesih ustvarjanja in doseganja skupnih ciljev ter medsebojnega sodelovanja na vseh ravneh organizacije. Od tega je v pomembni meri odvisno, kakšno bo počutje in zadovoljstvo zaposlenih na delovnem mestu ter kako bodo pripadni viziji visokošolskega zavoda. Bucik (1999) je na primeru evalvacije izvedbe kurikularnih rešitev in doseženega kurikuluma zasnoval izbor kriterijev, ki so lahko v oporo pri presojanju kakovosti izobraževalne institucije. Čeprav standardi presojanja kakovosti sami kot taki še ne jamčijo kakovostne evalvacije, je avtor poudaril, da niso vsi standardi uporabni v vseh evalvacijskih študijah. “Temeljita in zanesljiva evalvacija torej zahteva predvsem natančen strokovni premislek in nato sodbo o tem, kako in koliko upoštevati in uporabiti predlagane standarde v določeni evalvacijski študiji, da bo ta čim bolj koristna, izvedljiva, primerna in natančna.” (Bucik, 1999, str. 17). Izhajajoč iz mednarodnih standardov je kriterije razvrstil v štiri sklope, in sicer:

- koristnost (npr. določitev ciljnih skupin, verodostojnost evalvatorja, izbor in obseg informacij, določitev indikatorjev proučevanja, jasnost in pravočasnost poročanja, vpliv evalvacije, prenosljivost ugotovitev),
- izvedljivost (npr. smotrnost postopkov, družbena sprejemljivost, učinkovitost glede na stroške),
- primernost (npr. ureditev formalnih obveznosti, pravice udeležencev, interakcija v evalvaciji, popolno in pošteno ocenjevanje, razgrnitev izsledkov, navzkrižje interesov, finančna odgovornost) ter
- natančnost (npr. dokumentacija, analiza konkretnih kontekstov, opis namenov in postopkov, upravičljivost virov informacij, zanesljivost informacij, sistematičnost informacij, analiza *kvantitativnih* informacij, analiza *kvalitativnih* informacij, argumentiranost sklepov, nepristransko poročanje, metaevalvacija).

Izhajajoč iz navedenega je opiranje zgolj na kvantitativno presojanje kakovosti visokega šolstva, ki je izvorno ideja prevladujoče kvantitativne paradigme v pedagoškem raziskovanju (Anguera in Izquierdo, 2006), zagotovo premalo. Med različnimi tehnikami zbiranja in analize podatkov za namen spremljanja kakovosti visokega šolstva po svoji razširjenosti izstopa zlasti spletno anketiranje zadovoljstva študentov in zaposlenih. Pa vendar ima ta kvantitativni pristop k presojanju kakovosti določene metodološke dileme, ki zahtevajo kritično presojo o njegovi uporabi (Štemberger, 2015). Raziskave celo kažejo, da ni povezav med sprotno anketno evalvacijo in kakovostjo izobraževanja, kar pomeni, da so kljub hitro pridobljenim povratnim informacijam o zadovoljstvu udeležencev evalvacijske ankete največkrat “same sebi namen” (Starc, 2010, str. 110) in ne prispevajo bistveno k zagotavljanju kakovosti izobraževalnih ustanov. Obstoječi kriteriji kakovosti, ki so osredotočeni samo na kvantitativno merjenje in spremljanje izbranih kazalnikov, tudi ne zadoščajo specifičnim potrebam drugih metodoloških pri-

stopov presojanja kakovosti, kot je na primer akcijsko raziskovanje (Bleijenbergh itd., 2011; Vogrinc in Krek, 2011).

Ob anketnem spremljanju zadovoljstva zaposlenih je zato pomemben tudi kvalitativni vpogled v njihova osebna razmišljanja, doživljanja in izkušnje v zvezi z delom v visokem šolstvu. Namen našega prispevka je proučiti kvalitativno paradigmo pedagoškega raziskovanja v procesu presojanja kakovosti visokega šolstva ter s pomočjo kvalitativnega fokusnega intervjuja pridobiti mnenja in izkušnje izbrane skupine zaposlenih, njihova strinjanja, pa tudi različne poglede ter predloge kot odgovore na izzive, s katerimi se srečujejo pri svojem delu.

2 Kvalitativna paradigma v pedagoškem raziskovanju

Tradicionalno obstajata v pedagoškem in širšem družboslovnem raziskovanju dve temeljni raziskovalni paradigmi – paradigma postpozitivizma (kvantitativni pristop) in paradigma konstruktivizma (kvalitativni pristop). Navedeni paradigmi oz. svetovna nazora, ki predstavljata filozofske predpostavke, prepričanja in vrednote raziskovalcev, usmerjata njihovo proučevanje in nista vezana na določeno specifično disciplino ali akademsko skupnost, zagovarjata različne poglede na resnico v svetu ter posledično vodita v izbiro različnih metodoloških pristopov in raziskovalnih načrtov (Johnson in Onwuegbuzie, 2004, str. 14). Od konca 80. let 20. stoletja pa se jima je pridružila še paradigma pragmatizma, ki temelji na skupni uporabi kvantitativnega in kvalitativnega metodološkega pristopa v isti raziskavi oz. tako imenovani integraciji metod, ki je sestavni del družboslovnega raziskovanja v zadnjem desetletju (Zorc in Ferligoj, 2023). V našem prispevku se osredotočamo na kvalitativno paradigmo pedagoškega raziskovanja.

Kvalitativna metodološka tradicija se je na področju družboslovnih in pedagoških znanosti intenzivneje razmahnila v zadnjem četrletju 20. stoletja kot kritika pozitivističnega pristopa in je ponudila veliko raznolikost alternativnih kvalitativnih metod. Osrednji cilj kvalitativnega raziskovanja je, kar se da verodostojno predstaviti življenjski svet subjektov z njihovega stališča doživljanja, interpretiranja in razumevanja. Pri tem kvalitativno raziskovanje sledi dvema lastnima načeloma – fleksibilnosti in odvisnosti od konteksta (Kogovšek, 1998). Pionirja na področju kvalitativne paradigme, Lincoln in Guba (1985), sta v svojem delu z naslovom *Naturalistic Inquiry*, ki velja za eno izmed temeljnih klasičnih del metodologije družboslovnega raziskovanja, pod vprašaj postavila temeljne predpostavke kvantitativne metodološke tradicije v znanosti, ki narekuje empirične, preverljive in ponovljive raziskovalne pristope ter kot taka ne more razložiti vseh znanstvenih dejstev, ter celovito opredelila nepozitivistično raziskovanje. V ospredje svoje razprave sta postavila znanstvena dejstva, ki jih (post)pozitivistična paradigma ne more razložiti, in na tej osnovi predlagala alternativni pristop, ki podpira uporabo naturalistične paradigme, imenovane tudi konstruktivistična ali interpretativna paradigma raziskovanja.

Kritika pozitivizma je tako pomagala vzpostaviti kvalitativno raziskovanje kot alternativni pristop kvantitativnemu raziskovanju. Za kvalitativno metodologijo je značilno, da temelji na zbiranju, analizi in interpretaciji narativnih podatkov, ki vključuje najrazličnejše tehnike, kot so na primer strategije kategoriziranja in kontekstualizira-

nja. Kvalitativnega raziskovalca odlikujejo induktivni pogled na raziskovanje, osredotočenost na razumevanje posameznika in upoštevanje kompleksnosti raziskovalnega konteksta (Creswell, 2014; Teddlie in Tashakkori, 2009). Brod idr. (2009) poudarjajo, da kvalitativno raziskovanje zahteva istočasno upoštevanje znanosti in umetnosti, saj mora temeljiti na veljavno zbranih podatkih, katerih analiza in interpretacija zahtevata določeno empatijo in razumevanje pogledov udeležencev, ki jih ni možno enostavno raziskati in prepoznati v kvantitativnem raziskovanju.

Temeljna razlika med kvantitativnim in kvalitativnim ocenjevanjem kakovosti je tako v uporabljenih postopkih, ki pri kvantitativnem ocenjevanju kakovosti izhajajo iz postopkov merjenja oz. kvantificiranja, pri kvalitativnem pa iz “interpretacije dogajanja v kontekstu celotne življenjske situacije članov opazovane skupnosti” (Kogovšek, 1998, str. 59). Iz navedenega je razvidno, da kakovost nima enake konotacije v kvalitativnem raziskovanju v primerjavi s kvantitativnim, saj ne postavlja v ospredje zanesljivosti oz. stabilnosti raziskave ter njene posplošljivosti oz. prenosa ugotovitev v nova okolja ali na udeležence (Creswell, 2014).

Znotraj kvalitativne metodologije obstajajo različne metode ali načini zbiranja podatkov, kot so opazovanje z udeležbo, poglobljeni intervjuji (strukturirani, polstrukturirani, skupinski), analiza dokumentov, vizualne metode ipd., pri čemer se v raziskovalni praksi različne kvalitativne metode kombinirajo in uporabljajo hkrati (Kogovšek, 1998). Silverman (2003) deli kvalitativne metode v štiri osrednje kategorije:

- opazovanje,
- analiza besedil in dokumentov,
- intervjuji ter
- analiza posnetkov.

Pri tem so lahko intervjuji uporabljeni tako v kvantitativnem kot tudi v kvalitativnem raziskovanju. Kvantitativni intervjuji vključujejo zaprti tip vprašanj s ponujenimi odgovori ter potekajo običajno preko anketnih raziskav na slučajnostnih vzorcih. Kvalitativni intervjuji pa temeljijo na odprtih vprašanjih (npr. “povej mi svojo zgodbo”) in so pogosto izvedeni na manjših vzorcih ter potekajo v bolj sproščenem odnosu med intervjuvancem in spraševalcem.

Kot ena izmed primernejših oblik kvalitativnih intervjujev za presojanje in razvijanje kakovosti na različnih stopnjah in pri različnih oblikah izobraževanja se je doslej izkazala metoda fokusne skupine. Cilj fokusne skupine je skozi skupinski pogovor pridobiti mnenja in izkušnje izbrane skupine udeležencev o obravnavanem vprašanju, njihova strinjanja in različne poglede ter predloge rešitev za nadaljnji razvoj kakovosti (Klemenčič in Hlebec, 2007). Poglobljena in tematsko osredotočena skupinska diskusija, ki poteka z medsebojno interakcijo in soočenjem ključnih deležnikov, omogoča poglobljeno obravnavo izbranega vprašanja ter spremljanje napredka (Štemberger, 2021).

V nadaljevanju se posvečamo empirični kvalitativni pedagoški raziskavi, s katero smo s pomočjo fokusne skupine ocenjevali zadovoljstvo zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu na primeru zaposlenih v strokovnih službah na Filozofski fakulteti Univerze v Mariboru (FF UM). Zanimala so nas njihova osebna razmišljanja in doživljanja z vidika dejavnikov vztrajanja v zaposlitvi, potreb in možnosti profesionalnega usposabljanja, predlogov za izboljšave ter načinov evalvacije zadovoljstva z zaposlitvijo v visokem šolstvu.

3 Empirična raziskava

Zadovoljstvo zaposlenih na FF UM se ocenjuje z anketnim vprašalnikom o zadovoljstvu na delovnem mestu. Vprašalnik je sestavljen iz dveh demografskih vprašanj (delovna doba na fakulteti in delovno mesto) ter iz šestih tematskih sklopov z ocenjevanimi trditvami na 5-stopenjski Likertovi lestvici. Pri tem se ocenjujejo naslednja področja: odnosi med zaposlenimi, materialni pogoji, delo in naloge, kariera, informiranost ter skrb za zdravje. Zadnje vprašanje v anketi pa je namenjeno posredovanju pobud, predlogov in pripomb za dvig kakovosti (Komisija za ocenjevanje kakovosti FF UM, 2020, 2021).

Z namenom, da bi ob kvantitativnem merjenju zadovoljstva zaposlenih in študentov v večji meri pridobili tudi kakovostni vpogled v njihova razmišljanja, doživljanja in izkušnje v zvezi z delom na fakulteti, smo v študijskem letu 2020/2021 pristopili k pilotnemu projektu kvalitativne samoevalvacije zavoda. Prva pilotna fokusna skupina je bila izvedena na vzorcu 12 tutorjev študentov ter je ugotavljala njihovo zadovoljstvo s študijem. Pilotni projekt je bil uspešno izveden, saj je analiza zbranih podatkov razkri-la ključne dejavnike zadovoljstva študentov s študijem, ki jih kvantitativno presojanje kakovosti ni zaznalo (Zurc, 2021, 2023). Po uspešno izvedenem pilotnem projektu se je v študijskem letu 2021/2022 kvalitativna samoevalvacija nadaljevala tudi na vzorcu zaposlenih. V nadaljevanju predstavljamo metodologijo in ugotovitve presojanja zadovoljstva z delom v visokem šolstvu z vidika zaposlenih v strokovnih službah FF UM, ki temeljijo na kvalitativni metodologiji fokusne skupine (Zurc, 2022).

Metode dela

Raziskava je bila izvedena z empiričnim kvalitativnim pristopom s tehniko polstrukturiranega intervjuja v obliki fokusne skupine. Metoda fokusnih skupin spada med merseke tehnike zbiranja, analize in interpretacije empiričnih kvalitativnih podatkov. Zanj je značilen poglobljeni skupinski pogovor na izbrano temo. Fokusno skupino smo načrtovali in izvedli v štirih stopnjah po avtoricah Klemenčič in Hlebec (2007, str. 9–10):

- načrtovanje fokusne skupine z identifikacijo problema,
- izbor in pridobivanje udeležencev,
- izpeljava srečanja fokusne skupine in
- analiza kvalitativnih podatkov in poročanje.

Opis vzorca

K sodelovanju v fokusni skupini smo povabili vodje in predstavnike strokovnih služb FF UM, in sicer po enega predstavnika iz vsake strokovne službe. V kolikor je bil vodja strokovne službe pedagoški delavec ali pa član vodstva fakultete ali pa strokovna služba ni imela imenovanega vodjo, smo k sodelovanju povabili prvega navedenega zaposlenega glede na prikaz zaposlenih v posamezni strokovni službi na spletni strani FF UM (Strokovne službe, 2020). Iz vsake strokovne službe je bil izbran en predstavnik.

Na ta način se je dosegla pokritost različnih področij strokovnih služb, delovnih izkušenj, starosti in izobrazbe vključenih zaposlenih ter enakopravna zastopanost vseh 11 strokovnih služb na fakulteti. K sodelovanju smo povabili predstavnike tajništva, službe za pravne, kadrovske in splošne zadeve, službe za študentske in študijske zadeve, projektne pisarne, službe za promocijo, računovodstva, mednarodne pisarne, službe za informacijsko in komunikacijsko tehnologijo, vložišča in knjižnice.

Dve strokovni službi sta bili v domeni istega vodja, ki je bil povabljen k sodelovanju in je predstavljal obe enoti. Predstavniki ene strokovne službe se srečanja fokusne skupine ni uspel udeležiti. V fokusni skupini je tako skupaj sodelovalo 10 strokovnih sodelavcev, ki so bili v študijskem letu 2021/2022 zaposleni na FF UM. Socialno-demografsko strukturo vzorca smo ugotavljali z anonimnim vprašalnikom v aplikaciji 1KA. Po spolu so prevladovali ženske (70%). Povprečna starost udeležencev je bila 40,9 leta (SO = 11,21 leta), pri čemer je bil najmlajši star 27 let in najstarejši 56 let. Vsi udeleženci so prihajali iz Podravske regije. Slaba polovica (42%) se je opredelila, da živi v kraju z manj kot 2.000 prebivalci, 33% jih je izbralo manjši kraj (do 10.000 prebivalcev) in četrtnina (25%) je poročala, da živi v kraju, ki je središče regije. Glede na doseženo stopnjo izobrazbe je 75% udeležencev navedlo, da ima opravljeno visokošolsko diplomu univerzitetnega študija oz. drugo stopnjo. Dva udeleženca sta imela zaključeno višješolsko izobraževanje in en udeleženec srednjo šolo. Glede na področje so imeli udeleženci izobrazbo v večini s področja družboslovja (42%) in naravoslovja (50%). En udeleženec je imel izobrazbo s področja humanistike. Dve tretjini (67%) sodelujočih v fokusni skupini sta bili zaposleni v strokovnih službah za nedoločen čas, s polnim delovnim časom. Trije udeleženci so bili zaposleni za določen čas, od tega dva za krajši delovni čas. 75% jih še ni imelo izkušenj s sodelovanjem v fokusni skupini, en intervjuvanec je imel izkušnje s sodelovanjem v intervjujih. Izkušnje s fokusno skupino sta imela samo dva udeleženca.

Opis merskega instrumenta

Merski instrument, ki smo ga uporabili v fokusni skupini, je predstavljal delno strukturirani intervju. Vprašanja smo zasnovali na osnovi rezultatov predhodnih samoevalvacijskih poročil (Komisija za ocenjevanje kakovosti Filozofske fakultete UM, 2020), ugotovitev fokusne skupine s študenti tutorji (Zurc, 2021, 2023) in rezultatov anketne raziskave o zadovoljstvu zaposlenih na delovnem mestu (Komisija za ocenjevanje kakovosti Filozofske fakultete UM, 2021). Udeležencem fokusne skupine smo postavili naslednja izhodiščna vprašanja:

- Poskušajte se spomniti začetkov svoje zaposlitve. Kaj je bil najpomembnejši motiv ali vzrok, da ste se odločili vstopiti v delovno razmerje? Kaj ste pričakovali od poklicne poti? Kaj vam danes pomeni zaposlitev na FF UM? (Uvodno vprašanje za vsakega udeleženca.)
- Kateri dejavniki vašega dela so vam in vašim sodelavcem v strokovni službi, ki jo zastopate, najpomembnejši za doživljanje zadovoljstva pri delu? Bi si mogoče želeli pri katerem izmed izpostavljenih dejavnikov sprememb in kakšnih?
- V Anketi o zadovoljstvu na delovnem mestu so zaposleni na FF UM izpostavili željo po dodatnem izobraževanju (PV = 3,5). Kakšne možnosti vam daje delovno mesto, da se dodatno izobražujete ali se udeležujete izobraževanj, ter kaj si želite v prihodnje?

- Če bi imeli na razpolago neomejena sredstva, čas in možnosti, kaj bi si želeli na svojem delovnem mestu spremeniti in izboljšati?
- Kaj menite o današnji samoevalvaciji? Ali vam je lažje izraziti mnenja o zadovoljstvu na delovnem mestu z anketo zaprtega tipa ali v odprtem razgovoru, kot je bil današnji, ali mogoče na kakšen drugačen način?
- Ali bi za konec želeli izpostaviti še kakšen predlog, vprašanje ali misel, kar v današnji razpravi ni bilo še predstavljeno?

Postopek zbiranja podatkov

Fokusna skupina s predstavniki strokovnih služb je bila izvedena v ponedeljek, 14. februarja 2022, od 9.30 do 10.33. Skupinski intervju je trajal 1 uro in 3 minute. Izvedba je potekala na daljavo, v aplikaciji MS Teams v ekipi *Fokusna skupina s strokovnimi službami FF UM*. V ekipo, ki je bila posebej kreirana za ta namen, smo vključili vse vodje in predstavnike strokovnih služb, ki smo jih povabili k sodelovanju.

Pri izvedbi so se postavljala osrednja tematska vprašanja, podvprašanja za usmeritev pogovora in razvoj diskusije ter vključevanje v aktivno sodelovanje vseh prisotnih udeležencev. Spremljal se je čas izvedbe in spodbujalo k sodelovanju bolj zadržane udeležence, da so vsi sodelujoči izrazili svoja mnenja v enakopravni zastopanosti. Govorniki so se priglasili k besedi z animacijo “dvig roke” v aplikaciji MS Teams.

Postopek zbiranja podatkov je bil izveden z upoštevanjem načel *Helsinki-Tokijske deklaracije* o izvedbi raziskav pri ljudeh, *Zakona o varstvu osebnih podatkov* in etičnimi načeli raziskovanja. Vsi udeleženci so k sodelovanju pristopili prostovoljno in z možnostjo prekinitve sodelovanja brez posledic. Zbrano gradivo je bilo analizirano na združen način, brez ločevanja med izjavami. Vse izjave so bile šifrirane. Zaradi neenake zastopanosti udeležencev po spolu in potencialno možne prepoznavnosti identitete moških, ki so sodelovali v manjšini, so vse reprezentativne izjave v poročilu predstavljene v ženski obliki. Osební podatki in vse informacije, ki bi lahko kakor koli razkrili identiteto sodelujočega zaposlenega ali njegovo delovno enoto, v kateri je zaposlen, so bili iz analize in predstavitve rezultatov umaknjeni (označeno z [...], op.).

Metode analize podatkov

Analiza podatkov je bila izvedena s kvalitativno vsebinsko analizo ročno v programu MS Word. Postopek analize je potekal po avtorjih Adam idr. (2012) ter je temeljil na naslednjih korakih:

- izdelava transkriptov oz. dobesečnega prepisa zvočnega zapisa fokusnega pogovora,
- pregled in urejanje transkripta, šifriranje izjav udeležencev,
- postopek kodiranja besedila z iskanjem najmanjših pomenskih delov besedila, ki odgovarjajo na raziskovalno vprašanje oziroma namen raziskave,
- postopek kategoriziranja ali sinteza dobljenih kod v tematske kategorije,
- osno kodiranje ali ugotavljanje odnosov med kategorijo in njenimi kodami.

4 Rezultati

V nadaljevanju predstavljamo rezultate kvalitativnega metodološkega pristopa s fokusno skupino, s katero smo proučevali mnenja, izkušnje in poglede zaposlenih v strokovnih službah o zadovoljstvu z delom v visokem šolstvu. V tabelah od 1 do 3 podrobneje predstavljamo vsebinsko zasnovo vsake posamezne teme, njenih podkategorij in kod ter izjave intervjuvancev.

Tabela 1

Dejavniki vrednotenja in vztrajanja v zaposlitvi

<i>Tema</i>	<i>Kategorija</i>	<i>Kode</i>
Dejavniki, pomembni pri vrednotenju zaposlitve	pomen delovne dobe	pomen delovnih izkušenj, pomen delovne dobe, več kot 30 let delovne dobe na fakulteti, manj kot 3 leta delovne dobe, manj kot eno leto delovne dobe, na fakulteti več kot 25 let, več kot 10 let delovne dobe na fakulteti
	pripadnost	ostal zvest zaposlitvi na fakulteti skozi celotno delovno dobo, pripadnost fakulteti, pripadnost delovnemu kolektivu, delo na FF v ponos
	kakovost opravljenega dela	pričakovanja po kakovostno opravljenem delu, kakovostno delo prinese rezultate
Vztrajanje v zaposlitvi	dobri odnosi	pomen dobrih odnosov, pomen dobrega vzdušja, dobri odnosi, razumevajoč kolektiv, profesionalen kolektiv, velika medsebojna pomoč med zaposlenimi, krasni sodelavci, dobri medsebojni odnosi, dobri odnosi na prvem mestu, z dobrim razumevanjem se lažje dela, služba kot družina, komunikacija med sodelavci na visokem nivoju
	dobro sodelovanje s sodelavci in službami	pomen sodelovanja s sodelavci za zadovoljstvo v službi, dobro sodelovanje med sodelavci v strokovnih službah, dragocena je medsebojna pomoč strokovnih služb, dobro sodelovanje med vodji strokovnih služb, dobro sodelovanje z vodstvom, dobro sodelovanje s študenti, dobro sodelovanje z drugimi fakultetami, odlično medsebojno sodelovanje, hitro reševanje problemov, zaupanje nadrejenih
	zanimanje za delo	zanimanje za delo, ki ga opravljam, odlična priložnost za povezovanje strokovnega in raziskovalnega dela, najpomembnejši motiv je raznoliko delo, zanimivost delovnega mesta, zanimivo delo, zelo raznoliko delo, stalno spreminjanje in novosti pri delu, delo ni dolgočasno, novi izzivi
	dobro počutje	dobro počutje na delovnem mestu, prijetno počutje med sodelavci na fakulteti, domače vzdušje na fakulteti
	zadovoljstvo z zaposlitvijo	veliko zadovoljstvo, zadovoljstvo z zaposlitvijo, zadovoljstvo z delovnim mestom, zadovoljstvo uporabnikov

Svojo zaposlitev so intervjuvani predstavniki strokovnih služb vrednotili s tremi značilnostmi: delovna doba, pripadnost in kakovost opravljenega dela (tabela 1). Večina vprašanih je omenila, koliko let je že zaposlena na fakulteti. Omenili so, da se pričakuje

100-odstotno opravljeno delo, in kritično razmišljali, da samo kakovostno delo prinaša delovne rezultate in zadovoljstvo na delovnem mestu. V izjavah smo prepoznali visoko pripadnost delovni organizaciji.

“Videla sem, da je vzdušje v redu [...], tako da nisem iskala drugih služb in evo, [št. let] je minilo ‘kot keks’, tako, da sem zelo zadovoljna. Res imamo dober odnos. Marsikaj bi se dalo kaj reči, recimo, kar pač pride. Ampak skupaj moram reči, da sem zelo zadovoljna in vesela, da sem del te ekipe, ki je zaposlena tukaj zdaj na FF UM.” (1/S-1)

Pripadnost delovni organizaciji se je pokazala skozi kode, kot so zaposlitev na fakulteti skozi celotno delovno dobo, pripadnost fakulteti in delovnemu kolektivu ter ponos, da so del kolektiva. Pripadnost delovni organizaciji se je skozi izjave intervjuvanih pokazala tudi kot neposredno povezana z dobrimi odnosi med sodelavci, pri čemer so izpostavili:

“Kaj je meni največji plus – to so moji sodelavci. Delo je lahko težko, neizmerno težko, ali pa neizmerno lahko, odvisno je od sodelavcev.” (2/S-1)

“Jaz se pridružujem vsemu temu, ker v bistvu – vse to, da hodimo v službo, da smo tukaj, da se družimo, da poleg vsakega strokovnega dela, ki je na vsakem oddelku drugačno, da vseeno nekako vsi stopimo bližje z dobrim razumevanjem. In mogoče, kakšna ideja pride tudi samo iz nekega razgovora.” (1/S-4)

Dobri odnosi so po mnenju predstavnikov strokovnih služb ključni za vztrajanje v delovnem razmerju ter za nadaljnji razvoj kariere. Ob dobrih odnosih so pomembni tudi dobro sodelovanje s sodelavci in službami, zanimanje za delo, ki ga opravljajo, splošno dobro počutje v delovnem okolju in zadovoljstvo z zaposlitvijo. Dobro sodelovanje s sodelavci in strokovnimi službami je sestavljeno iz različnih vidikov, in sicer vse od dobrega sodelovanja med sodelavci znotraj iste strokovne službe kot tudi med sodelavci različnih strokovnih služb in oddelkov, dobrega sodelovanja s študenti, vodstvom in drugimi članicami univerze in vse do medsebojne pomoči, hitrega reševanja problemov in zaupanja nadrejenih.

“Jaz bi tukaj dodala še zaupanje nadrejenih v delo, ki ga opravljaš. Ugotovila sem, da ko smo začeli s tem [op. področje dela], smo šli v neke vode, ki niso bile, hm, najbolj razumljene. Orali smo ledino. Če pri tem ni zaupanja nadrejenih v to, kar delaš, in da bo to, kar boš naredil, relativno uspešno, potem bi to delo, ki ga opravljam, bilo nekaj čisto drugega.” (3/S-5)

Pomemben dejavnik zadovoljstva z zaposlitvijo in vsakodnevnega opravljanja dela pa je po mnenju intervjuvanih predstavnikov strokovnih služb tudi dobro počutje v službi, ki je neposredno povezano z dobrimi odnosi in razumevanjem v kolektivu. Kot navaja ena izmed udeleženk, razumevanje med sodelavci in medsebojna pomoč prispevata k lažjemu delu.

“Strinjam se z vsemi ostalimi. Če so dobri odnosi v službi, sploh ni težko priti. Tako kot smo rekli, delo je treba opraviti, a pogoj, da se dobro počutiš in lažje delaš, pa je tudi to, da se dobro razumemo.” (2/S-4)

Tabela 2

Potrebe po profesionalnem izobraževanju in usposabljanju – pojasnitev rezultatov kvantitativne evalvacije o zadovoljstvu na delovnem mestu

<i>Tema</i>	<i>Kategorija</i>	<i>Kode</i>
Želja po dodatnem izobraževanju (PV = 3,5)	pomen izobraževanj	izobraževanja, potrebna za izvedbo delovnega procesa, izobraževanja, potrebna za ohranjanje licence za delo
	potrebe po izobraževanjih	velika želja po dodatnem izobraževanju, potrebe po jezikovnih tečajih, potrebe po računalniških izobraževanjih, izmenjave dobrih praks pri delu, mobilnost med slovenskimi univerzami, mobilnost v tujini, samoizobraževanja, spremljanje novosti preko svetovnega spleta
	promocija izobraževanj	dovolj izobraževanj, dobrodošla izobraževanja na UM, na voljo veliko izobraževanj, večja promocija, pomanjkanje časa, omejitve prijavnosti
	izkušnje z izobraževanji	zunanja izobraževanja niso izpolnila pričakovanj

Rezultati *Ankete o zadovoljstvu na delovnem mestu* med zaposlenimi na FF UM so pokazali visoko strinjanje s trditvijo “*Za svoje delo se želim dodatno izobraževati*” (PV = 3,5). Zanimalo nas je, kakšen je pogled udeležencev fokusne skupine na možnosti dodatnih izobraževanj, ki so jim na voljo v delovnem okolju, ali se jih udeležujejo ter kaj bi si želeli v prihodnje (tabela 2).

Predstavniki strokovnih služb so pojasnili, da so izobraževanja nujno potrebna tako za kakovostno izvedbo delovnega procesa kot tudi za obnavljanje in ohranjanje veljavnosti določenih licenc za opravljanje dela. Pri tem so potrdili rezultate ankete, da so jim vsa potrebna izobraževanja na razpolago. Pohvalili so, da jim delodajalec omogoča veliko strokovnih izobraževanj iz neposrednega področja njihovega dela. V prihodnje pa bi si želeli predvsem izobraževanj s področja tujih jezikov.

“Pri nas moramo vsako leto iti na skoraj dva ali tri tečaje in ni nobenih težav. [...] Informacije se tako razvijajo, da včasih praksa prehiteva teorijo. In potem se zgodi tudi med letom, da kaj potrebuješ. Se izpolni vloga in se gre na [op. navedba različnih izobraževanj na strokovnem področju], tudi ti splošni tečaji, ki jih ponuja univerza. Se je pa tudi pri nas pojavila želja po jezikovnih tečajih.” (7/V-8-9)

Med potrebami po dodatnih izobraževanjih so predstavniki strokovnih služb omenili nekatere novejšje, inovativne pristope. Med slednjimi so izpostavili izmenjavo dobrih praks oz. krajše, npr. enomesečne, izmenjave na delovnih mestih v strokovnih službah, in sicer tako na domači univerzi kot tudi na drugih slovenskih univerzah in v tujini. Menijo, da bi lahko navedene mobilnosti prispevale k boljšemu razumevanju skupnih delovnih procesov ter učinkovitejšemu sodelovanju med strokovnimi službami na različnih ravneh organizacije.

“Že pred leti smo izpostavili, še vedno je ta želja, da bi si nekako izmenjali dobre prakse. [...] Pred leti smo se pogovarjali, da bi kdaj naredili kakšno enomesečno izmenjavo ali pa da bi nekdo od naših šel za en mesec na drugo

področje dela. In potem bi tudi naše delo morda drugače osmislili, kaj izboljšali, da bi bilo lažje.” (9/V-9)

Kljub ugotovitvi, da se predstavniki strokovnih služb strinjajo, da je na voljo dovolj izobraževanj, ki so neposredno povezana z njihovim področjem dela, pa hkrati priznavajo, da le-teh ne izkoriščajo v polni meri. Ključni razlogi so pomanjkanje časa ob rednem delu, omejitve števila mest in slabše poznavanje danih možnosti. Zato bi bila potrebna večja promocija izobraževanj za zaposlene z vidika njihovega pomena za kakovostno delo.

Tabela 3

Mnenje o načinu ocenjevanja zadovoljstva na delovnem mestu

<i>Tema</i>	<i>Kategorije</i>	<i>Kode</i>
Prednosti fokusne skupine	boljše razumevanje sodelavcev	spodbudi razumevanje in spoštovanje sodelavca, dragocena izkušnja, vpogled v druga delovna mesta strokovnih služb, vpogled v želje in potrebe drugih sodelavcev
	povezanost kolektiva	skupne želje in prizadevanja, skupne potrebe, prednost skupnih ciljev pred individualnimi, povezan kolektiv
	iskreni in konkretni odgovori	dodana vrednost k anketi, sproščen pogovor, pristni odgovori v fokusni skupini, osebni odgovori so bolj konkretni, možnost pojasnitve vprašanj v fokusni skupini, osebni pristop, osebni pristop pri samoevalvaciji je boljši, lahko preko MS Teams, pogled vodij
	razvoj novih idej	spodbujanje širšega razmišljanja zaposlenih o izboljšavah na delovnem mestu, fokusna skupina spodbudi širše razmišljanje, poslušanje mnenj drugih in razmišljanje o drugih vidikih, razvoj idej v fokusni skupini
Drugi načini evalvacije	hibridni način	oba pristopa skupaj – anketa in fokusna skupina
	prednosti ankete	pripravljenost sodelovanja tudi v anketi o zadovoljstvu zaposlenih, lažje sodelovati v samoevalvaciji z izpolnitvijo anonimne ankete, fokusna skupina je zahtevnejša za analizo podatkov
Predlogi za izboljšave	izvedba fokusne skupine na vseh nivojih zaposlenih v organizaciji	vključitev v fokusne pogovore tudi ostalih zaposlenih, občutek enakopravnosti, fokusna skupina tudi za druge delavce, ne samo za vodje
	izboljšave ankete	krajše ankete, problem odziva sodelavcev, vprašljivi rezultati ankete zaradi nerazumevanja vprašanj, trditvev, različno razumevanje vprašanj v anketi

Intervjuvanci so izpostavili, da ima fokusna skupina določene prednosti pri presojanju kakovosti visokega šolstva, kot so boljše razumevanje dela svojih sodelavcev, okrepitev povezanosti kolektiva, prejem iskrenih in konkretnih odgovorov ter razvoj novih idej v sodelovanju z drugimi (tabela 3). V nadaljevanju pa so predlagali še nekatere alternativne pristope ter izboljšave za prihodnja presojanja zadovoljstva zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu.

Sproščen in pristen osebni pogovor v fokusni skupini po mnenju intervjuvancev predstavlja dodano vrednost k anketi, saj daje iskrene in konkretne odgovore ter omogoča možnost pojasnitve vprašanj. Intervjuvanci menijo, da je osebni pristop k samo-evalvaciji zelo dragocen, saj spodbuja širše razmišljanje celotne skupine o izboljšavah na delovnem mestu in s tem razvoj novih idej, o katerih pri pisni anketi mogoče ne bi niti pomislili. Vpogled v delo drugih delovnih mest, želje in potrebe sodelavcev pa po mnenju predstavnikov strokovnih služb pomembno prispeva tudi k boljšemu medsebojnemu razumevanju in spoštovanju v kolektivu.

“Mogoče bi še dodala, da danes vidimo razliko med reševanjem ankete in tem, kar smo danes tukaj počeli. To je, da mogoče fokusna skupina spodbudi vse nas v razmišljanje širše. Ko sam izpolnjuješ anketo, vidiš samo tisto vprašanje, pa še odvisno je, kako ga razumeš. Če je konkretno, potem bo odgovor konkreten. Če pa ni tako, so potem taki odgovori lahko dvoumni in pripeljejo do mogoče malo izkrivljenih rezultatov. Tukaj v fokusni skupini pa vidim, da je res pristno, sploh danes, ko je bilo tako sproščeno, pa ker smo tudi dober kolektiv in smo povezani, se zdi, da smo prišli do novih idej. Mogoče je spodbudilo tudi tiste, ki so manj razmišljali v določeno smer, da so povedali za svoje področje. [...] Sodelavce drugače razumeš in spoštuješ. [...] Tako da vsekakor štejem to kot eno dodano vrednost k anketi in dobrodošlo za v prihodnje.” (10/S-13)

V fokusni skupni so se pokazale skupne želje, prizadevanja in potrebe zaposlenih v strokovnih službah, kar pomembno prispeva k povezanosti kolektiva. Kot pravi ena izmed udeleženk, takšen pristop pomembno spodbuja razvoj skupnih ciljev v kolektivu.

“Meni je res všeč tudi zato, ker sem, recimo, neposredno na primeru slišala, kaj si želimo. Če si nekaj skupaj želimo, je drugače, ker če vemo, da si nekaj skupaj želimo, kakor če sem samo jaz tam v moji pisarni. In potem od sodelavcev, ko vidim, slišim njegov vidik, zakaj si nekaj želi, zakaj nekaj potrebuje, ne samo želi, je drugače. Meni je danes to zelo dobrodošlo, ta izkušnja.” (9/V-13)

Med možnimi alternativnimi pristopi k presojanju kakovosti so intervjuvanci predlagali tudi pristop, ki bi povezoval kvantitativno anketo in kvalitativni fokusni intervju.

“Po moje bi bilo dobro, če bi meli hibridni sistem – na eni strani anketo, na drugi strani pa, da bi se tako dobili – bi bil po moje boljši vtis, bolj pristen, oseben.” (3/S-13)

5 Zaključek

Z izvedeno kvalitativno študijo smo želeli dobiti vpogled v mnenja, razmišljanja in doživljanja zaposlenih v strokovnih službah glede zadovoljstva na delovnem mestu v visokem šolstvu. V eno uro trajajočem skupinskem pogovoru z desetimi zaposlenimi so bila izražena mnenja vseh udeležencev. Dosežena so bila spontana dopolnjevanja med podobnimi pogledi ter izpostavljena navzkrižna stališča, dani drugačni pogledi in izkušnje. Navedeno je rezultat visoke interakcije med udeleženci, kar dokazuje kakovostno izvedbo fokusne skupine (Klemenčič in Hlebec, 2007; Štemberger, 2021). Pridobljeno

kvalitativno gradivo je omogočilo poglobljeno kvalitativno analizo s pomočjo trinivojskega postopka kodiranja in kategoriziranja besedila.

Ugotovitve so pokazale visoko zadovoljstvo in pripadnost zaposlenih do svoje delovne organizacije. Dobri medsebojni odnosi v kolektivu, dobro sodelovanje z različnimi deležniki, zanimanje za delo in dobro počutje predstavljajo ključne dejavnike zadovoljstva na delovnem mestu strokovnih sodelavcev v visokošolskem izobraževanju. Udeležba na strokovnih izobraževanjih in kvalitativni pristopi pedagoškega raziskovanja pri presojanju kakovosti pa se kažejo kot pomembne strategije pri soočanju z izzivi, izboljšanju delovne zavzetosti in uspešnosti zaposlenih v visokem šolstvu. Navedenim dejavnikom velja v prihodnje posvetiti skrbno pozornost, saj se je v dosedanjih raziskavah zadovoljstvo (oz. občutek srečnosti) pri zaposlenih izkazalo za statistično značilno povezano s kulturo oz. klimo organizacije, in sicer zlasti s podpornimi odnosi med sodelavci ter občutkom nadrejenega za potrebe svojih delavcev (Ficarra idr., 2020). Sistematično pregledna raziskava kvalitativnih študij o motivih za nadaljevanje zaposlitve pri delavcih, ki so že izpolnili pogoje za upokožitev, pa je pokazala, da so veselje do dela, dobri medsebojni odnosi, dosežki in pomoč drugim ključni motivi za ostajanje v delovnem okolju tudi po dani možnosti odhoda v upokožitev (Bratun idr., 2023).

Na osnovi dobljenih ugotovitev lahko sklenemo, da se je kvalitativni polstrukturirani skupinski pogovor izkazal kot ustrezen metodološki pristop za ocenjevanje zadovoljstva zaposlenih v strokovnih službah visokošolskih zavodov. Uspešnost izvedene fokusne skupine velja pripisati več dejavnikom, med katerimi je na prvem mestu dobro poznavanje tematike pogovora s strani udeležencev. Dve tretjini sodelujočih v fokusni skupini sta bili namreč zaposleni s polnim delovnim časom za nedoločen čas, kar pomeni, da so imeli večletne izkušnje z delom v raziskovanem delovnem okolju. Nadalje je bilo med člani skupine vzpostavljeno zaupanje, saj so vsi delovali v okviru strokovnih služb, kjer na dnevni ravni potekajo intenzivna sodelovanja. Postavljanje nestrukturiranih in posrednih vprašanj ter spodbujanje razprave z nevtralnimi podvprašanji se je prav tako izkazalo za uspešen način pri obravnavani tematiki. Zagotovitev anonimnosti udeležencev, prostovoljno sodelovanje, v katerem je lahko vsak sodelujoči delil svoje mnenje ali izkušnje v obsegu in na način, kot je to sam želel, skupna uskladitev termina srečanja ter izvedba srečanja v sproščenem vzdušju so ob zagotavljanju etičnosti raziskave pomembno prispevali tudi k uspešni izvedbi pogovora ter pridobitvi verodostojnih in avtentičnih podatkov. Predstavniki strokovnih služb so tudi sami izpostavili pomembno izkušnjo sodelovanja v fokusni skupini za boljše razumevanje svojih sodelavcev in njihovega dela, povezanost kolektiva in predanost skupnim ciljem ter razvoj novih idej. Zato si v prihodnje želijo ob krajši anketi tudi možnost tematsko usmerjenega pogovora. Na osnovi dobljenih ugotovitev kvalitativne samoevalvacije lahko sklepamo, da je bila ustvarjena ustrezna pozitivna klima organizacije, ki je omogočila njeno izvedbo. Klima vzgojno-izobraževalne organizacije, v kateri je možno doseganje soglasja o skupnih prepričanjih, vrednotah, viziji in poslanstvu ustanove, se je namreč v dosedanjih raziskavah pokazala kot ključni dejavnik uspešne samoevalvacije vzgojno-izobraževalnih ustanov (Devjak idr., 2020, str. 35, 37).

Pričujoča razprava prispeva k aktualni diskusiji o presojanju kakovosti v visokem šolstvu (glej Pogorelčnik in Boštjančič, 2023; Starc, 2015; Štemberger, 2017). Izvedba kvalitativnega presojanja kakovosti s predstavniki strokovnih služb se je izkazala za uspešno, saj je dala širok in poglobljen vpogled v njihove izkušnje, pričakovanja in iz-

zive na delovnem mestu, zato ji velja slediti tudi v prihodnje ter jo razširiti še na druge skupine zaposlenih, tudi na ostale deležnike, ki sodelujejo v visokem šolstvu. Vpogled v dejavnike zadovoljstva, motiviranost in predanost zaposlenih daje pomembna izhodišča za prihodnji razvoj in ozaveščanje kulture kakovosti na slovenskih univerzah in fakultetah.

Joca Zurc, PhD

A Qualitative Paradigm of Pedagogical Research in Higher Education Evaluation

The main purpose of assessing the quality of higher education is to monitor the implementation of the vision and strategy of the higher education institution (Quality Assessment Committee of the Faculty of Arts, University of Maribor; 2020, 2021). A well-developed feedback system on the quality of work can be understood as a positive feedback loop that enables the professional and personal development of higher education teachers and assistants. The result is high-quality higher education, which stimulates students' interest in studying and contributes to better academic performance, which in turn contributes to higher performance and better reputation of the entire university (Pogorelčnik & Boštjančič, 2023).

*Among the various data collection and analysis techniques used to monitor the quality of higher education, online surveys on student and staff satisfaction stand out, as they are widely used. However, this quantitative approach to quality assessment encounters some methodological dilemmas that require critical reflection on its use (Štemberger, 2015). Existing quality criteria that are only focused on quantitative research do not meet the specific needs of other methodological approaches to quality assessment, such as action research (Bleijenbergh et al., 2011). The criticism of positivism leads to the establishment of qualitative research as an alternative approach to quantitative research. The pioneers in the field of the qualitative paradigm, Lincoln and Guba (1985), questioned the basic assumptions of the quantitative methodological tradition in science in their work *Naturalistic Inquiry*, which is considered one of the foundational works of social science research methodology. The positivist paradigm prescribes empirical, verifiable, and repeatable research approaches and, as such, cannot explain all scientific facts and comprehensively define the non-positivist research perspective. Lincoln and Guba (1985) have proposed an alternative approach that supports the naturalistic paradigm, also known as the constructivist or interpretive research paradigm. Qualitative methodology is characterized by the collection, analysis, and interpretation of narrative data, using various techniques such as categorization and contextualization strategies. The central aim of qualitative research is to portray the participants' lives as authentically as possible from their perspective, experiences, and understanding. Qualitative research follows two principles – flexibility and context dependence (Kogovšek, 1998). A qualitative researcher is characterized by an inductive research perspective that focuses on understanding the individual and takes into account the complexity of the research context (Creswell, 2014; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).*

When monitoring employee satisfaction through surveys, it is also important to gain a qualitative insight into their opinions, perspectives, and experiences of working in higher education. Our study aimed to explore the qualitative paradigm of pedagogical research in evaluating the quality of higher education and to utilize a focus group interview to obtain the perspectives and experiences of a selected group of staff, their agreement, differing views, and challenges at work. The study was conducted using an empirical qualitative approach and a semi-structured interview technique in a focus group. We planned and conducted the focus group in four phases according to Klemenčič and Hlebec (2007, pp. 9–10):

- planning a focus group with problem identification;
- selecting and recruiting participants;
- conducting a focus group session;
- qualitative data analysis and reporting.

We invited managers and representatives of the administrative staff of the Faculty of Arts of the University of Maribor (FF UM) to participate in the focus group. One representative was selected from each administrative unit (e.g., Secretariat, Office of Student Affairs, Accounting, International Office, Project Office, ICT Office, Office of Human Resources and General Affairs, etc.). A total of 10 members of administrative staff employed at FF UM in the 2021/2022 academic year participated in our focus group. In terms of gender, women predominated (70%). The average age of the participants was 40.9 years ($SD = 11.21$ years), with the youngest participant being 27 and the oldest 56 years old. All participants came from the Podravska region. Regarding the level of education attained, 75% of the participants stated that they had obtained a university degree or upper secondary education. Two-thirds (67%) of the focus group participants were in permanent full-time employment. As many as 75% had no experience participating in a focus group; one participant had already taken part in interviews. Only two participants had experience with a focus group.

The measurement instrument used in the focus group was a semi-structured interview. The questions were based on the results of previous self-evaluation reports (Quality Assessment Committee of the Faculty of Arts, University of Maribor, 2020), the results of a focus group with student tutors (Zurc, 2021, 2023) and the results of a survey on employee satisfaction at work (Quality Assessment Committee of the Faculty of Arts, University of Maribor, 2020). A focus group with administrative staff representatives was held on Monday, 14 February 2022, from 9:30 am to 10:33 am. The group interview lasted 1 hour and 3 minutes. It was conducted remotely via MS Teams. Data collection was conducted following the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki on Ethical Principles for Research Involving Human Subjects, the Personal Data Protection Act, and general ethical research principles. All participants took part voluntarily and had the option of cancelling their participation at any time without consequences. The collected material was analysed and combined without separating the statements from each other. All statements were coded. Due to the unequal representation of participants by gender and the possible recognition of the identities of the small number of male participants, all representative statements in the report were presented in female form. The data were analysed manually in MS Word using the qualitative content analysis method presented in Adam et al. (2012).

The findings show a high level of employee satisfaction and commitment to their work organization. Good mutual relationships within the team, good cooperation with different stakeholders, interest in the work, and well-being in the workplace are crucial factors for the job satisfaction of administrative staff in higher education. As one of the participants stated: “The biggest plus for me is that these are my colleagues. The work can be difficult, extremely difficult or extremely easy; it depends on your colleagues” (2/S-1). Participation in lifelong training and qualitative approaches to quality assessment appear to be key strategies for overcoming challenges and improving the work engagement and performance of university administrative staff. These factors should be given special attention in the future, as previous research has shown that employee satisfaction or happiness is statistically significantly related to the culture of the organization, and specifically to the existence of supportive relationships between colleagues and to supervisors’ sensitivity to the needs of their employees (Ficarra et al., 2020). A systematic review of qualitative studies on the motives for continued employment of employees who have already met the requirements for retirement found that enjoying work, good mutual relationships, achievements, and helping others are the most important motives for remaining in the work environment, even when there is the possibility of retirement (Bratun et al., 2023).

Based on the findings, we conclude that the use of a qualitative semi-structured focus group has proved to be a suitable methodological approach for assessing employee satisfaction in higher education institutions. The focus group revealed the shared aspirations, endeavours, and needs of staff in administrative services, which contributed significantly to collective cohesion. As one of the participants explained, such an approach significantly promotes the development of shared goals within the team: “I like it very much, also because I heard actual examples of what we want. [...] And then from my colleagues, when I see their perspective and hear why they want something, or why they need something, not just want it, then it’s different. This experience is very enriching for me” (9/V-13).

The discussion presented in this study contributes to the current debate on quality assessment in higher education (see Pogorelčnik & Boštjančič, 2023; Štemberger, 2017). Conducting a qualitative quality assessment with representatives of higher education administrative staff has proved to be successful, as it has provided a broad and deep insight into their experiences, expectations, and challenges in the workplace. Therefore, it should be followed up in the future and extended to other groups of employees, as well as to different stakeholders involved in higher education. The insight into employee satisfaction, motivation, and engagement factors gained in this study provides starting points for future development and awareness of the quality culture at Slovenian universities and faculties.

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