

ZBORNIK RADOVA
MEĐUNARODNE
ZNAJSTVENE
KONFERENCIJE
19. DANI
MATE DEMARINA
„RAZVOJNI ASPEKTI
U ODGOJU I
OBRAZOVANJU“

PROCEEDINGS OF
THE INTERNATIONAL
SCIENTIFIC
CONFERENCE 19TH
MATE DEMARIN DAYS
“DEVELOPMENTAL
ASPECTS OF
EDUCATION“



Fakultet za odgojne
i obrazovne znanosti

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SADRŽAJ / CONTENT

IZVORNI ZNANSTVENI RADOVI / ORIGINAL SCIENTIFIC PAPERS

- RELATIONS BETWEEN THE MANNER OF SPENDING TIME WITH FAMILY AND PRESCHOOL CHILDREN'S PASSIVE RISK BEHAVIORS**
Biljana Trajkovski, Katarina Čibić, Nataša Vlah, Vesna Katić 7
- ARE THE (FUTURE) TEACHERS OF INFORMATICS READY TO TEACH PROGRAMMING IN THE LOWER GRADES OF PRIMARY SCHOOL?**
Janko Žufić, Aleksandra Žufić 25

PRETHODNA PRIOPĆENJA / PRELIMINARY COMMUNICATIONS

- THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ACHIEVEMENT ON THE ACADIA DEVELOPMENTAL ABILITY TEST AND GENDER IN PUPILS INVOLVED IN THE PROCESS OF DETERMINING THE PSYCHOPHYSICAL CONDITION**
Vanja Marković 49
- CLASSROOM ATMOSPHERE**
Sandra Kadum, Lorena Lazarić, Dijana Drandić 67
- CORPUS ANALYSIS OF THE FREQUENCY AND DISCOURSE FUNCTION OF CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS USED IN CROATIAN AND ENGLISH STUDENTS' ACADEMIC WRITING**
Jelena Gugić 79
- MANIFESTATIONS OF SELF-REGULATED LEARNING FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF FUNDAMENTAL LEARNING THEORIES**
Ekaterina Titova, Marko Turk 99
- STRESSORS AND SUPPORT AS THE DETERMINANTS OF TEACHER DEVELOPMENT POTENTIAL**
Maja Ljubetić, Toni Maglica 115

PREGLEDNI RADOVI / REVIEW PAPERS

- INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCES OF PRESCHOOL TEACHERS IN PROMOTING INTERCULTURALISM**
Serenela Krajcar, Elvi Piršl 135

STRUČNI RADOVI / PROFESSIONAL PAPERS

- KINDERGARTEN WEBSITES IN THE TIME OF COVID-19**
Edita Rogulj 151

**THE CHALLENGES OF TRANSDISCIPLINARITY IN MITIGATING THE
STIGMATIZATION OF STUDENTS WITH DEVELOPMENTAL DISABILITIES**
Dejan Golubović 165

**THE ROLE OF A SELF-REFLECTIVE DIARY IN STIMULATING
PEDAGOGUES' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE
DOMAIN OF COOPERATION WITH FAMILIES**
Barbara Kušević 177

**ASPIRATIONS FOR TEACHING MUSIC CULTURE IN OLD
AND NEW CURRICULUM FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL**
Luka Pongračić, Ana Maria Marinac, Andrea Blaževac 191

**ERASMUS + PROJECTS: ACTIVITIES AT SCHOOL, LOCAL AND
INTERNATIONAL LEVEL DURING AND AFTER THE PROJECT COMPLETION**
Aurika Matković, Alenka Banić Juričić 213

**INTERPRETATION OF THE LEXICAL-SEMANTIC
LAYER OF THREE POMET'S MONOLOGUES**
Belma Korošec, Vendi Franc, Božica Vuić 231

IZLAGANJA SA ZNANSTVENOG SKUPA / CONFERENCE PAPERS

**KANT AND ROUSSEAU – FOUNDATIONAL THINKERS
OF COSMOPOLITAN EDUCATION**
Marin Beroš 249

IZVORNI
ZNANSTVENI
RADOVI

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ORIGINAL
SCIENTIFIC
PAPERS

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RELATIONS BETWEEN THE MANNER OF SPENDING TIME WITH FAMILY AND PRESCHOOL CHILDREN'S PASSIVE RISK BEHAVIORS

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ABSTRACT

The time spent with the family is assessed as an area underlying many risks for developing behavioral problems in children but also providing opportunities for their prevention. This paper aimed to analyze the incidence and relationships between preschool children's passive risk behaviors, on the one hand, and the way they spend time with their families, on the other. A survey questionnaire was used on a sample of 122 kindergarten children (61 female and 61 male), with an average age of 3.5 years, from the city of Rijeka and its surroundings to assess how children spend their time with their parents when they are not attending the kindergarten (how much time they spend walking, reading, watching television, or playing on the computer). The preschool teachers filled out the second part of the questionnaire to assess children's risk behaviors according to the SCBE scale (Bubnić, 2002). The obtained results indicate that children spend too much time sitting, walk too little, and play too much on the computer when they are with their families. When they are in kindergarten, children show a greater need for security, i.e., there is a recorded children's fear of separation from people close to them and whom they trust (e.g., preschool teacher, parents). Children who spend more time watching television or playing computer games when with their family have more pronounced passive risk behaviors in the kindergarten and vice versa; children whose preschool teacher more often assessed passive risk behaviors spend more time watching television and playing computer games.

Keywords: preschool children, free time, family, risk behaviors, relationship

INTRODUCTION

The family is the primary environment in which the child acquires his first life experiences, knowledge, and skills. In it, the child creates and develops his own identity, creates an opinion about himself, the world around him, and his place in that world. Emotional warmth and family cohesion need to be established within the family so that the child has a good foundation for positive growth and development, i.e., developing a sense of belonging, security, trust, and understanding. This environment should develop socially acceptable behavior (Miliša & Zloković, 2008). The way children spend time in a family environment has an impact on their behavior. Time spent with the family is assessed as an area underlying many risks for developing behavioral problems in children but also providing opportunities for their prevention (Jeđud & Novak, 2006). This must be quality, organized, and planned time to better relationships of family members and strengthen cohesiveness for the purpose of children's positive development (Taylor et al., 2006, according to Berc & Kokorić, 2012). Time spent together can include meals, housework, games and hobbies, going for a walk, and the like. It is also important to emphasize that shared meals without a TV turned on, a mobile phone, or a computer provide an opportunity for mutual conversations that are the foundation of good family relationships (Nenadić-Bilan, 2014). Research by Hoffert and Sandberg (2001) showed an association between socializing within the family during meals and lower rates of behavioral problems.

The adults' modern way of life characterized by a lack of motor activities leaves negative consequences on their health and, unfortunately, also on the health of children and youth. Adults also pass on their way of life to the child, so they usually do not have the conditions (time and space) to meet their authentic needs for movement and play in the family environment. Therefore, insufficient motor activity during preschool age adversely affects the development of skills and motor skills acquisition, but the consequences of insufficient movement also negatively affect the child's health status (Trajkovski, 2011).

From this point of view, kindergartens are becoming especially important as autonomous educational environments and other forms of out-of-home education that could offer opportunities to eliminate the negative consequences of the modern lifestyle for preschool children's health.

Children spend most of their time playing and, during play, they usually move, which is also one of the child's most important needs for healthy psychophysical growth and development (Blažević et al., 2012). Physical activity, in addition to affecting morphological, motor, and functional characteristics and cognitive functions, also affects the conative area responsible for children's and youth's various forms of behavior and socialization in living and working conditions (Prskalo, 2005).

Media content also takes up a significant amount of time in children's lives. This usually refers to electronic media (television, computer, cell phone), but print media (picture books, books, etc.) should also be considered, although it is less represented. Research shows that 99% of preschool children use some media. The use of media from an early age and exposure to inappropriate content can negatively affect children's development, opinions, attitudes, and behavior (Ciboci et al., 2014).

Behavioral problems in children and young people is a term that is accepted as the least stigmatizing, and which implies risk behaviors, behavioral difficulties, and behavioral disorders as a continuum of less serious and simple dangers for themselves and others, and extending to those dangers which are sanctioned by regulations and often have more serious consequences and need appropriate treatment (Koller-Trbović et al., 2011). Risk behaviors or at-risk children and young people are those which, when describing children and young people faced with numerous adversities, threaten their positive development and oppose social standards (Bouillet & Uzelac, 2007). When defining behavioral problems in preschool children, it is necessary to consider the degree of the child's maturity and his developmental aspect, which is extremely important for the understanding of the child's behavior at the appropriate age (Koller-Trbović et al., 2011). Within the spectrum of behavioral problems, in early and preschool-aged children, the first level is recognized, i.e., risk behaviors and not behavioral difficulties or behavioral disorders (Vlah et al., 2014). It is difficult to discuss behavioral disorders at that age because children's development is dynamic. However, behaviors that are inconsistent with the behavior of other children of the same chronological age can be observed (Bouillet, 2010). Early and preschool age is a critical period due to the possibility of timely action and prevention. More precisely, the behavior at that age can be influenced because it is subject to change. If risk behaviors are recognized

in time during the preschool period, they can be overcome with adequate professional help, thus neutralizing the risk (Vlah et al., 2014).

Different risk behaviors are intertwined in mysterious and different ways. They are challenging to separate into clear classifications, so it should be borne in mind that it is infrequent to encounter children who show only one form of risk behavior (Bouillet & Uzelac, 2007; Koller-Trbović, 2004). We distinguish between active and passive risk behaviors. Active risk behaviors are directed towards the outside world, i.e., towards the environment (Koller-Trbović, 2004), while passive risk behaviors are overly controlled and self-directed (Brajša-Žganec, 2003).

Children with passive risk show their distance from the world, withdrawal, loneliness, and disinterest in the world around them (Koller-Trbović, 2004). Such risk behaviors are very difficult to observe precisely because they occur within a child (Bouillet & Uzelac, 2007), and children at that age do not know how to verbalize how they feel and what they think, so it is difficult to study them (Živčić-Bečirević et al., 2003). Lebedina Manzoni (2010) categorizes passive behaviors as excessively controlled behavioral disorders from which she singles out childhood fears, separation anxiety, social withdrawal, and depression. This is confirmed by Bouillet (2010), who singles out timidity, withdrawal, depression, negligence, and laziness in children of early and preschool age.

This paper relies on the empirical method to understand the relationship between how preschool children spend time with their families and how passive risk behaviors are reflected in the educational institution, i.e., the kindergarten.

Therefore, this paper aims to analyze the incidence and relationships between passive risk behaviors of preschool children, on the one hand, and ways of spending time with their families, on the other. This means that the paper determines how many passive risk behaviors preschool teachers assess in children in the kindergarten, how children spend time with their families at home and the relationship between the frequency of passive risk behaviors in the kindergarten and how children spend their time while with their families at home.

The obtained results can be used as a starting point for educational workshops' objectives, which the preschool teacher can conduct with parents at regular parent-teacher meetings in the kindergarten.

METHODS

The sample of participants consisted of $N = 122$ (61 M and 61 F) children from kindergartens Čavle, Viškovo, Zamet, Kraljevica, Drenova, and Pehlin in the Primorje-Gorski Kotar County, with an average age of 3.5 years (Min = 2; Max = 4 years and 11 months), who were interviewed in the pedagogical year 2016/2017.

In this research, we sought the preschool teachers' opinion, i.e., they assessed children's behavior in the educational groups they teach and the parents' opinion, who filled out a questionnaire with questions on how children spend time in their family environment.

The first measuring instrument, a constructed survey questionnaire intended for parents in which they provided information on how the child spends his time with the family, included the following questions:

- How do you spend the weekends and holidays with your child:
- You engage in various sports at the gym: gymnastics, basketball, football, handball, martial arts, tennis, badminton, bowling (0 = NO; 1 = YES)
- You engage in various sports at the pool: swimming, water polo, diving, jumping, water games (0 = NO; 1 = YES)
- You engage in various outdoor sports: horseback riding, orienteering (running), hiking, biking, hang-gliding, outdoor games (0 = NO; 1 = YES)
- How many hours (minutes) a day does your child watch TV?
- How many hours (minutes) a day does your child read?
- How many hours (minutes) a day does your child play on the computer?

The second measuring instrument was the SCBE scale (Scale of Social Competence and Behavior Evaluation for Preschoolers), a questionnaire intended for preschool teachers to evaluate preschool children's behavior. On a measuring scale from 1 to 6 (1 – never occurs, 2 – sometimes occurs, 3 – occurs, 4 – often occurs, 5 – very often occurs, 6 – always occurs), the frequency of the occurrence of particular behaviors is evaluated given the child's emotional adjustment and social interactions with peers and

adults. Items are divided into three dimensions: social competence, active behavioral problems, and passive behavioral problems (Bubnić, 2002). In this paper, we paid special attention to the dimension of passive behavioral problems with associated items: "Passive, observes other children play," "Worried," "Reserved and insecure in a group," "Keeps to himself/herself, isolated from the group," "Sad, unhappy, or depressed," "Timid, scared (e.g., avoids new situations)," "Needs the presence of a preschool teacher to function well," "Tired," "Does not communicate or participate in group activities," "Cries when parents leave," "Does not respond to calls from other children to play," "Anxious, nervous (bites his/her nails)," "Sticks to the preschool teacher in unfamiliar situations (e.g., on a field trip)," "Remains unnoticed in the group," "Asks for help when he/she does not need it."

The information was processed using descriptive statistics (frequencies, relative frequencies, arithmetic mean, and correlation analyses (Spearman's correlations and Kendall's Tau-b) of the child's time spent with the family and the child's total, averagely assessed, passive risk problems.

The information was collected anonymously and voluntarily.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To achieve the set objectives, we will present and analyze the obtained results of the conducted research. First, the obtained parents' data on children will be presented, i.e., insight into how children spend time with their families. This will be followed by an analysis of children's passive risk behaviors in kindergarten based on preschool teachers' assessments. The criterion for assessing the presence of passive risk behaviors is the sum of the assessments "often" and "always." Those behaviors that show a high percentage in the results will be viewed as behaviors that indicate passive risk behaviors of early and preschool children.

Table 1. *Descriptive analysis (% = percentage; N = 122 participants)*

Questions	YES	NO
You engage in various sports at the gym: gymnastics, basketball, football, handball, martial arts, tennis, badminton, bowling	3.3%	96.7%
You engage in various sports at the pool: swimming, water polo, diving, jumping, water games	13.9%	86.1%
You engage in various outdoor sports: horseback riding, orienteering (running), hiking, biking, hang-gliding, outdoor games	52.5%	58%

Out of the total data collected for 122 children, the results are as follows. It can be observed (Table 1) that a large percentage of children, as many as 96.7%, do not engage in any indoor sports, and only 3.3% engage in some indoor sports, while 86.1% of children do not play pool-based sports, and 13.9% do, slightly more than at the gym. However, a larger number of children, 47.5% of them, play outdoor sports, while as many as 52.5% of children do not.

The presented results indicate an insufficient level of kinesiological activities at the gym or the pool, which was to be expected because the children are only three years old. However, the parents should encourage the awareness of the importance of children's physical activity. Indeed, it is also important for the child to show interest, but parents' encouragement is also crucial. Engagement in outdoor sports showed an approximately similar share of children who engage and those who do not engage in outdoor sports. However, there are still too many children who do not engage in any activities. Since the children are on average 3.5 years old, it was not expected that they would be overly engaged in indoor or pool-based sports, but too few of them play outside, which is worrisome because we can conclude that they play outdoors too rarely.

Table 2 presents the results of the ratio to which children watch television, read, or play on the computer.

Table 2. Descriptive analysis (N = 122, % = percentage)

MINUTES	TV	READING	COMPUTER
0	3.3%	71.6%	59%
0-20	7.5%	13%	10.4%
20-60	57.4%	13.9%	29.1%
60-120	27.5%	1.7%	1.8%
120-240	4.1%		

Table 2 presents the answers to the question “How many minutes a day does your child watch TV?” The results indicate that, from the sample surveyed, 3.3% of children do not watch television at all, while 7.5% of the examined sample spend between 0 and 20 minutes in front of the television. As many as 57.4% of children watch television between 20 and 60 minutes. 27.5% of children spend between 60 and 120 minutes watching television, while 4.1% of children spend more than two hours in front of the television screen.

The obtained results show that television has a significant share as a medium in the child’s time spent with the family. The most worrying results show that there are children who spend between 1 hour and 4 hours (240 minutes) in front of the television, 31.6% because the time spent watching television can be spent on a kinesiological activity that does not correlate with passive risk behaviors, unlike television (see Table 4).

A large number of responses to the question “How many minutes a day does your child read?” included 0 minutes, more precisely 71.6% of the participants. Another piece of data shows that 13% of children read between 0-20 minutes, while 13.7% read between 20 and 60 minutes. A very small number of children, three of them (1.7%), read between one and two hours. Since children are small and cannot read, parents should read to them and introduce them to media such as picture books to develop a love for books that are good for the child’s development in many respects.

With regards to the question “How many minutes a day does your child play on the computer?” 59.0% of the surveyed children do not spend any time on the computer, while 10.8% spend between 0 and 20 minutes. 29.1% of children play from 20 to 60 minutes on the computer, and 1.8% of children spend between one and two hours on the computer.

The obtained results indicate that more than half of the parents within the sample do not allow their children to play computer games, which is good, but, still, the remaining half spends time on the computer. It should be emphasized that extremes should be avoided and that, in modern times, when advances in technology are more significant than ever before, we should allow the child to access the content that the technology offers, but under parental supervision and only selected content based on the child's age.

Table 3. *Descriptive analysis of passive risk behaviors in children in the kindergarten according to the preschool teachers' assessments*

Items	Never occurs (1)	Sometimes Occurs (2)	Occurs (3)	Often occurs (4)	Very Often occurs (5)	Always occurs (6)
Tired	26.2%	45.1%	20.5%	5.7%	2.5%	0.0%
Worried	30.6%	32.2%	19.8%	8.3%	7.4%	1.7%
Timid, scared	23.8%	22.1%	25.4%	17.2%	9.0%	2.5%
Sad, unhappy, or depressed	56.2%	29.8%	7.4%	3.3%	3.3%	0.0%
Anxious, nervous (bites his/her nails)	66.9%	20.7%	6.6%	2.5%	3.3%	0.0%
Reserved and insecure in a group	40.7%	22.9%	20.3%	5.9%	8.5%	1.7%
Passive, observes other children play	49.6%	25.6%	10.7%	5.8%	5.8%	2.5%
Keeps to himself/herself, isolated from the group	49.2%	24.6%	17.2%	4.1%	4.1%	0.8%
Does not respond to calls from other children to play	37.0%	31.9%	21.8%	5.9%	2.5%	0.8%
Does not communicate or participate in group activities	43.0%	26.4%	17.4%	9.9%	3.3%	0.0%
Remains unnoticed in the group	24.6%	21.3%	23.8%	14.8%	13.9%	1.6%
Needs the presence of a preschool teacher to function well	16.4%	26.2%	24.6%	19.7%	7.4%	5.7%

Asks for help when he/she does not need it	28.7%	24.6%	19.7%	13.9%	8.2%	4.9%
Sticks to the preschool teacher in unfamiliar situations (e.g., on a field trip)	14.0%	30.6%	22.3%	9.1%	14.9%	9.1%
Cries when parents leave	38.0%	33.1%	16.5%	5.0%	5.8%	1.7%

Based on the sum of items “Always” and “Often” in the examined number of children, behaviors that the preschool teachers assessed to occur most often and that point to passive risk behaviors include “Sticks to the preschool teacher in unfamiliar situations (e.g., on a field trip)” (33.1%), followed by “Needs the presence of a preschool teacher to function well” (32.8%), “Remains unnoticed in the group” (30.3%), “Timid, scared (e.g., avoids new situations)” (28.7%) and “Asks for help when he/she does not need it” (27%). Behaviors that the preschool teachers assessed to be the least common in children are “Anxious, nervous (bites his/her nails)” (5.8%), “Sad, unhappy, or depressed” (6.6%), “Tired” (8.2%), “Keeps to himself/herself, isolated from the group” (9%) and “Does not respond to calls from other children to play” (9.2%).

By examining the items offered within the preschool teachers’ assessment, it can be noticed that the most noticeable behaviors are those that show the child’s need for security, i.e., the child’s fear of separation from people close to him and whom he trusts (e.g., preschool teacher, parents) and, thus, the child’s search for these persons when they are not necessary to him. Withdrawal in children is also noticed, i.e., that the child is not noticed in the group and is not exposed to new situations. The children are the least assessed as anxious and depressed, which is positive when observing from the perspective of a low percentage of such children, but, on the other hand, it would be most desirable to reduce this percentage to the non-existent level because, in the worst case, such behaviors can lead to suicide and we want to prevent it.

Table 4 shows the correlations between the way a child spends time in the family and behavioral problems. The results indicate that children who spend their time with the family watching much television or at the computer have more pronounced passive behavioral problems. In other words, it can be implied that children in whom their preschool teachers

assess passive risk behaviors more frequently will spend more time watching television and playing computer games.

Other results do not show an statistically significant association between how time is spent engaged in kinesiological activities with the occurrence of passive risk behaviors in children of early and preschool age.

Table 4. *Correlations between how time is spent with the family and passive risk behaviors*

	Time spent in kinesiological activities			Time spent with media		
	Gym	Pool	Outdoors	TV	Reading	Computer
Passive problems	-0.02	-0.05	-0.01	.20*	-.11	.37**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

The obtained results of the conducted research coincide with the existing research and records of authors who write about passive risk disorders in children leading to passive behavioral disorders such as timidity, separation anxiety, and withdrawal, which, according to Vlah et al. (2014), Koller-Trbović (2004), Lebedina Manzoni (2010), and Bouillet and Uzelac (2007), have been confirmed as passive risk behaviors that occur in children of early and preschool age.

Research by Brajše-Žganec (2013) and Fechete et al. (2018) indicates that children who show more passive behaviors also have low self-control and negative moods, which can be related to the results of this study that found that a certain percentage of children show behaviors such as inhibition (16.1%), crying (12.5%), anxiety, and nervousness (5.8%). The percentages were obtained based on the sum of the “Always” and “Often” responses.

According to Jeđud and Novak (2006), excessive time spent while with the family may be one of the risk of of developing passive risk behaviors, which the authors cite as problematic behavior. Badrić and Prskalo (2011) warn that the virtual world frantically complements the contents of time spent with the family, Ciboci et al. (2014) show on a sample of 837 participants that 80.5% of children under the age of three watch television. Furthermore, Tatković and Ružić Baf (2011) found that 67% of surveyed children aged 3 to 6 years use a computer. In a study conducted in Germany on a sample

of 527 preschool children aged 2 to 6 years, Poulain et al. (2018) obtained results indicating an association between the use of electronic media and risk behavior in children. Risk behaviors in aspects of emotional problems and hyperactivity were observed in 20% of the children in the sample. Inoue, Yorifuji et al. (2016) show on a sample of 32,439 participants that an increased amount of daily television viewing is associated with a higher risk of problematic self-regulatory behavior in children. A positive correlation of such time spent is also demonstrated in this study, which shows that children who spend more time in the family watching television or playing computer games manifest more passive risk behaviors in kindergarten. Early detection and intervention of risk behaviors in the kindergarten may be relevant for the prevention of future adverse psychosocial developmental outcomes such as delinquency or substance abuse in adolescence and adulthood (Mrazek & Hosman, 2002; Dryfoos, 1997, according to Vlah et al., 2014; Pulkkinen, 2001).

The conducted research has revealed results that are fruitful ground for further research and discussions. However, we must not take the results “for granted” and draw conclusions only based on this research because they were obtained from a small number of participants and because the sample is based only on children from kindergartens in the Primorje-Gorski Kotar County. The results of the child’s time spent with the family were obtained through a survey questionnaire for parents using six univariate dichotomous variables, which is insufficient to determine the validity measurements. Therefore, future research should use reliable multivariate scales that would determine the precise behaviors within the family that contribute to passive risk behaviors.

Accordingly, it is recommended for future research on passive risk behaviors that a larger sample of children aged 2 to 7 years be used. Because of this development’s dynamism, it would be most beneficial to conduct longitudinal research that would show which behaviors in early and preschool age influence passive behaviors in school and adolescence. Such research would improve the knowledge that would contribute to a better and more quality early intervention of such behaviors and the reduction of behavioral disorders in the future. In addition to the abovementioned, several domains such as the culture in which the child lives, kindergarten, parenting style, socio-economic status of the family, family form (single

parent, homosexual, heterosexual, etc.), and others should be considered. It is also recommended to pay attention to the parents' gender and stereotypical child-rearing behaviors that can also influence children's behavior in later life.

CONCLUSION

This research confirms some previous findings and opens implications for future methodologically improved research. Also, for the purpose of the child's positive growth and development, it is recommended to encourage engagement in kinesiological activities. In their primary settings, such as the family and kindergarten, children should be provided with emotional support and warmth, and a stimulating environment. Also, it is thought that the media are welcome in the child's growth and development, but as positive incentives for their development, which means that adults should have control over the content when the child uses the media and time - limit it because it has been observed that very serious risk behaviors manifested in the kindergarten can be associated with more time spent in front of a monitor while the child is at home with the family. This is a very important piece of information that should be verified in future studies with a larger sample and associated with other variables that may be mediating in explaining the results (e.g., parents' habits and attitudes in general, but also about raising children, their stress levels, and the like).

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ODNOSI NAČINA PROVOĐENJA VREMENA S OBITELJI I PASIVNIH RIZIČNIH PONAŠANJA PREDŠKOLSKE DJECE

SAŽETAK

Vrijeme provedeno u obitelji procjenjuje se kao područje na kojem počivaju mnogi rizici za razvoj problema u ponašanju kod djece, ali isto tako i snage za prevenciju. Cilj ovog rada bio je analizirati pojavnost i odnose između pasivnih rizičnih ponašanja djece predškolske dobi s jedne strane, a s druge strane načine provođenja vremena sa svojim obiteljima. Na uzorku od 122 djece (61 Ž i 61 M) u dobi od 3,5 godine na području grada Rijeke i okolice bio je primijenjen anketni upitnik kojim se je procjenjivalo kako djeca provode svoje vrijeme s roditeljima kada ne idu u vrtić te koliko hodaju, čitaju odnosno igraju se na kompjuteru. Drugi dio upitnika su ispunjavali odgajatelji i procjenjivali rizična ponašanja djece po skali SKEP (Bubnić, 2002). Dobiveni rezultati ukazuju da djeca previše sjede, premalo hodaju i previše se već igraju na kompjuteru, da djeca pokazuju potrebu za sigurnošću, odnosno strah djeteta od odvajanja od osoba koje su mu bliske i kojima vjeruje (npr., odgajateljica, roditelji), te da djeca koja svoje vrijeme u obitelji provode gledajući više televiziju ili za kompjuterom imaju izraženije pasivne probleme u ponašanju, odnosno, može se implicirati da će više vremena provoditi gledajući televiziju i igrajući igrice za kompjuterom djeca kojima odgajateljice češće procjenjuju pasivna rizična ponašanja.

Ključne riječi: djeca predškolske dobi, slobodno vrijeme, obitelj, rizična ponašanja, povezanost

ARE THE (FUTURE) TEACHERS OF INFORMATICS READY TO TEACH PROGRAMMING IN THE LOWER GRADES OF PRIMARY SCHOOL?

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ABSTRACT

The subject of Informatics was introduced to the lower graders this school year. The paper evaluates the readiness of the future and the current teachers of Informatics to teach programming skills, primarily through the pedagogical and professional modalities. There are here presented the results of a study conducted among the students of the Faculty of Educational Sciences with the given module and the teachers currently teaching Informatics in the higher primary school grades. Six students of this faculty and fifty-two teachers from the entire Republic of Croatia participated in the study. The participants self-assessed their competences, so it is possible to assess their readiness to teach their learners how to do programming. The results show that they are sufficiently prepared at the pedagogical level, but require additional training at the professional level.

Keywords: teaching programming, lower grades of primary school, Scratch, students of the Faculty of Educational Sciences, teachers of Informatics

INTRODUCTION

The subject of Informatics in the school curriculum should have an impact on the quality of life, and should not be dedicated exclusively to the teaching of specific skills (CS, 2020). According to the Curriculum issued by the Ministry of Science and Education of the Republic of Croatia (Ministry of Science and Education, 2018), some of the goals of teaching and learning the given subject are the development of critical thinking skills, creativity and innovation with the help of the information and communication technology, as well as the development of computational thinking, capability of problem solving and programming skills. Programming is viewed from a wider perspective, not just as the creation of computer software, e.g. as a way of problem solving practiced with the help of computers, and this could be transferred to the areas beyond the computer sciences. Therefore, children should have a chance to learn programming not necessarily to become programmers, but to practice problem solving (Programerko, 2015).

Activities and contents used for this purpose should correspond with the child cognitive development level. The younger the students, the more appropriate it is to use concrete examples and palpable contents, such as computer games without computers, the so-called unplugged activities. In the next phase of learning it is appropriate to continue with managing the images of objects. This particular phase of learning uses visual programming languages. Coding in the abstract programming languages, such as Python, C/C++ and others, is considered the final phase of learning how to do programming.

There are two different varieties of visual programming languages that allow the management of object images in the micro-world. One type is visual-textual, such as Logo, and the other is visual block-based such as Scratch, Alice, Game Maker, Blockly and alike. The primary advantage of the block-based programming languages lies in a significant reduction of syntactic errors that, in textual languages, often cause frustration and reduce motivation for learning programming among younger children who are just starting to learn programming. The focus is shifted from the syntax of a specific language towards logical thinking. Such languages are visually appealing, commands are displayed as blocks arranged like a jigsaw puzzle, and the results of the programme execution performance are visible on the

screen immediately after starting the programme, which gives children an immediate insight into the programme they have created.

One of the characteristics of the block-based programming languages is a shift of the programming context from resolving mathematical problems, which is typical in the primary school and, particularly, in the secondary school, towards programming games, animations, stories and alike. The context of programming in this manner shifts the activities that are not attractive to *digital natives*¹ (N-gen or D-generation) (Prensky, 2001) towards an environment that enables the development not only of mathematical abilities, but also supports creativity in other areas, taking into consideration the other types of intelligence, not just the mathematical-logical intelligence (Prensky, 2001).

In the recent times, one of the most popular block-based programming languages has been Scratch. This is a free programme developed at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT), in a group known as the Lifelong Kindergarten. The idea is to inspire children to research, imagine and realise their ideas, which they can show to others on the Internet, in the process of adopting the basics of programming, mathematics, visual and interactive design. Programming in Scratch is entirely visual. Children write programmes by stacking the existing blocks into larger constructs. Using Scratch, a child can learn to independently and effortlessly create simple computer games and programmes, and in such a way transfer their creativity into interactive stories and multimedia animations (Mladenović, 2019).

As previously indicated, the goal of this research was to determine whether the current or the future teachers have professional competences to teach Informatics in the lower grades of primary school within the domain of Computational Thinking and Programming. The authors tried to determine the current state in other countries, so they prepared a short review of the existing literature. Unfortunately, there are not many studies related to this subject. It is likely assumed that teachers are either enough digitally competent or that school conditions are different from those in Croatia.

1 *Digital natives* (N-gen or D-generation) are a generation of people that grew up in the environment of the new IC technology. ICT is their natural environment; they use computers, video games, digital video and audio technique, video cameras, mobile phones and other tools and toys of the digital era.

Sáez-López and Miyata (2013) claim that Spain does not have ICTT in primary schools and teachers, during the Scratch day, must make great efforts to prepare their materials for their students, but their students' results were still satisfactory.

López-Escribano and Sánchez (2012) point out that their working experience with teachers was frustrating since teachers generally do not want to learn programming languages, including Scratch, as well. As the reasons, they mention that the learning about programming languages, Scratch being among them, requires a high level of abstract and complex concepts that must be learned, which is a serious problem for teachers. Although Scratch has tried to overcome these obstacles, many teachers do not feel comfortable when using the programming languages.

Studies conducted by Jimogiannias and Komis (2004) focus on the attitudes of teachers towards ICT. Students primarily express their feelings, such as: 1. Anxiety and stress, 2. Self-efficacy, 3. Desire and pleasure, and 4. Perceptions about ICT value and usefulness, etc. The teachers thus conclude that the "effective teachers' training is considered one of the most important factors for having a positive attitude towards ICT", according to the previously conducted research by Yildirim (2000).

Fesakis and Serafeim (2009) presented the conclusions similar to those of López-Escribano and Sánchez (2012). They conducted research with students – future teachers – at the University of the Aegean in Greece, focusing on their opinions in regard to an 11-month-long study of the elements of Scratch for computer programming in the primary school education. Students had the basic ICT skills, but not the computer programming skills. Despite this, the participants considered Scratch useful, and getting familiar with this programming language significantly reduced their stress and anxiety related to their abilities to use ICT in educational practice.

The Ministry of Science and Education of the Republic of Croatia issued a Decision on the curriculum for the subject of Informatics for primary and secondary schools in the Republic of Croatia in April 2018 (Ministry of Science and Education, 2018). This Decision started to be implemented in the school year 2018/9 for the fifth - to the eighth - graders and all secondary school students; as for the first – to the fourth – graders, the Decision was first implemented in the school year 2020/1 according

to which Informatics became an elective subject. Regarding the start of teaching this subject in the lower grades of primary school, the question was raised on the training level of the current teachers of Informatics and seniors at the Faculty of Educational Studies within the module of Informatics who were to teach this subject within the domain of Computational Thinking and Programming from the professional and pedagogic aspects. Although this may sound strange, the question is justified: the current teachers conduct teaching in the higher grades of primary school, above all, using the Python programming language (interpreted, interactive, object-oriented, but primarily a textual programming language) or, earlier, Logo (also predominantly a textual programming language), while the current students – future teachers – do not have the working experience either with students or block-based programming. According to the curriculum, the domain of Computational Thinking and Programming should be taught in all the four lower grades of primary school, and future teachers are directed towards the use of block-based programming languages, such as Scratch, mBlock (used for programming the robot mBot), Microsoft Code Builder (from the Minecraft Education Edition package) or the platform for programming BBC micro:bit. Neither future nor current teachers of Informatics had a chance to get educated in these programming languages unless they are personally motivated.

In this study, we were interested in finding out the opinions of the current and future Informatics teachers about their personal pedagogic and professional competences obtained during their work. Are they sufficiently competent or do they perhaps need some additional education?

CASE STUDY

30

In this case study we wanted to present the projects done by the students attending the fifth and final study year at the Faculty of Educational Sciences.

The students are adequately trained for teaching Informatics, also the domain of Computational Thinking and Programming in primary schools (1st to 8th grade).

As a part of the curriculum, each student usually teaches one or two classes of the given subject to the primary school learners. In the COVID

19-pandemic situation, classes could not be conducted in classrooms, so the students had to prepare and present one teaching unit in the form of a video lesson to be used for online teaching and learning (an asynchronous working model). Preparing the lesson for the subject Methodology of Teaching Informational Technology III, they had to show that they had sufficiently acquired professional and pedagogical competences to work with primary school learners. Professional competences imply an average knowledge of programming (Computational Thinking and Programming, which is quite demanding for the majority of students at the Faculty of Educational Sciences). Pedagogical competences imply that students have learned how to transfer knowledge and skills, i.e. to teach primary school learners from the aspects of pedagogy, didactics, psychology and methodology. The assignments were chosen to enable the learning outcomes in the subject of Computational Thinking and Programming. They correlated with other subjects, such as Croatian, Music, Mathematics, and PE, and also with the interdisciplinary field of Health.

The case study, assignments and results have been published by J. Žufić and A. Žufić (2020). Their conclusion was that, although the students were not particularly enthusiastic about preparing the assignments because they had had no previous exposure to the block-based programming, they still created outstanding online teaching materials. The process of peer-reviewing of their assignments was very satisfactory, and their HE teacher gave them high grades. The assignment preparations required additional work and time, approximately 15 hours per a teaching unit. They were recommended to share the prepared materials with each other.

RESEARCH

The main goal was to determine whether the current teachers, the fifth year students of the Integrated Study Programme of Education with the module of Informatics and the students of Informatics (from the Class Teaching study group), had professional competences for teaching Informatics in the classroom, with the emphasis on the Computational Thinking and Programming.

For this purpose, an online (Google Form) questionnaire was designed with 23 questions. Three of them covered the demographic details

(gender, age, geographical area of work or study), while the remaining ones (20) were the Likert scale type statements.

The questionnaire was anonymously filled in by the primary and secondary school teachers of Informatics, as well as by the above-mentioned fifth-year students of the Faculty of Educational Sciences; it took them averagely 4 minutes. The respondents did not receive any benefits for this other than being able to have insight into the results upon the completion. A part of the research results focused on their professional competences was published by J. Žufić and A. Žufić (2020).

The group consisted of 58 respondents, 46 (79%) females and 12 (21%) males. The total of 17 respondents were under the age of 30, 28 of them were between the ages of 31 and 45, while 13 of them were over the age of 45. The graphical representation of data is shown in Chart 1 and Chart 2.

Chart 1. *Gender of respondents*

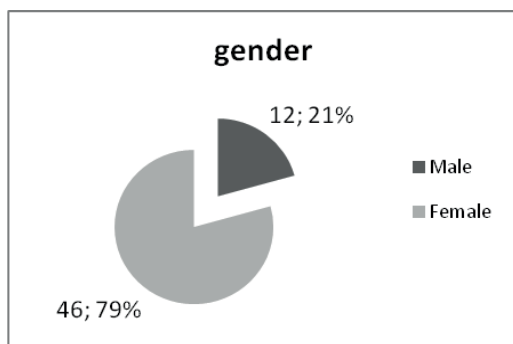
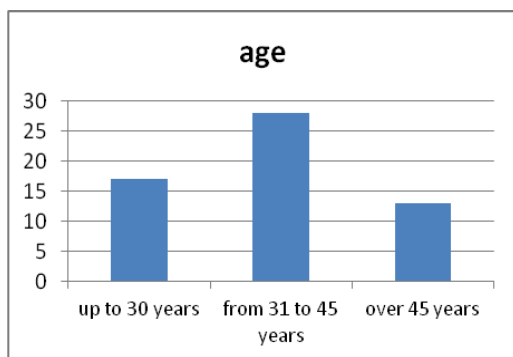


Chart 2. *Age of respondents*

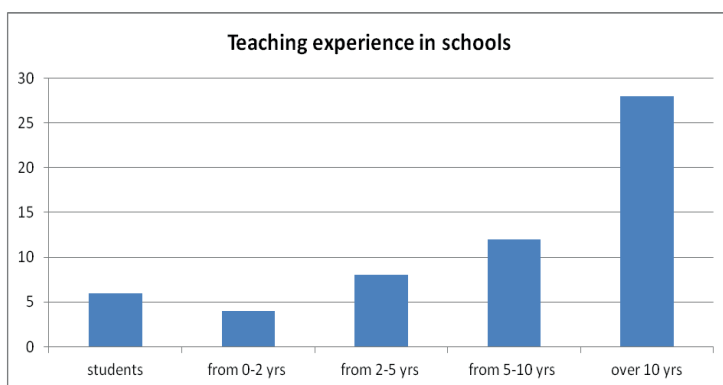


The two thirds (N=39) of the respondents (67%) came from the

County of Istria, and 1-3 of them came from other counties (mostly evenly represented throughout Croatia - from the Vukovar-Srijem County to the Split-Dalmatia County, 13 in total).

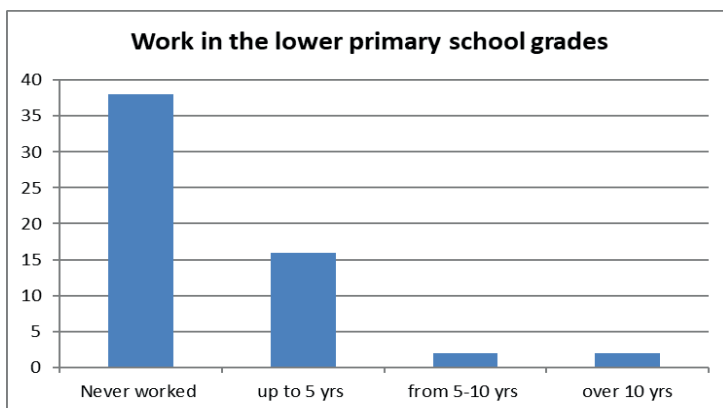
In terms of their teaching in primary and secondary schools, twenty-eight of the respondents (48.3%) had over 10 years, twelve of them (20.7%) had 5-10 years, eight of them (13.8%) had up to 2 years, six of them (10.3%) were students and had no work experience, while eight (6.9%) had from 2 to 5 years of work experience (Chart 3).

Chart 3. *Teaching experience in schools*



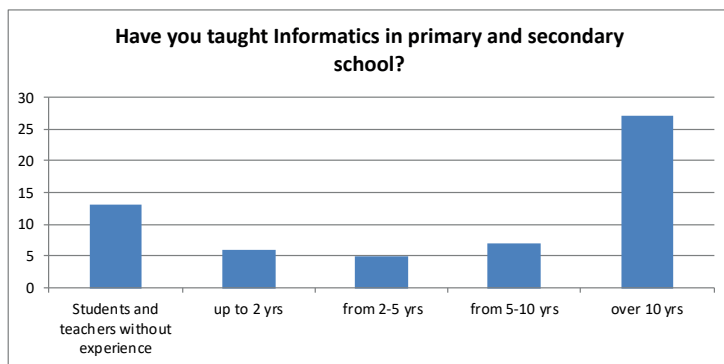
Majority of the respondents, 38 of them (67.2%) did not work as teachers in the lower primary school grades, 16 of them (25.9%) worked up to 5 years and two of them each (3.4%) worked from 5 to 10 years and over 10 years (Chart 4).

Chart 4. *Work in the lower primary school grades*



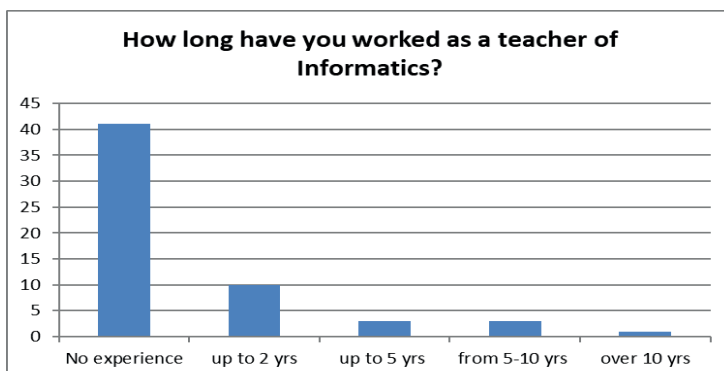
When asked if they taught Informatics in the primary or secondary school, 27 respondents (46.6%) detailed that they had taught this subject for over 10 years, 7 of them (12.1%) from 5 to 10 years, five of them (8.6%) from 2 to 5 years, six of them (10.3%) up to 2 years, six of them were students (10.3%), while seven teachers (12.1%) who had graduated from the module of Informatics had no teaching experience when it comes to this particular subject.

Chart 5. *How long have you taught Informatics in the primary or secondary school?*



The next question referred to the length of teaching Informatics in the lower primary school grades. A total of 41 respondents (70,7%) had no experience, 10 of them (17,2%) worked as the Informatics teachers for up to 2 years, 3 of them each (5,2%) did this from 2 to 5 years and from 5 to 10 years, and only 1 respondent (1,7%) had over 10 years of this teaching experience.

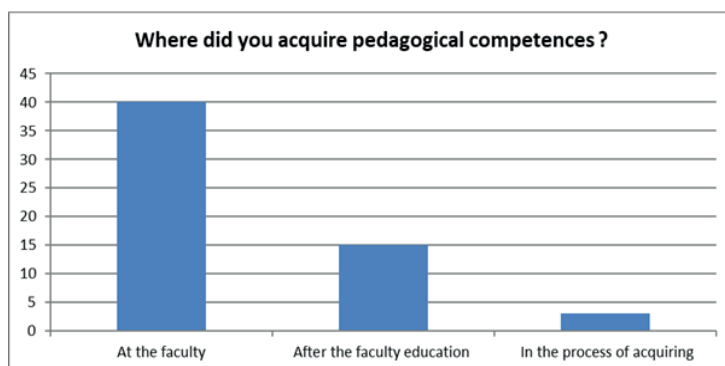
Chart 6. *How long have you worked as a teacher of Informatics?*



The acquisition of both pedagogical and professional competences has been greatly supported via the organisation of IT workshops (IT courses) in clubs or in similar premises in school or out of school. A total of 29 respondents (50%) stated that they did not hold IT workshops, 13 of them (22.4%) claimed that they had held one or two, while 8 of them (13.8%) held from 3 to 5 workshops and also 8 of them (13.8%) held more than 5 workshops.

Their teaching competences were mainly acquired (40 or 69.0%) during the full-time higher education. Fifteen of them (24.8%) acquired these by enrolling in the Pedagogical Competences course after completing the studies with no such competences included (technical or economic study programmes), and three of them (5.2%) were in the process of acquiring them when the study was conducted.

Chart 7. *Where did you acquire pedagogical competences?*



The most interesting part of this research from the aspect of professional competence refers to five questions in which the respondents were asked to assess their own skills in terms of using the Scratch programming language. These are the basic skills known to every third and fourth primary school grader. It is needed to add that the statements in them were associated with a scale from 5 to 1, where 5 indicated the excellent knowledge of Scratch and 1 indicated the insufficient knowledge of Scratch. The minimal number of points for the five questions was 5, and the highest was 25. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to check the internal consistency of the given statements, which was measured to be over 0.9, so it was proved that the measurement scale was at the excellent level of reliability.

Table 1 presents the self-assessment results. In the column “Average” they can be interpreted as follows: the respondents with less than 7 points have insufficient knowledge about Scratch; those with 8 to 12 points have sufficient knowledge; the range of 13 to 17 points indicates good knowledge; 18 to 22 points show very good knowledge, and those with 23 to 25 points reveal the excellent knowledge.

The column *I have professional competences* represents the median value (on the scale from 1 – insufficient to 5 – excellent).

The column *I need additional professional training in Scratch* shows the frequency of respondents who think that they need or do not need this professional training.

The obtained values are classified into three groups: Group I – the Comparison between the respondents and teachers of Informatics based on the length of employment; Group II – the Comparison between the respondents with the Informatics teaching experience in the lower primary school grades and those without it; Group III – the Comparison between the respondents with an experience in running workshops in programming in extracurricular activities and / or out-of-school activities. The same respondents participated in each group.

Table 1. Comparison between the values resulted from the respondents' self-assessment

Group	Respondents	No of respon- dents	Average	Stdev	Median	I have professional competencies		I need additional professional training	
						Average	Stdev	No	Yes
I.	Students	6	18,5	5,24	20,5	4,17	0,983	1	5
	Teachers of Informatics working up to 5 yrs	11	13,5	8,41	15	4,18	0,874	3	7
	Teachers of Informatics working over 5 yrs	34	15,6	6,16	16	4,10	0,923	5	23
	Teachers of Informatics that do not teach Informatics	7	17,9	8,00	19	3,90	0,831	1	8
II.	Respondents who taught Informatics in lower primary school grades	17	15,8	6,65	17	4,18	0,809	2	14
	Respondents who did not teach Informatics in lower primary school grades	41	15,8	6,90	17	4,05	0,921	8	28
III.	Respondents who held programming workshops	29	17,6	6,50	19	4,45	0,736	7	20
	Respondents who did not hold programming workshops	29	14,0	6,65	14	3,72	0,882	3	22

The obtained results (Table 1 – Group I) indicate that the final year students were introduced to the Scratch programming language in the course of their studies and can competently meet the requirements of teaching the Computational Thinking and Programming in the lower primary school grades. Slightly poorer results were achieved by the teachers of Informatics who had recently completed their studies, without teaching this subject for the time being. The ones with up to 5 years of Informatics teaching experience had the poorest average results (on the borderline between sufficient and good). However, the t-test determined no statistically significant difference between the obtained significant median values at the significance level of $p < 0.05$.

In order to see whether there is a difference between the students and (un)employed IT teachers, in the section “*I need professional training in Scratch*”, the χ^2 test was used and determined no statistically significant difference in the significance level of $p < 0, 05$ ($\chi^2 = 2.455$, and the cut-off frequency for $df = 1$ is $\chi^2 = 3.843$). The results were as expected. The students had an opportunity to use Scratch during their studies, while the already employed teachers had not had such an opportunity while studying, and also had no chance to work with Scratch in schools because Scratch was commonly used in teaching the lower primary school grades, while Logo, Python or C/C++ programming languages are used in the higher primary school grades.

The results for Group II (Table I) based on the t-test indicate no statistically significant difference in the average values between the respondents who taught Informatics in the lower grades and those who did not, at the level of significance of $p < 0.05$.

38 Regarding the answers to the questions *I have professional competences* and *I need additional professional training in Scratch* provided by the respondents who taught Informatics and those who did not teach this subject, there was also no statistically significant difference, as shown by the hi-square test, in the level of significance of $p < 0.05$. Such results were expected.

The results for Group III (Table I) show that the achieved average values between the respondents who held programming workshops outside of regular classes and those who did not run them, were statistically different (for the two-sided t-test, $t = 2,117$ $N_1 = N_2 = 29$ with $p < 0,05$),

so it can be concluded that the former had better average results than the latter. Furthermore, there was a statistically significant difference between those who ran programming workshops as an extracurricular activity in the section *I have professional competences* at the level of significance $p < 0.05$ (the two-sided t-test, $t = 3.3939$, $N_1 = N_2 = 29$), but no statistically significant difference between the answers regarding the question *I need additional education* at the level of significance $p < 0.05$ ($\chi^2 = 1.6207$, and the limit value was 3.843 for $df = 1$). Such results were expected. Those who held programming workshops had many more hours of programming work with students than those who taught Informatics in schools. Programming was performed in only one of the four domains and the number of programming hours was approximately 30% of the full teaching time. With a larger number of hours of programming lessons, teachers gain more self-confidence, and it is possible that they have encountered another block-based programming language in their work.

The general conclusion for all the three groups is that almost all the respondents believe that they have very good professional competences, but they also need an adequate additional professional training in Scratch.

The following set of statements presented to the students relates to the teaching methodology approach. This set includes four statements: a) It is good to integrate e-learning into programming lessons; b) It is good to include active learning techniques in programming lessons; c) It is good to include short video lessons in programming lessons; d) I am ready to introduce innovations and changes in teaching programming. The respondents used the Likert scale to choose a statement they agreed with, circling 1 - (I completely disagree) to 5 - I completely agree). The total number of points ranged from 4 to 20. A higher number of points represented a better methodological approach. As in the previous case, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to check the measure of internal consistency, as presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Cronbach alpha coefficients

Particle	Cronbach alpha coefficient
Total Cronbach alpha coefficient	0,7988
Q1 – It is good to integrate e-learning into programming lessons	0.7187
Q2 – It is good to include active learning techniques in programming lessons	0.7584
Q3 – It is good to include short video lessons in programming lessons	0.7148
Q4 – I am ready to introduce innovations and changes in teaching programming	0.7982

Kline (1998) set the following criteria for measuring scales reliability: if the Cronbach alpha coefficient of consistency has the approximate value of 0.9, reliability is deemed excellent; the approximate value of 0.8 is deemed very good; the approximate value of 0.7 is deemed acceptable. The coefficient of consistency below 0.5 indicates that more than a half of the observed variance can result from a random error.

Based on the results in Table 2 and the reference values listed in literature, the conclusion is that the obtained measurement scale possesses reliability between acceptable and very good.

In addition to the above-mentioned four statements, the students also selected the degree of agreement with the statement *In my opinion, I have pedagogical competences for teaching programming in the classroom*; the same measuring scale was used. The results are completely presented in Table 3.

Table 3. *Self-assessment of respondents – comparison of obtained values – teaching methodology approach*

Group	Respondents	No of respondents	Average	Stdev	I have pedagogical competences	
					Average	Stdev
I.	Students	6	18,7	1,70	4,28	1,12
	Teachers of Informatics working less than 5 yrs	7	17,7	3,01	4,14	0,98
	Teachers of Informatics working over 5 yrs	40	16,8	2,53	3,90	1,22
	Teachers of Informatics who do not teach Informatics	6	18,7	1,51	4,33	0,82
II.	Respondents who taught Informatics in lower grades	16	17,3	2,77	4,31	0,95
	Respondents who did not teach Informatics in lower primary school grades	42	17,4	2,44	4,02	1,19
III.	Respondents who held programming workshops	29	17,2	2,94	4,24	1,29
	Teachers who did not hold programming workshops	29	17,4	6,65	3,76	1,15

The results above (Table 3 – Group I) indicate that the students and the teachers of Informatics who do not teach this subject had slightly better results than the teachers with less than 5 years (17.7) of teaching experience, as well as those with over 5 years of such experience (16.8). Verifying the results by using the ANOVA's statistical test, it was determined that there were no differences between the obtained median values, at the significance level of $p < 0.05$.

Similar results were obtained in agreement with the statement *I have pedagogical competences*. The students and the teachers of Informatics who do not teach this subject had a slightly better opinion about their pedagogical competences than those with less or more than five years of teaching experience. The analyses of obtained data give us a reason for a slightly lower result of the teachers who had taught Informatics for over 5 years, which can be attributed to the fact that over 1/3 of the group (14 out of 39) had acquired pedagogical competences after the completion of

their faculties (technical or other, but not related to teaching). Verifying the results by using the ANOVA's test, it was determined that there were no statistically significant differences in the obtained values, at the significance level of $p < 0.05$.

The results for Group II (Table 3) based on the t-test indicate no statistically significant differences in the values between the respondents who had taught Informatics in the lower primary school grades and those who had not, at the significance level of $p < 0.05$. There is a slight difference in agreement with the statement *I have pedagogical competences* between the respondents teaching and those without teaching Informatics (statistically insignificant, at the level of $p < 0.05$), in favour of the teachers who taught the lower primary school graders.

The difference is logical and stems from two facts: a) the ones with the teaching experience will have a better opinion about their abilities from those without it, and b) the teachers with already acquired pedagogical competences outside their original study group will feel slightly deprived of that experience.

The results obtained by the respondents who had held programming workshops (Group III – Table 3) outside of the school environment reflect the total results (17.2 in comparison to 17.4) very similarly. At the same time, the values obtained in agreement with the statement *I have pedagogical competences* are better in the respondents holding programming workshops (4.24 in comparison to 3.76). Such results were expected. The t-test showed no statistically significant difference between the achieved results (the two-sided t-test, $t = 1.637$ $N_1 = N_2 = 29$ with $p < 0.05$, $p = 0.107$).

Based on the total results, it is possible to conclude that the (future) teachers have a good opinion about themselves and they believe that they possess good teaching methodology approaches, and also that there are no statistically significant differences among the groups, at the significance level of $p < 0.05$.

When interpreting the results and analyzing the data, it is important to emphasise that this is a pilot study, conducted on a relatively small sample. Furthermore, it is important to consider the fact that over 2/3 of the respondents (67.2%) come from the County of Istria, so it would be wrong to generalise the results and conclusions, as they do not equally cover the other areas of the Republic of Croatia. However, the authors are convinced

that the given results indicate the trends, which are ultimately logical and expected.

CONCLUSION

The (future) teachers of Informatics feel quite competent to teach the Computational Thinking and Programming (one of the domains of the given subject) in the lower grades of primary school. Almost all of them think that they need additional training in the Scratch block-based programming language. The teachers who are currently working can be additionally trained, while the students can choose the curriculum providing the classes of block-based programming. In regard to the methodological approach to the teaching of programming in the lower grades, the (future) teachers consider themselves adequately competent. The paper also presents the case study which shows how professionally trained are the students of the Faculty of Educational Sciences, Juraj Dobrila University of Pula, due to the course called the Methodology of Teaching Informatics, specifically for this teaching part, which is the most demanding.

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JESU LI (BUDUĆI) UČITELJI INFORMATIKE SPREMNI ZA POUČAVANJE NASTAVE PROGRAMIRANJA U NIŽIM RAZREDIMA OSNOVNE ŠKOLE?

SAŽETAK

Predmet „Informatika“ uveden je u niže razrede osnovne škole ove školske godine. U radu se razmatra spremnost studenata – budućih učitelja te sadašnjih učitelja informatike za održavanje nastave Informatike, prvenstveno kroz pedagoški i stručni – vještina programiranja aspekt. U radu su prikazani rezultati istraživanja koje je provedeno sa studentima učiteljskog studija s modulom informatika i učiteljima informatike koji održavaju nastavu informatike u višim razredima osnovne škole. U istraživanju je sudjelovalo 6 studenata i 52 učitelja iz cijele Republike Hrvatske. Ispitanici su kroz samovrednovanje i samoprocjenu svojih kompetencija dali odgovore iz kojih se može zaključiti jesu li spremni za poučavanje programiranja. Rezultati istraživanja pokazuju da su ispitanici dovoljno osposobljeni s pedagoškog, ali da im je potrebna dodatna edukacija iz stručnog aspekta.

Ključne riječi: poučavanje nastave programiranja, razredna nastava, Scratch, studenti učiteljskog studija, nastavnici informatike

PRETHODNA
PRIOPĆENJA

.....

PRELIMINARY
COMMUNICATIONS

.....

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
ACHIEVEMENT ON THE ACADIA
DEVELOPMENTAL ABILITY TEST
AND GENDER IN PUPILS INVOLVED
IN THE PROCESS OF DETERMINING
THE PSYCHOPHYSICAL CONDITION**

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to gain insight into the level of development of abilities necessary for the acquisition of academic knowledge and skills of pupils involved in the process of determining the psychophysical condition (N=164), and to identify specific differences in the estimated abilities according to gender. In the processing of data, in addition to calculating frequencies and arithmetic means by groups, in order to determine the deviation of observed frequencies from the expected frequencies, χ^2 test was used. The results suggest that there are relatively small differences in achievement on the ACADIA test according to gender, in favor of boys. However, boys were found to be significantly more likely to be referred to the educational and rehabilitation assessment process. The value of the results is that they indicate the need for more intensive educational monitoring of pupils of both genders, especially in new epidemiological and organizational conditions.

Keywords: pupils with disabilities, assessment, ACADIA test, developmental abilities, gender

INTRODUCTION

In inclusive education, the educational institution strives to ensure the educational success of its pupils as much as possible, and to prepare them for the world of work and life in adulthood (Opić et al., 2015). The authors describe inclusion as a term in which people are not equalized, but accepted as they are, while inclusion in education implies flexibility in satisfying the educational needs of each child. To ensure inclusion at all levels of the educational system, it is necessary to identify pupils with specific educational needs and to conduct an educational assessment in order to meet these needs and ensure adequate support. Educational assessment is a prerequisite for prediction of academic achievements of individual pupil, and for the development of appropriate educational programs, structuring support, determining preferred learning modality, deciding on the best way to present information to the pupil and providing practical guidance to the teacher, in order to equalize the opportunities of pupils with disabilities with those of their peers.

Every pupil with disabilities is entitled to appropriate forms of support, based on collected data on psychophysical development and his individualities, specificities of identified difficulties, level of prior knowledge, behavioral specificities, risk and protective factors (individual and environment factors) and identified educational and socioemotional needs, as well as needs for support (Draft Guidelines for planning and developing individualized curricula for pupils with disabilities, 2020). The starting point for determining the degree and intensity of support are the results of formative evaluation and the results of the assessment of the pupil's psychophysical condition. One of the main problems in this area is the lack of a precise definition and theoretically based classification system for the purpose of identifying different types of difficulties and distinguishing and establishing interconnections between different types of difficulties and below-average academic achievement (Fletcher et al., 1993).

Determining a Pupil's Psychophysical Condition

The term children with disabilities includes children with visual impairments, hearing impairments, impairment of speech-voice communication and specific learning disabilities, organ and organic system

impairment, intellectual disabilities, behavioral disorders and mental health impairments, and children with multiple disabilities in psychophysical development. A pupil with special educational needs is considered to be any child who has learning difficulties, which is why he needs special educational support (Zrilić & Brzoja, 2013).

Estimates of the number of children with developmental disabilities vary considerably, depending on the definition. According to the World Health Organization, the number of children with developmental disabilities between birth and 14 years of age ranges from 93 million to 150 million (Karin, 2016).

The assessment of the child's psychophysical condition in order to determine the appropriate educational program and forms of educational assistance for primary school pupils is carried out by the school's expert commission, according to the Pravilnik o postupku utvrđivanja psihofizičkog stanja djeteta, učenika, te sastavu stručnih povjerenstava (Ministry of Science and Education, 2014). A proposal to initiate a procedure for establishing an appropriate educational program may be made to the school commission by any teacher or professional associate in the school (Sunko, 2018). An appropriate educational program, according to Pravilnik o osnovnoškolskom i srednjoškolskom odgoju i obrazovanju učenika s teškoćama u razvoju (Ministry of Science and Education, 2015), is a program and/or curriculum that enables educational advancement of a pupil, by respecting the specificities of its identified difficulties, the specifics of its functioning and its educational needs.

The number of pupils in appropriate educational programs in primary schools of Istria County in the school year 2020/2021, according to the data of Školski e-Rudnik (Ministry of Science and Education, 2021) is 783. That's 56 less pupils (6.7%) compared to the school year 2019/2020, when there were 839. It is also the only registered decline in the number of pupils in appropriate educational programs during last 8 years. All previous years have seen a clear increase in the number of pupils in said programs. Overall, however, between 2013 and 2020 the number of pupils in appropriate educational programs increased by 22.92%. The data for the Republic of Croatia also shows a decrease in the number of pupils in these programs in the school year 2020/2021, for a total of 1,769 pupils or 7.2% (22,848 compared to 24,617 in the school year 2019/2020). On the national

level in the years from 2013 to 2020 we also saw an increase of 12,13% in the number of pupils in appropriate educational programs. The possible reason for this sudden change of trend can be found, in part, in the fact that due to organizational difficulties caused by the epidemiological situation in said period, a much smaller number of procedures have been carried out to determine the psychophysical condition of pupils, because of the inability to provide professional assessment of pupils, both by educational rehabilitators, school medicine doctors and all other external experts. Part of the reason, probably, lies in the problematic detection of possible difficulties in pupils during distance education, as well as in the general decrease in the number of pupils compared to previous years (although the trend of decreasing in total number of pupils has been around for a long time, but so far it has been accompanied by a constant increase in the number of pupils in appropriate education programs). In any case, the professional community in the near future must certainly address the important problem of ensuring the assessment of pupils in new conditions, for the purpose of exercising their right to adequate educational support.

Assessment of Developmental Abilities

Schools accept with relative ease the importance of ensuring support to pupils when they have visible difficulties, such as hearing and vision impairment or motor difficulties. However, there is less understanding of the need to adapt the program and support the pupil's needs when the difficulties are less obvious (Kesnikova & Ajdinski, 2018). The complexity and diversity of factors determining academic achievements in different domains requires the application of a different spectrum of assessment methods (Gligorović & Buha, 2015). Adequate assessment is not only significant for the prediction of academic success of pupils, but also as a basis for creation of individualized curricula that will allow the selection of adequate forms and content of educational support for each pupil. An individualized curriculum is a term that combines individualized educational programs and approaches to teach pupils with disabilities. The individualized educational program is defined as a program based on the assessment of pupils' abilities, interests and needs and the assessment of areas which have to be developed (Guberina-Abramović, 2008).

ACADIA Test of Developmental Abilities

For the assessment of abilities necessary for the acquisition of academic knowledge and skills and for identifying areas where a pupil with disabilities needs support, the ACADIA test of developmental abilities (Atkinson et al., 1981) is often used in educational and rehabilitation practice. The test was initially constructed for the purpose of discovering the reasons for learning failures in school children. ACADIA was translated and adapted in Croatia in 1985 (Novosel & Mavrin Cavor, 1985) and has been widely used ever since. The previous research has proven the application of this test to be useful, with certain limitations such as relatively outdated norms and the need to modify some items for the assessment of children with severe sensory and motor disorders, for determining the specifics of child development and formulating recommendations for education and rehabilitation (Gligorović & Buha, 2015). ACADIA test implementation survey on the general pupil population found that the majority of children (86.4%) has characteristics of standard development. 9.3% of pupils showed a deviation of 1 SD below average, indicating a risk for developing learning disabilities, while 4.3% of pupils showed a deviation under 2 SD below average, indicating that there have learning disabilities (Golubović, 2005, as cited in Keskinova & Ajdinski, 2018).

OBJECTIVES, HYPOTHESIS AND PURPOSE OF RESEARCH

The aim of this study is to gain insight into the level of development of abilities necessary for the acquisition of academic knowledge and skills of pupils involved in the process of determining the psychophysical condition and to identify specific differences in the estimated abilities according to gender. The purpose of the research is to gain insight into the specifics of developmental features of pupils with developmental disabilities, in order to contribute to better selection of forms and content of educational support to these pupils and to formulate recommendations for their education and rehabilitation.

Hypothesis H₀ is set:

It is assumed that the pupils involved in the process of determining the psychophysical condition achieve the same results on the ACADIA developmental ability test, regardless of gender.

The first studies of gender differences in achievements on the ACADIA test were conducted in 1989 and found that differences between boys and girls exist only in the younger group of children (from 6 years and 3 months to 6 years and 9 months), in favor of the boys (Novosel & Nikolić, 1989). Later investigations of the frequency of deviations from age norms show that these deviations are significantly higher in boys (Gligorović et al., 2005; Reynolds, 2003, as cited in Gligorović & Radić-Šestić, 2011). Deviation of 2 SD below average was shown twice as often in boys (Gligorović & Radić-Šestić, 2011). Sensory integration studies have also shown that there are statistically significant differences in the favor of girls in this area (Frot et al., 2004). Other research shows better achievements of boys compared to girls in areas that include the skill of creating concepts and audio-visual association, but better results of girls in the areas of drawing pictures (Gligorović & Radić-Šestić, 2011). Research conducted in the city of Rijeka has shown that girls and boys alike have the need for additional learning assistance (Vlah et al., 2019). Boys and girls showed similar progress in the research of the development of different abilities measured by the overall score on the ACADIA test (Buha & Gligorović, 2015).

METHODS

Sample

The research used archival data collected during the process of determining the psychophysical condition of pupils from elementary schools in the urban area of Pula. This area includes the cities of Pula and Vodnjan and the municipalities of Barban, Marčana, Ližnjan, Fažana, Medulin and Svetvinčenat. The data relates to the period from 2010 to 2020 and covers 164 pupils of both genders, aged 6 to 12 who have been referred for educational and rehabilitation assessment.

Table 1. *Participants' gender*

Gender	N	%
M	107	65,3
F	57	34,7

Table 1 shows that the sample includes 107 boys and 57 girls, thus significantly more boys than girls. The reason for this may be twofold. Boys are generally the more represented gender in the general population of pupils with disabilities, which is confirmed by the fact that in primary schools in Istria County in the school year 2020/2021, 532 boys and 251 girls (52% more boys than girls) were included in the programs for pupils with disabilities, and on the national level in the same year, 14,890 boys and 8,027 girls, i.e., 46% more boys (Ministry of Science and Education, 2021). Also, boys, as evidenced by our data, are significantly more often referred to the process of determining the psychophysical condition and to educational and rehabilitation assessment.

Instrument

ACADIA test of developmental abilities (Atkinson et al., 1981) was used to assess pupils' developmental abilities. The test was adapted and translated in Croatia in 1985 (Novosel & Mavrin Cavor, 1985). The reliability and validity of the test has been tested in our conditions. The results proved appropriate - reliability $r_{tt}=0.89$, validity $r_{o}=0.72$ (Novosel, 1983).

The test consists of 13 subtests, and each subtest is intended to measure some aspects of the development of abilities necessary for successful participation in school activities (Novosel, 1978). The test covers ages 6 years and 3 months to 12 years and 3 months, divided into 11 age groups with an age difference of 6 months each. Subtests estimate (Gligorović & Buha, 2015).

- basic perceptual functions (Auditory Discrimination – I and Visual Discrimination – III),
- memory (Visual Memory – V and Auditory Memory – VIII),
- visual and visuo-constructive abilities (Visuo-Motor Coordination– II, Shape Drawing – IV and Drawing – XIII),

- verbal abilities (Ability of Forming Concepts – XI, Language Development – X and Automatic Language – XI), and nonverbal thinking (Audiovisual Association – VI, Sequence and Encryption – VII and Visual Association – XII).

Subtests are loaded with skill factors necessary for successful learning that are not otherwise noticed. A maximum of 20 points can be scored on each of the subtests, and raw results are converted into standardized points according to age, with an arithmetic mean 50 and standard deviation 10. Points add up to a global standard score. A deviation of 1 SD below average indicates a risk for reduced abilities that are a prerequisite for school success, while a deviation of 2 SD represents reduced abilities that are a prerequisite for school success.

Data processing methods

In the processing of data, in addition to calculating frequencies and arithmetic means by groups, in order to determine the deviation of observed frequencies from the expected frequencies, a χ^2 test was used, which is an integral part of the SPSS program 24.0 Standard Campus Edition (SPSS ID: 729357 20.05.2016).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Graph 1 shows the arithmetic mean of the results on individual subtests in boys and girls. We were interested in whether there is a difference in deviations from the average by gender. To make the analysis clearer, we divided the results according to whether the pupils showed a deviation from the average according to chronological age for one or two standard deviations, or if the results were achieved in accordance with the average for chronological age.

Figure 1. Arithmetic mean of the results



It is generally seen that boys show less deviations than expected with respect to age in terms of below average. The greatest deviation in terms of below average is seen in girls in the subtest Auditory Memory ($M=0.79$). The best result was achieved equally in boys and girls in the Auditory Discrimination subtest ($M=1.91$).

Table 2. *Relative an absolute frequencies and values of χ^2 - test*

Subtest		2 and more SD below average	1 SD below average	average	χ^2	p
Subtest I – Auditory Discrimination	boys	3,7%	1,9%	94,4%	1,893	,388
	girls	1,8%	5,3%	93,0%		
Subtest II - Visuo-Motor Coordination	boys	6,5%	13,1%	80,4%	,653	,722
	girls	5,3%	17,5%	77,2%		
Subtest III – Visual Discrimination	boys	17,8%	13,1%	69,2%	1,217	,544
	girls	24,6%	14,0%	61,4%		
Subtest IV – Shape drawing	boys	13,1%	23,4%	63,6%	,721	,697
	girls	17,5%	24,6%	57,9%		
Subtest V – Visual memory	boys	16,8%	17,8%	65,4%	1,433	,488
	girls	22,8%	21,1%	56,1%		
Subtest VI – Audiovisual Association	boys	15,0%	10,3%	74,8%	1,939	,379
	girls	22,8%	12,3%	64,9%		
Subtest VII – Sequence and Encryption	boys	8,4%	14,0%	77,6%	3,882	,144
	girls	14,0%	22,8%	63,2%		
Subtest VIII – Auditory Memory	boys	44,9%	24,3%	30,8%	,372	,830
	girls	47,4%	26,3%	26,3%		

Subtest IX – Ability in Forming Concepts	boys	5,6%	17,8%	76,6%	4,613	,100
	girls	12,3%	26,3%	61,4%		
Subtest X – Language Development	boys	6,5%	10,3%	83,2%	6,577	,037*
	girls	17,5%	15,8%	66,7%		
Subtest XI – Automatic Language	boys	13,1%	4,7%	82,2%	7,438	,024*
	girls	10,5%	17,5%	71,9%		
Subtest XII – Visual Association	boys	0,9%	8,4%	90,7%	3,712	,156
	girls	5,3%	12,3%	82,5%		
Subtest XIII – Picture Drawing	boys	2,8%	15,0%	82,2%	3,270	,195
	girls	8,8%	10,5%	80,7%		

$df=2$

For two items (Table 2), deviations of observed frequencies from theoretical or expected frequencies may be considered significant since their χ^2 values are greater than the corresponding limit values at the appropriate level of freedom.

Subtest X analysis shows that boys show statistically significantly better results than girls on the Language Development subtest. This subtest measures the integrative abilities of learned language, knowledge of words and meaning of sentences. Girls showed more deviations in category of 2 SD below average, as well as in the category of one SD below average. The Subtest XI – Automatic Language also shows a statistically significant difference in the results achieved on the ACADIA test in favor of boys. Subtest Automatic Language examines children's verbal abilities, pronunciation, and grammar, but also the ability to direct attention. There are slightly more boys in the group that deviates 2 SD in the direction of below average, but significantly more girls showed results that are 1 SD below average. More boys than girls achieved average results on this subtest.

Analysis of results showed that boys generally perform slightly better on the ACADIA test of developmental abilities, and these results are statistically significant in the subtests Language Development and Automatic Language. These two areas were shown in the research of Gligorović and Radić-Šestić (2010) as those in which pupils with disabilities usually show the lowest results. In the subtest Language Development in cited study, 52% of surveyed pupils with disabilities showed a deviation of 2 SD below average, and in the Subtest Automatic Language 46% of pupils showed a deviation of 2 SD below average (Gligorović & Radić-Šestić, 2010). The authors state that the basic difficulties that occur in one or more developmental areas are reflected in other areas, resulting in school failure. Success in different school subjects' correlates, for example, with success on the Automatic Language subtest in the amount of 0.44 to 0.60. Although girls are less represented in the group of children with disabilities in our study, they nevertheless showed statistically significantly weaker results in the areas of language development and automatic language. This result is especially interesting if we consider the fact that in general population girls are better than boys in the field of lexical abilities (Gligorović & Radić-Šestić, 2011).

CONCLUSION

Following the obtained results, the H_0 hypothesis, which assumed that pupils involved in the process of determining the psychophysical condition achieve the same results on the ACADIA developmental ability test regardless of gender, can be partially accepted. The differences between the observed groups can statistically be considered significant in only two items. It is interesting, however, that these are areas of lexical abilities, in which girls in the general population show better results, and that girls are generally less represented in the group of children who are referred to the determination of the psychophysical condition and educational and rehabilitation assessment due to the observed learning disabilities. On the one hand, this may indicate the possibility that learning disabilities, although seen less frequently in girls, may manifest more intensively in some areas. Also, given the generally worse results shown by the girls in this study, it should also be taken into consideration the possibility that

schools tend to unevenly direct pupils in the process of determining the psychophysical condition for the purpose of determining an appropriate education program, that is, that boys will be referred to the procedure even when they show milder deviations in the adoption of academic knowledge and skills, while girls are referred to the same procedure only when they show greater deviations. It is possible that the cause of this is the perception present in the traditional education system, based on gender stereotypes, that boys are more susceptible to school failure than girls (Collins, 2017, as cited in Vlah et al., 2019).

Knowledge transfer and adoption of learning outcomes in our education system are mostly based on verbal explanations, and information is mostly adopted through speech and written language (Gligorović et al., 2018). Language development has an impact on academic achievement during educational process (Zubrick et al., 2015). In adulthood, lingual abilities will have an impact on a number of aspects of life, including employment opportunities (Law et al., 2009). Therefore, the pedagogical implications of this study indicate the need for more intensive educational monitoring of pupils of both genders. For pupils which show deviations from the expected results according to age, it is necessary to provide a child focused educational support, which will equate their opportunity to achieve school success with the opportunities of typical pupils. The value and justification of the application of the ACADIA test of developmental abilities in assessing readiness to acquire academic knowledge and skills has been demonstrated in numerous empirical studies and should be applied as often as possible at the beginning of education.

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POVEZANOST IZMEĐU POSTIGNUĆA NA ACADIA TESTU
RAZVOJNIH SPOSOBNOSTI I SPOLA KOD UČENIKA
UKLJUČENIH U POSTUPAK UTVRĐIVANJA PSIHOFIZIČKOG
STANJA

SAŽETAK

Cilj ovog istraživanja je steći uvid u razinu razvoja sposobnosti neophodnih za usvajanje akademskih znanja i vještina učenika uključenih u postupak utvrđivanja psihofizičkog stanja (N=164), te utvrditi specifične razlike u procijenjenim sposobnostima obzirom na spol. U obradi podataka, uz izračunavanje frekvencija i aritmetičkih sredina po skupinama, radi utvrđivanja odstupanja opaženih frekvencije od očekivanih frekvencija, upotrijebljen je χ^2 - test. Rezultati upućuju na postojanje relativno malih razlika u postignućima na ACADIA testu obzirom na spol, u korist dječaka. Međutim, utvrđeno je da se dječaci znatno češće upućuju u postupak edukacijsko-rehabilitacijske procjene. Vrijednost je rezultata u tome što ukazuju na potrebu intenzivnijeg edukacijskog praćenja učenika oba spola.

Ključne riječi: učenici s teškoćama, procjena, ACADIA test, razvojne sposobnosti, spol

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ABSTRACT

The paper presents the results of the research which aimed at determining primary school teachers' (N=555) attitudes to maintaining discipline and classroom atmosphere during the teaching process, as well as to investigate the correlation of attitudes from two sociodemographic characteristics: sex and teaching experience. The obtained results lead to the conclusion that the teachers' sex did not show to be a relevant independent variable for the existence of statistically significant differences in the assessment of teachers' attitudes, whereas certain groups of teachers showed statistically significant differences regarding their teaching experience. This is especially related to teachers with less teaching experience. The conducted research may have a contribution for a better theoretical and empirical understanding of the needs and advantages of maintaining and supporting a positive and supportive classroom atmosphere.

Keywords: classroom atmosphere, classroom management, cooperation, discipline, teaching process

INTRODUCTORY CONSIDERATIONS

A successful communication is the initiator of any teaching process, it is the essence of a classroom's life. Each teacher should, therefore, understand the basic communication principles (Boffo, 2007).

By developing the co-constructivist learning paradigm, and probably under the influence of the growing number of problems in the family and school environment, contemporary teaching pedagogy and didactics pay special attention to the quality of the teaching atmosphere and communication, i.e. the classroom teaching atmosphere and factors influencing its quality (Koludrović, Ratković & Bajan, 2015). An especially important factor which influences the creation of a healthy relationship between pupils and teachers is the environment where they are formed. It is not to be taken as unimportant if the environment is conflicting or not, because a healthy, democratic and quality school atmosphere has a favourable effect on one's actions in such situations. Those participating in it feel good, relaxed, safe, recognised and acknowledged and – even if misunderstandings and conflicts occur – they communicate more easily, which does not represent a disturbance in the teaching process, but its improvement. When it comes to school, school and classroom life, such an environment is defined as the classroom work atmosphere (Ivanek, Mikić & Karabašić, 2012).

Bognar and Matijević (2002, p. 359) emphasize that “the educational process can be regarded as a complex communication process, i.e. information can be seen in it (notice, message), as well as the activity of the person to whom the information was directed. Information and interaction in teaching have a specific sense and position than other forms of human communication.” Regarding this notion, Bratož and Žefran (2018) state that contrary to some other types of interaction, classroom interaction is characterised by a high frequency of activities such as directing, giving instructions, maintaining discipline, and a wide spectrum of other routine practices and characteristic communication patterns, thus enabling an almost unlimited repertoire of repetition (Bratož & Žefran, 2018).

The number of conflicts among pupils, pupils and teachers, and at present parents and teachers is growing. The causes and initiators of these conflicts lie in the nature of the classroom atmosphere. In a conflict, the

conflicting parties make use of different communication skills, from verbal to non-verbal communication. In all this, it is of utmost importance that such a communication does not assume signs of violence, impertunity, lack of understanding and respect.

In the classroom it is necessary that teachers work with pupils on their listening and speaking culture, because they so realise that the interlocutor has to be listened to and their opinion accepted without interjections and disturbances. Furthermore, teachers need to have the ability of observation, acceptance, and respect for both their colleagues and pupils. When in front of their pupils, teachers have to be capable of admitting their mistakes and correcting them; they have to be capable of seeing both themselves and pupils as the main bearers of the educational process (Lasić, 2015).

An important teachers' role is to form a positive (classroom) atmosphere ensuring the conditions for supporting individual work, and then to gradually build up motivation, independence, self-influence, and inner criteria for success. An optimal atmosphere implies the feeling of acceptance and respect between pupils and teachers in the classroom (Čudina-Obradović, 1991; Poon Teng Fatt, 2000; Vizek Vidović et al., 2003; Reić Ercegovac & Koludrović, 2010).

The next factor that greatly influences teachers' satisfaction and classroom management is discipline. To maintain discipline is one of the most demanding teaching tasks for some teachers, especially for those who have nothing but started their teaching profession. Unfortunately, there is no "recipe" which would be functional / adequate for each pupil and each class. Each class and each pupil are separate individuals, and a method used in one class to discipline pupils may not be effective for another class. It does not solely depend on one factor, but on a number of intertwined factors: pupils and/or teachers' mood, lack of motivation in pupils and/or teachers, monotonous teaching, too demanding teaching materials, the sole teacher, i.e. their teaching methods.

Rijavec and Miljković (2010) state that there are two school discipline models known in the world today:

1. Positive discipline: pupil-oriented, but emphasizing the development of self-discipline and the importance of satisfying one's need for autonomy (individual and willing choice of activities), competence (the feeling of success and control over the

environment), and relationships with others (close, dear people). Pupils decide by themselves what they will do, how they will behave, what they will perform at a certain moment, as well as what they will say and to whom. Pupils have the need to show or tell others what they are best at and successful in. Most of the pupils succeed, but there are some who are less successful and do not have an area where they can prove themselves.

2. Assertive discipline: teacher-oriented, often using corrective procedures in the form of prizes and punishments. This contributes to problem solving and suppression, and encourages self-discipline development.

Moreover, according to Bilač and Miljković (2016), discipline and classroom management are considered important areas for the introduction of positive changes in the educational process and teaching practice thus positively influencing pupils' behaviour and achievement.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research Aim and Tasks

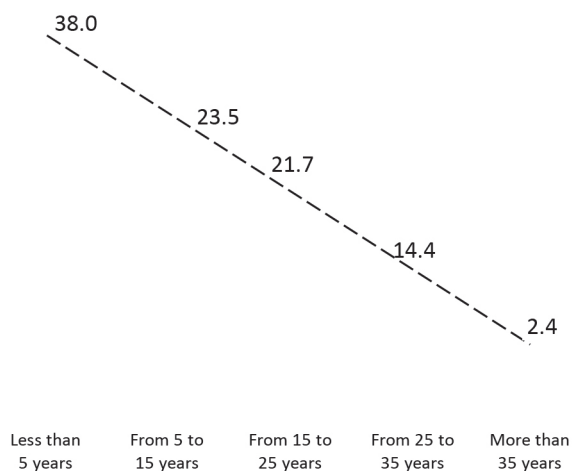
Classroom atmosphere is an important factor for teaching success. Namely, without a positive classroom atmosphere it is almost impossible to achieve efficient teaching, an educational process which would satisfy all, both pupils and teachers. Therefore, the research aim was to determine primary school teachers' attitudes to maintaining discipline and classroom atmosphere during the teaching process, and investigate into the correlation of teachers' attitudes in relation to two sociodemographic characteristics: sex and years of professional experience of teachers in the primary school educational process.

Research sample

The research sample was constituted by 555 respondents, teachers working in primary schools (from the 1st to the 8th grade) in the Republic of Croatia during 2018; there were 25 male respondents (or 6.7%) and 530 female respondents (or 93.3%).

The teachers' professional experience with regard to the years spent in the primary school educational process are represented in Figure 1. It can be observed that the largest number of participants, 38.0% of them have a five to 15-year teaching experience, while the smallest number, only 2.4%, belong to those who have more than 35 years of teaching experience. Figure 1 represents the trend in the respondents' number of years of teaching experience.

Figure 1. *Respondents teaching experience*



MEASURING INSTRUMENT

72 An adapted survey questionnaire was used in the research *Classroom atmosphere and teaching process* (Stanisavljević, 2018), and it had two independent variables (*age and teaching experience*), and 25 dependent variables related to maintaining discipline, classroom atmosphere, as well as communication between teachers and pupils, and between teachers and parents.

A five-point Likert scale was used for dependent variables. For each item answers ranging from 1=I completely disagree to 5=I completely agree were offered.

To establish if the measuring instrument was adequate for this research, factor analysis was conducted. The result was that the items in

the measuring instrument were adequate to conduct the research. As the conducted Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure equals to .797, the correlation matrix is adequate for factor analysis. By applying the factor analysis, three dimensions of the educational process quality were identified: *classroom atmosphere and teaching, mutual understanding and communication and parents' support*.

Accepting the fact that measuring the teaching quality is narrowly linked to classroom atmosphere, the first extracted factor *classroom atmosphere and teaching* was presented and analysed for the needs of this research.

The ethical codex was respected in the research process, respondents were given written instructions about how to fill in the measuring instruments, their anonymity was guaranteed, as was the possibility for them to give up further participation in the survey. They were explained that data used in this research will only be used for scientific purposes.

RESEARCH RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics values regarding the maintenance of discipline and classroom atmosphere. It can be noticed that the lowest value of the arithmetic mean is linked to the item *I have problems with maintaining work discipline in the class* which equals to 1.97, and the highest dispersal of results is linked to it (SD= .992), which means that 39.4% of the respondents has a problem with maintaining working discipline in the class. The highest arithmetic mean value is linked to the item *I try to create a positive atmosphere for pupils' work and improvement*, and it equals to 4.76. Therefore, 95.2 % of the respondents try to create a positive atmosphere for pupils' work and improvement. The dispersion is the lowest for this item (SD = .446).

Table 1. *Descriptive Statistics – discipline and classroom atmosphere*

ITEMS	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
I have problems with maintaining work discipline in the class.	1.97	.992
I react to problems in the class in a timely and adequate manner.	4.33	.724
The relationship between teachers and pupils has a high impact on teaching.	4.50	.632
Despite the unfavourable classroom atmosphere, I manage to conduct teaching in full.	3.71	.928
The teaching materials worked upon affect classroom atmosphere.	3.60	.919
By changing teaching methods and work, classroom atmosphere also changes.	4.11	.800
I take into consideration my colleagues' suggestions to improve classroom atmosphere.	4.30	.714
Agreement in the class is one of the key factors for a better classroom atmosphere.	3.97	.831
I make use of various methods to "fix" classroom atmosphere.	4.32	.725
I try to create a positive atmosphere for pupils' work and improvement.	4.76	.446

It was interesting to find out if there is a statistically significant difference among arithmetical means among items defined in Table 1.

The t-test for independent variables confirmed the results of the research on attitudes to classroom atmosphere and teaching by both the male and female sex. There was not a significant difference between male and female teachers for neither of the variables: maintaining the work atmosphere $t(553)=-.130, p>.05$; timely and adequate reaction $t(553)=.222, p>.05$; common relationship $t(553)=.464, p>.05$; unfavourable atmosphere $t(553)=.623, p>.05$; teaching materials $t(553)=.626, p>.05$; changes if the teaching rhythm $t(553)=-.471, p>.05$; colleagues' suggestions $t(553)=-.409, p>.05$; agreement $t(553)=-.807, p>.05$; methods to "fix" the atmosphere $t(553)=-.838, p>.05$; positive atmosphere $t(553)=-.416, p>.05$. The obtained results can lead to the conclusion that the teachers' sex did not show to be a relevant independent variable for the existence of statistically significant differences in the assessment of teachers' attitudes, while there were certain groups of teachers with teaching experience which showed statistically significant differences.

Therefore, the single-factor analysis of variance ANOVA was used to study the impact of teaching experience for the conduction of teaching and classroom atmosphere. According to the number of teaching

experience years, teachers were divided into five groups: 1=less than five; 2=from 5 to 15; 3=from 15 to 25; 4=from 25 to 35 and 5=more than 35. A statistically significant difference was determined at the level $p < .05$ with some groups of respondents for the following items: maintaining the work atmosphere $F(4,549)=7.090$, $p=.000$; timely and adequate reactions $F(4,549)=5.911$, $p=.000$; mutual relationships $F(4,549)=2.899$, $p=.022$; agreement $F(4,549)=3.654$, $p=.006$; methods to “fix“ the atmosphere $F(4,549)=7.110$, $p=.000$. The obtained results for this part of the paper suggest that a subsequent comparison through the post hoc Tukey test shows higher average values among certain groups regarding teaching experience. The post hoc analysis determined that teachers with the least teaching experience significantly differ in the assessment of their attitude to the maintenance of classroom discipline ($M=2.38$, $SD=1.007$), timely and adequate reactions ($M=4.10$, $SD=.747$), agreement in the class ($M=3.85$, $SD=.808$) and use of different methods to fix the classroom atmosphere ($M=4.16$, $SD=.754$) than other groups of respondents with more teaching experience. Moreover, it was showed that teachers with 5 to 15 years of teaching experience significantly differ in their mean values ($M=4.41$, $SD=.678$) in the assessment of the importance of the relationship with pupils than teachers with 25 to 35 years of teaching experience ($M=4.61$, $SD=.572$). The mean values of attitudes by teachers from the second group ($M=3.86$, $SD=.835$) are different than those of teachers with 15 to 25 years of teaching experience ($M=4.14$, $SD=.759$) about agreement in the class as one of the key factors for a more favourable classroom atmosphere. It is further important to notice that the mean values for using different methods to “fix“ classroom atmosphere are significantly different for teachers of the second ($M=4.23$, $SD=.705$) and third group ($M=4.30$, $SD=.762$) with regard to the mean value of group 4 ($M=4.58$, $SD=.637$), namely from teachers who have the longest teaching experience in primary school.

75

CONCLUSION

For the teaching process to be conducted in line with the pedagogical-didactic postulates, it is necessary for the classroom to be ruled by a positive work atmosphere and discipline. The supporting relationship between pupils and teachers is important. When they notice problems in communication

and the maintenance of a positive classroom atmosphere, teachers react in a manner adequate for the situation and pupils' age, and on time. Teachers are expected to support and encourage trust and cooperation toward pupils and among pupils, so they carefully choose teaching materials and insist on ensuring a positive and supportive work atmosphere. Cooperation with colleagues, exchange of experience and working methods enable changes of routine teaching methods, and thus of the classroom atmosphere. The interaction between both pupils and teachers is of utmost importance for the maintenance of a positive and supporting atmosphere for learning and agreement.

Although certain methodological limitations have been noticed in this research, the obtained results may serve a better understanding of the needs and advantages of maintaining and supporting a positive and supporting classroom atmosphere, but also for further research of this important part of the educational process.

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RAZREDNO OZRAČJE

SAŽETAK

U radu se prikazuju rezultati istraživanja kojeg je cilj bio utvrditi stavove učitelja (N=555) osnovnih škola o održavanju discipline i razrednog ozračja tijekom nastavnog procesa, te ispitati povezanost stavova s dvije sociodemografske karakteristike: spol i godine radnog iskustva u odgojno-obrazovnom procesu. Iz rezultata koje smo dobili može se zaključiti da se spol učitelja nije pokazao relevantnom nezavisnom varijablom za postojanje statistički značajnih razlika u procjeni stavova učitelja, dok su se na pojedinim skupinama radnog iskustva učitelja u školi pokazale statistički značajne razlike. Posebno se to odnosi na učitelje s manje radnog iskustva. Provedeno istraživanje može doprinijeti boljem teorijsko-empirijskom razumijevanju potreba i prednosti održavanja i poticanja pozitivnog i poticajnog razrednog ozračja.

Ključne riječi: razredno ozračje, upravljanje razredom, suradnja, disciplina, nastavni proces

CORPUS ANALYSIS OF THE FREQUENCY AND DISCOURSE FUNCTION OF CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS USED IN CROATIAN AND ENGLISH STUDENTS' ACADEMIC WRITING

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ABSTRACT

Writing is difficult to master, and is thus unpopular among students (Nan, 2020). Conjunctive adverbs help the proper arrangement and good structure of a written composition. This article presents how frequently conjunctive adverbs are used by students of the Juraj Dobrila University of Pula (UNIPU corpus) in their English language academic writing compared to the native speakers' academic writing found in the British Academic Written English (BAWE) corpus. It also shows the most commonly used types of conjunctive adverbs discourse functions. After conducting the analysis of the two corpora of students' academic writing, conclusions were reached about the frequency of conjunctive adverbs used and the difference in the discourse function types used in the two corpora. Finally, advice is given on how to improve the use of conjunctive adverbs by Croatian students.

Keywords: conjunctive adverbs, frequency, discourse function, corpus analysis, Croatian and English students

INTRODUCTION

Writing is the language skill considered the most difficult to master properly in the English language (Nan, 2020). As a way of communication, good writing has always been considered evidence of a person's education. As Curry et al. (2002) state, in higher education institutions teaching and learning is writing-centred and has different purposes such as: (a) assessment (students' academic writing is assessed and then evaluated according to criteria imposed by different instructors); (b) learning (students are assigned to write (e.g. journals, book or article reviews, essays) in order to learn,); (c) entering particular disciplinary communities (i.e. writing according to standards of a scientific discipline). Furthermore, academic writing does not only imply one type of written texts, but it encompasses a wide range of writing assignments, from those specific to a discipline (e.g. teaching experience notes, laboratory reports), to those which any student should be able to write (project report, CV, Power Point presentations, essays, etc.) (Ganobcsik-Williams, 2004). Given the importance of academic writing, in 1999 professors Wray and Treglown of the University of Warwick made a proposal for researching students' writing standards due to the "increasing national concern about a supposed falling-off in areas such as grammar, spelling, punctuation, as well as in more sophisticated aspects of writing."

¹ However, this topic has been addressed since the late 1980s (Shih, 1986; Swales & Feak, 1994; Lea & Street, 1998; Coffin et al., 2002; Kruse, 2003; Paltridge, 2004; Zhu, 2004; Ivanić & Lea, 2006; Borozan, 2009; Oraić Tolić, 2011; Bacha, 2010; Ljubojević, 2016). For instance, Shih (1986) researched how to teach academic writing by a content-based approach where writing is linked to the simultaneous study of specific academic contents. In her article Zhu (2004) studied the attitude academic institutions had to academic writing and modes of teaching it by interviewing members of business and engineering faculties. Kruse (2003) dealt with the problems first-year university students encountered when first assigned a writing task. Paltridge (2004) wrote about second language students' writing considering the socio-cultural context, and more importantly, he reviewed the ways of

1 „Literacy Standards and Targets in Higher Education,“ research proposal, February 1999 (as cited in Ganobcsik-Williams, L. (2004). A report on the teaching of academic writing in UK higher education, p. 4).

describing academic writing relying on register, discourse, genre and corpus studies. It can be concluded that academic writing is taken seriously in higher education. University-entry students are expected to write properly on the sole ground that they were taught how to write in their primary and especially secondary education. This assumption was confirmed by Skillen and Mahoney (1997, as cited in Ganobcsik-Williams, 2004, pp. 27-28) who wrote:

- » “Commitment to teaching and learning in higher education has long been premised on assumptions that on enrolment, students are already equipped with generic skills and literacy suitable for tertiary study. (...) These assumptions are no longer tenable. It is now recognised that academic success in higher education entails the acquisition of academic learning and language skills which are new to our average student at university entry.”

As the proper use of conjunctive adverbs is seen as an indicator of students’ proficiency in academic writing, this research first explains what conjunctive adverbs are and their importance for text cohesion. It then explores how linguistic research can benefit from the use of corpora, and after presenting the methodology, it concludes with the research results and advice for future work with students.

Text Cohesion and Conjunctive Adverbs

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 1) “a text is a unit of language in use.” It goes beyond the mere structure, but thanks to that structure it conveys meaning. However, for a text to convey meaning, it is not enough to arrange sentences one after another. It is necessary to somehow tie them, find elements which will connect the message of one sentence with the message of the previous one. In other words, there must be cohesion between them. Cohesion “refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text.” (Ibid., p. 4). It is “the set of possibilities that exist in the language for making text hang together.” (Ibid., p. 18).

As a category belonging to both grammar and lexicology, conjunctive adverbs are important for text comprehension serving as cohesive elements. Since texts can belong to different discourses, conjunctive adverbs are seen as

elements which "...join the separate pieces of the discourse together." (Biber et al., 2002, as cited in Janulienė & Dziedravičius (2015, p. 71). Accordingly, they perform different discourse functions: they add new elements into a discourse, contrast two ideas, indicate the cause-effect relation between elements, arrange occurrences on a timeline, clarify or emphasize the message denoted by the previous sentence. Regardless of their discourse function, they logically link what is expressed in one sentence to what has been said in the previous.

Corpus Analysis and Conjunctive Adverbs

According to McEnery & Hardie (2012, p. 1) a corpus is a "set of machine-readable texts which is deemed as an appropriate basis on which to study a specific set of research questions." Researchers typically use concordancers, i.e. tools which enable users to study a word in its context (McEnery & Wilson, 2001). Numerous authors have engaged in the use of corpora to study linguistic features. To name only some of them - Biber, Conrad & Reppen, 1998; McEnery & Wilson, 2001; Meyer, 2004; Baker, 2009; O'Keeffe & McCarthy, 2010; Biber, 2011; McEnery & Hardie, 2012; Kennedy, 2014. As a linguistic feature which strongly influences one's writing, conjunctive adverbs have often been studied by scholars who wanted to contribute to the improvement of not only academic writing in the first language, but of teaching them as part of ESL learning. Thus, many have made use of corpora to pursue their research aims linked to the use of conjunctive adverbs. For instance, in 1993 Mauranen examined the use of connectors in Finnish writers' English texts concluding that they avoided their use. Granger and Tyson (1996) used two sub-corpora of the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE) and studied how advanced French learners of English used connectors in essay writing. Altenberg and Tapper (1998) noticed that Swedish learners' writing shows the incorrect use and underuse of particular English connectors resulting in coherence breaks. Lee (2004) analysed the use of conjunctive adverbs in a corpus of Korean university students' writing and found that they tended to repeatedly use the same type. Tankó (2004), studied the use of conjunctive adverbs by Hungarian university students and concluded that the proportion of use was similar to that of native speakers, but with the function of listing

and contrasting. On the other hand, as found by Narita, Sato, and Sugiura (2004) Japanese learners tended to overuse these logical connectors in the sentence-initial position. Chen (2006) found out that Taiwanese students slightly overused connectors and tended to misuse some of them. Can (2011) studied how Turkish learners of English used conjunctive adverbs in their written production and found that they used the same number of types as Americans, but also tended to overuse them. Finally, Nan (2020) focused on the role of the teacher in their students' acquisition of conjunctive adverbs advocating for the use of corpora as reliable sources of native texts which could be used as models for good writing.

Aim and Research Questions

The aim of the present research was to calculate the frequency of conjunctive adverbs use in academic writing done by fifth-year students of the Integrated Undergraduate and Graduate University Teacher Study of the Juraj Dobrila University of Pula attending the elective module English language in the 2019/2020 and 2020/2021 academic year and compare it to the frequency of conjunctive adverbs use by native speakers' academic writing found in the British Academic Written English (BAWE) corpus. The paper also aimed to present the most common discourse functions of the conjunctive adverbs used. Two research questions were asked. The first wanted to find out what was the frequency of conjunctive adverbs use by Croatian university students' academic writing in the English language compared to native speakers of English, and assumed that Croatian university students used them less frequently than English students. The second was interested in finding the most common discourse function of conjunctive adverbs used in Croatian students' academic writing in the English language compared to English students' academic writing. The assumption was that the most commonly used discourse functions of conjunctive adverbs in both Croatian and English students' academic writing were the additive and contrastive functions.

METHODOLOGY

Corpora Description

Two corpora were used in this analysis. The first corpus consists of 20 seminar papers submitted by fifth-year students of the Integrated Undergraduate and Graduate University Teacher Study of the Juraj Dobrila University of Pula attending the elective module English language in the 2019/2020 and 2020/2021 academic year. The students' seminar papers were collected in digital form and after obtaining their oral consent, all their personal data were omitted so as to protect their identity. The seminar papers were named by simply using numbers from 1 to 20 and then uploaded on Sketch Engine, a corpus manager and text analysis software developed by Lexical Computing Limited in 2003. The corpus was given the name of *UNIPU*. It consists of 35,884 tokens.

Another corpus was used for purposes of contrastive analysis. This is the British Academic Written English (BAWE) corpus and it served to provide examples of use of conjunctive adverbs in academic writing done by native speakers of English. BAWE appeared as part of the project "An Investigation of Genres of Assessed Writing in British Higher Education". It is a collection of university-level (from undergraduate to master's level) student writing at the turn of the 21st century. It contains 2.761 student assignments (8,336,262 tokens) from various fields of study.

Data Analysis

Although numerous authors offer various lists of conjunctive adverbs (for instance, Demir (2019) offers a list of even 70), for the purposes of this study the classification offered on the web page linguapress.com (Table 1) was considered since it is a popular web page where students can practice their knowledge of English at different levels of proficiency, and according to the author the offered conjunctive adverbs are the representatives of the most commonly used. A total of 28 conjunctive adverbs was considered.

Table 1. *List of conjunctive adverbs and their discourse function*

Discourse functions of conjunctive adverbs	Examples
Addition	additionally, also, besides, furthermore, moreover
Consequence	consequently, accordingly, so, therefore, thus
Comparison	alternatively, similarly, likewise
Contrast	if not, however, nevertheless, otherwise, conversely
Emphasis	certainly, definitely, indeed, of course, naturally
Clarification	for example, for instance, namely, i.e., notably

As already mentioned, Sketch Engine was used to quantitatively analyse the frequency of conjunctive adverbs used in both corpora. Considering the huge difference in the size of the two corpora, the relative frequency of conjunctive adverbs per one million words was applied. The type of the conjunctive adverbs discourse function most commonly used by Croatian and English students was presented in percentages. The obtained results were quantitatively and qualitatively analysed.

RESULTS

Frequency Analysis

To answer the first research question, the mean relative frequency for the 28 conjunctive adverbs considered in this research was calculated in order to see which group of students used them more frequently. The relative frequency was calculated in order to make the two differently-sized corpora even for analysis. The number of conjunctive adverb types was counted. Table 2 presents the overall relative frequency for the 28 conjunctive adverbs in the BAWE and UNIPU corpora and the number of conjunctive adverb types used.

Table 2. Overall relative frequency and number of conjunctive adverb types used in the BAWE and UNIPU corpora

	BAWE	UNIPU
Number of tokens	8,336,262	35,884
Mean relative frequency for 28 conjunctive adverbs	288.80	246.83
Number of conjunctive adverb types used	28	16

Table 3 presents the conjunctive adverbs in the two corpora regarding their absolute and relative frequency.

Table 3. Absolute and relative frequencies of conjunctive adverbs used by students in the BAWE and UNIPU corpora

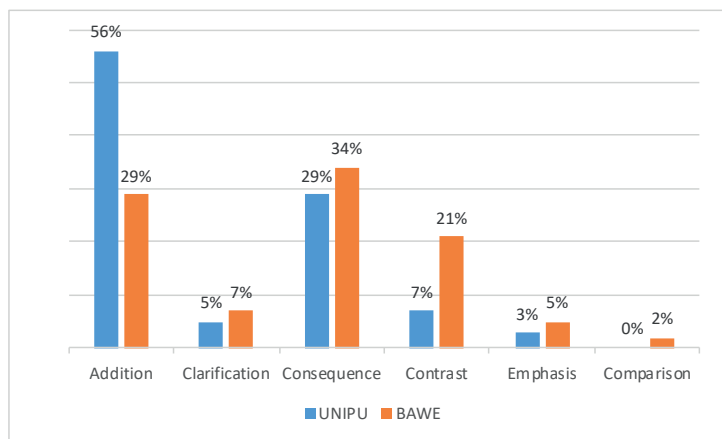
BAWE			UNIPU		
Conjunctive adverb	Absolute frequency	Frequency per million tokens	Conjunctive adverb	Absolute frequency	Frequency per million tokens
also	16740	2008,09	also	117	3260,51
however	12267	1471,52	so	56	1560,58
so	10362	1240,00	however	14	390,15
therefore	7845	941,07	therefore	12	334,41
thus	4496	539,33	furthermore	10	278,68
for example	3334	399,95	for example	9	250,81
indeed	1474	176,82	moreover	7	195,08
i.e.	1399	167,82	additionally	5	139,34
furthermore	1319	158,23	definitely	4	111,47
moreover	1059	127,04	for instance	3	83,61
consequently	806	96,68	nevertheless	3	83,61
for instance	779	93,44	naturally	3	83,61
similarly	714	85,65	accordingly	2	55,74
certainly	707	84,81	thus	1	27,87
nevertheless	602	72,21	otherwise	1	27,87
otherwise	522	62,62	namely	1	27,87
of course	384	46,07	indeed	0	0
namely	382	45,82	consequently	0	0

additionally	359	43,07	similarly	0	0
naturally	313	37,55	certainly	0	0
besides	273	32,75	besides	0	0
if not	224	26,87	conversely	0	0
accordingly	222	26,63	likewise	0	0
definitely	202	24,23	alternatively	0	0
conversely	200	23,99	if not	0	0
likewise	161	19,32	of course	0	0
notably	154	18,47	i.e.	0	0
alternatively	136	16,32	notably	0	0

Discourse Function and Conjunctive Adverbs

To find the most used discourse functions and thus answer the second research question, the percentages of use of all the discourse functions in the particular corpus were calculated (Figure 1).

Figure 1. *Conjunctive adverbs discourse function percentage of use in the UNIPU and BAWE corpora*



DISCUSSION

Frequency Analysis

Chomsky (2002) says that children are born with a knowledge of how the grammatical structure of a language works, and this inborn knowledge explains why and how they learn a language so fast. Linguistic experience does not play an important role in it, but it has been proven that frequency of usage is an important indicator of language acquisition. In line with the constructivist theory stating that knowledge is determined by the learner's experience (learners construct their knowledge according to personal experience (Elliot et al., 2000)), numerous linguistic disciplines advocate that frequency of occurrence/use shapes the strict grammatical categories making them "fluid" (Diessel & Hilpert, 2016, p. 2) under the influence of various variables. The same authors stated: "Rather, the frequency with which linguistic forms are experienced is at the heart of our grammatical knowledge." (Ibid., p. 17). This statement was the underlying motivation for investigating the frequency of use of conjunctive adverbs by Croatian students.

The number of conjunctive adverbs used in the BAWE corpus (N=28) displays a larger variety of their usage than the number of conjunctive adverbs used in the UNIPU corpus (N=16) which is also confirmed by the difference in the mean relative frequency of use (Table 2). The same is confirmed when individual conjunctive adverbs are analysed. In Table 3 it can be immediately noticed that the most used conjunctive adverb in both corpora is *also*, but that, however unexpected, Croatian students used it 1.6 times more frequently than English students. The reason for that is that Croatian students used it in the sentence-initial position where the use of *moreover* or *furthermore* would be more appropriate. The adverbs *so* and *however* take the second and third place in the UNIPU corpus, and occur in the reverse order in the BAWE corpus. What can be noticed is that in the BAWE corpus these two adverbs occur at an almost equal frequency, while Croatian students used the adverb *so* almost four times more than *however*. The fourth place was taken by *therefore*, with English students using it 2.8 times more frequently than Croatian students. Proceeding with

the frequency analysis, it was found that English speaking students used the adverb *thus* almost 20 times more than Croatian students. Another interesting thing to notice is that the adverbs *indeed* and *i.e.* take a high position in the BAWE corpus, while the UNIPU corpus shows no results for them which means that Croatian students did not use it at all in their academic writing. This can be explained by the fact that, unlike, for example, *however*, *therefore* and *moreover*, the conjunctive adverbs *indeed* and *thus* are adverbs which Croatian students did not often meet in their primary and secondary education since they are usually not taught for purposes of writing argumentative essays (extremely significant to pass the state completion exam - “matura”), while *i.e.* is probably not taught in its abbreviated Latin form, but would be used more frequently if its full form – *that is* – was analysed. On the other hand, adverbs such as *additionally*, *definitely*, *nevertheless*, *naturally* and *accordingly* are more frequently used in the UNIPU than in the BAWE corpus. This can also be attributed to the fact that they are seriously taught for purposes of essay writing in Croatia, while English students as native speakers use them in a more natural way, always having at hand other possible adverbs to express the same meaning. The last assumption, namely that Croatian students lack variety in their use of conjunctive adverbs, may be taken as a reason for the 12 conjunctive adverbs not used at all in their academic writing. One way of improving those adverbs’ use would be for students to be exposed to them in various reading and writing activities after which they would be more competent to use them. In this sense, teachers and lecturers should approach teaching conjunctive adverbs as part of text cohesion by seriously taking into account those that show to be “less popular” or more difficult to remember and use.

90

According to the mean relative frequency, Croatian students used conjunctive adverbs less frequently than English students. In this sense, the first assumption can be confirmed. On the other hand, according to the number of types, they only used 16 of all the analysed conjunctive adverbs, whereas English students used all the 28 adverbs. It is argued that the use of conjunctive adverbs shows the level of proficiency in English (Chiang, 2003; Martinez, 2016). If this were taken as relevant, Croatian students whose written compositions were studied in this paper would appear as poorly proficient. However, they are fifth-year students attending the English language module whose knowledge is supposed to be at the

C1 level according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). Namely, CEFR states that, regarding writing, at the C1 level students should be able to produce “clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.” (CEFR, 2001), so their use of conjunctive adverbs is expected to be at a high level. Considering that of the 16 conjunctive adverbs they used, nine (*also, so, furthermore, moreover, additionally, definitely, nevertheless, naturally, accordingly*) were used more frequently than by English students, should we really consider them poorly proficient, or is it a matter of paying more attention to teach conjunctive adverbs in a more planned and organised way?

Discourse Function of Conjunctive Adverbs

As presented in Table 1, there are six discourse functions of conjunctive adverbs. The aim was to find out which conjunctive adverb discourse functions were mostly used by students of both corpora. It was predicted that both groups of students would most commonly use them to express additional information and contrast between the information offered in two subsequent sentences or clauses. This assumption was founded on the fact that to pass the state completion exam (“matura”) at the A (higher) level (which is also the prerequisite to enrol to the Teacher Study programme), Croatian students are supposed to write an argumentative essay in which they have to confront two opposing points of view about the given topic (the contrast function), and to add information which supports their points of view (the addition function). Accordingly, it was assumed that writing argumentative essays was a skill also expected to have been mastered by English students.

As presented in Figure 1, the most commonly used discourse function was addition in the UNIPU corpus (56%), but consequence in the BAWE corpus (34%). The second most used conjunctive adverb function was not contrast, as predicted (in the UNIPU corpus it was used in 7% of cases, while in the BAWE corpus it was used in 21% of cases). Students of the BAWE corpus used addition as the second most optioned discourse function (29% of cases), while Croatian students used consequence as their second option (also in 29% of cases). The little use of the contrastive

discourse function can be explained by the fact that to contrast opposing ideas is an extremely demanding cognitive process which first requires a comprehensive knowledge of the subject matter, and then the ability to express a point of view which the writer (or speaker in case of discussions/debates) may not agree with, but has to offer as a possible standpoint, and in the end give a reasonable conclusion based on justified argumentation. Therefore, the second assumption was correctly predicted only for the discourse function type first used by students in the UNIPU corpus.

CONCLUSION

This article investigated the frequency of conjunctive adverbs use in the academic writing by students of the Integrated Undergraduate and Graduate University Teacher Study of the Juraj Dobrila University of Pula attending the elective module English language in the 2019/2020 and 2020/2021 academic year, and compared it to the use of the same category in the academic writing of English students found in the BAWE corpus. Since the sizes of the two corpora are disproportionate, the relative frequency of use was applied to show the proportion of the used conjunctive adverbs. The obtained results lead to the conclusion that Croatian students use conjunctive adverbs less frequently than English students. The study also shows that Croatian students use a narrower range of conjunctive adverbs (16) than English students (28), but the relative frequencies show that nine of the 16 conjunctive adverbs were used more frequently than in the case of English students. These two findings indicate that Croatian students are not poorly proficient in the use of conjunctive adverbs, because when they use them, they do it sufficiently often. Rather, they completely lack the knowledge of some of them, so their use cannot even be expected.

92

Another finding of this study is that the most frequently used discourse function was addition only for the UNIPU students, while the other discourse functions were differently used in the two groups of students and no similarity between them could be proved, at least when the two most commonly used types are taken into consideration. This fact is explained by the demanding process of critical thinking which should be employed in finding arguments and contra-arguments (and contrasting them) to justify a topic.

It is consequently important to emphasise the role of the educational system in developing the students' writing skill at all levels of education. This research has proved that specific attention should be paid to offering students a wider range of conjunctive adverbs to use, but also to teaching them how and when to use them. Proper writing is a difficult skill. It needs time and devotion, but given enough opportunities to read good writing and then try it themselves, it is something students can achieve.

Regarding further research, more reliable results could be obtained by including more Croatian students' written compositions, as well as to exactly specify the type of academic writing students were engaged in since the BAWE corpus contains academic written texts from various fields of study, while the UNIPU corpus consists of written texts in the field of English language teaching (ELT).

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KORPUSNA ANALIZA FREKVENCIJA I DISKURZIVNIH FUNKCIJA VEZNIČKIH PRILOGA KOJE U AKADEMskom PISANJU RABE HRVATSKI I ENGLESKI STUDENTI

SAŽETAK

Pisanje je teško svladati što ga čini nepopularnim među studentima (Nan, 2020). Veznički prilozi pomažu pravilno urediti i daju dobru strukturu pisanom djelu. Ovaj članak prikazuje koliko često studenti Sveučilišta Jurja Dobrile u Puli (UNIPU korpus) rabe vezničke priloge u svojem akademskom pisanju na engleskom jeziku u odnosu na izvorne govornike čiji se radovi nalaze u British Academic Written English (BAWE) korpusu. Također prikazuje najčešće rabljene tipove diskurzivnih funkcija vezničkih priloga. Nakon provedene analize dvaju korpusa studentskih pisanih akademskih radova, zaključilo se o frekvenciji uporabe vezničkih priloga i razlici među rabljenim tipovima diskurzivnih funkcija u dvama korpusima. Na kraju su ponuđeni savjeti kako poboljšati uporabu vezničkih priloga u pisanju hrvatskih studenata.

Ključne riječi: veznički prilozi, frekvencija, diskursne funkcije, korpusna analiza, hrvatski i engleski studenti

MANIFESTATIONS OF SELF-REGULATED LEARNING FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF FUNDAMENTAL LEARNING THEORIES

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ABSTRACT

Self-regulated learning is a process of taking control of and evaluating one's own learning and behaviour. It can be used to describe learning guided by metacognition - thinking about one's thinking; strategic action - planning, monitoring, and evaluating progress against a standard; and motivation to learn (Cazan, 2012). Self-regulated learning emphasises autonomy and control by the individual who monitors, directs, and regulates actions toward information acquisition goals, expanding expertise, and self-improvement. This paper aims to analyse the self-regulated learning from the perspective of the fundamental learning theories. Following the defined aim, self-regulated learning will be discussed from the perspective of behaviourism, social cognitivism, sociocultural theory and experiential learning theory. The paper is primarily grounded on theoretical discussion and contributes to further empirical and academic research, primarily in pedagogy and educational psychology.

Keywords: self-regulated learning, learning theories, behavioural theory, social cognitive theory, sociocultural theory, experiential theory

INTRODUCTION

Concepts like charisma, academic prowess, endurance, and other socially approved and acclaimed attributes have mesmerised people for centuries. They have been considered either divine gifts or evolutionary advantages bestowed by the blind hand of fate to the few lucky ones. Due to scientists' meticulous work, the secret code of those mysteries can be cracked. Breaking down a concept into its constituent parts helps determine which factors should be enhanced to reach the final destination. Understanding the attributes of learning and acquisition and making the educational process effective is the goal of pedagogy and educational psychology.

The historical overview of the learning process's understanding shows that scientists' attention was being captivated by various aspects at different times. They either focused on cognitive development (Piaget, 1964), observational learning (Bandura, 1971), or operant conditioning (Skinner, 1988). The emergence and description of self-regulated learning (hereinafter referred to as SRL), which can be considered a strategy with a number of components, has allowed to unite a wealth of previously devised features and mold them into a unique phenomenon, integral in bigger or smaller proportion to individual learners. Thus, previously developed aspects of learning were placed into a complex structure where they have to interact with other components and be analyzed as parts of this intricate interplay. SRL has become a promising and intensely researched topic (Erlich & Russ-Eft, 2011; Yamada et al., 2017; Jansen et al., 2019; Zheng & Zhang, 2020). Its importance is underpinned by empirical evidence where experts in a range of tasks perform more SRL actions than novices and underachievers (Panadero, 2017). SRL actions traced in the experts' performance include monitoring progress accurately and frequently, setting ultimate and proximal goals, using a range of cognitive strategies, and behavioural patterns. Meanwhile, underachievers seem to be lacking crucial constituents that path the way to the successful completion of tasks; be it a disability to properly analyse the offered task to devise a strategy or a time management malfunction. One minor factor can jeopardise the whole process and lead to an unsatisfactory outcome. The relationship between a level of mastery and amount of SRL applied is of causal not correlational nature. SRL is a strategy for increasing proficiency in a task, for

learning, not simply performing an action. It differs from a situation where without cognitive input or history a learner is provided with a step by step instruction which leads them to succeeding in the task. Experts, in the way we understand this term, are those who are able to not simply mechanically follow a roadmap. They are able to create it estimating the outcomes and revisiting the performance stage to adjust if the result is not desirable.

SRL is defined as a self-directive process through which learners transform their mental and physical abilities into task-related skills (Zimmerman, 2001). This is a rather broad umbrella term that has given rise to several models that specify what stages learners go through while completing tasks. Although particular steps vary from one model to another, five aspects of learning are featured in all of them: cognitive, metacognitive, behavioural, motivational, and emotional or affective. One of the most well-known and comprehensible models devised by Zimmerman in 2000 and updated in 2009 outlines three significant phases: forethought, performance, self-reflection. Each of them contains several subprocesses like goal setting, strategic planning, self-efficacy, outcome expectation, self-consequences, and self-satisfaction or affect that illustrate how many things can play out right or go awry. The better we understand every detail that contributes to the learning process, realise how they are interwoven and interact with each other, how they can be activated or suppressed the more aware we will be of the proper design and effective tools in education. At the same time some components are researched better than the others. In one of SRL models, for example, such elements as prospective and retrospective attributions of the task, competing action tendencies, and repair strategies are outlined (Panadero, 2017). Proper study of their contribution to the learning process might uncover factors that accelerate and enhance the learning process or vica versa impede it.

Manifestations of SRL gradually entered pedagogy and educational psychology at different times and to a bigger or smaller extent can be traced in most of the fundamental learning theories. This paper aims to discover the roots and components of SRL in them. Such a description can help to observe how the concept of SRL has been gradually evolving. The exercise of singling out particular constituents of SRL, explaining them from the perspective of different learning theories might allow SRL not only to get a more solid theoretical grounding, which, by its turn, increases its validity,

but also encourage further research of separate elements to enhance learning and leave fewer grey areas in it.

SELF-REGULATED LEARNING AND FUNDAMENTAL LEARNING THEORIES

The first concise description of SRL allows passing judgment that the behavioural theory has no traces of it. It is entirely teacher and biology controlled and leaves no room for individual choices and metacognition. Students look at the process from the inside and adjust their conduct to achieve goals. Based on Pavlov's classical conditioning (McLeod, 2018), it eliminates any possibilities for conscious decision-making and relies on deep-rooted instincts.

The main principle of the behaviourists' approach postulates that learning is based on stimulus-response with the overt learned behaviour. The stimulus is treated as a purely external factor: a teacher's praise, grades, learning environment factors. Internal stimuli are overlooked completely. However, approaching any particular task, we are already wired differently by our previous experience and can react to the same commands unpredictably. While one student will readily accept a system where their performance is assessed according to the standard criteria and will be motivated by the grades received, the other might pride themselves on being a rebel and questioning the *unified evaluation's status quo*. An argument can be put forward that in this case, appropriate stimuli for different individuals need to be better calculated and then the necessary response will be triggered, if we are lucky, even in the overt form. This idea is vital but rejected by behaviourism. In other words, behaviourism expects all representatives of a species to react in the identical way to the same stimulus. And it is a miscalculation, as humans due to the previous experience may react unpredictably. After all, all Pavlov's dogs salivated at the ring of the bell and the same was expected from humans. No organismic variables were taken into account. This parallel between human and animals' behaviour plagued the initially promising discovery. Animals while being ahistorical cannot accumulate and remember the amount of experience the human brain has evolved to store; thus, they rely on instincts and learn through

repetitive behaviours (Freire, 2018) while people with their complex neural circuitry can leave this vicious or virtuous circle. This pitfall contradicts SRL where there are numbers of individual learning trajectories stemming from previous experience and adjusted if needed by the internal decisions and drivers known to the learner and not always evident to the educator. The main critique of the behaviourists' approach is its extreme simplification of human behaviour processes (Andersson & Ghaderi, 2006). Rejection of the ambivalence that, in many cases, determines people's motivation and affect does not let behaviourism find ways to properly structure an educational process that would capitalise on all the components that come into play. Moreover, Skinner believed that we do not shape the world, but are shaped by it (Zhou & Brown, 2015). It contradicts the concept of agency, an integral part of SRL. Such a deterministic approach undermines the main principles of self-regulation. Learners can critically reflect on the task, estimate its importance, change learning strategies, and be driven by intrinsic motivation, which educators do not promote.

To give justice to the behaviorists' approach in the understanding of the learning process, it needs to be pointed out that the theory itself is not that clear-cut with a unanimous voice on all its aspects. There is a major division into methodological and radical behaviorism. While the former one focuses on observable and measurable behaviors, the latter one, mainly developed by Skinner, acknowledged the existence of private events (Dougher, 2013). Feeling of pain, excitement, or anger might be examples of them. Skinner (1989) claims them to be as valid as any other observed events. Private events are stimuli with the same potential for a response as observed ones. They are unbeknown to others, but it does not undermine their capacity to trigger certain behaviours. It can work in two ways. Firstly, the feeling of pain, experienced by an individual, is an intervening variable that can meddle in and disrupt the direct correlation between observed stimuli and response. Secondly, it can be an independent covert variable itself that will lead to unpredicted by the observer behaviours. For example, a feeling of excitement, wherever it stems from, can cause a boost in productivity. Those who can witness such a result will not have clues about private events that have triggered it. Such covert private events are not taken into consideration by proponents of methodological track. The fact that at some point behaviorism evolved to recognise such a component

might be a bridge to the following learning theories that go even further and include individual experience and history into the dissection of the learning process. Description of private events is not yet a feature of SRL, but it can be considered a major step forward from a rigid, mechanistic understanding of learning that still largely dominates behaviorism.

To sum up, determinism, focus on external rewards, neglect of internal, individual processes, and previous learning experience limit behaviourism in understanding the complexity of factors that affect learning. They put a student in the back seat of the car, letting a teacher drive them in the needed direction. SRL is conversely based on the idea that students are able to consciously estimate every step of the process and steer a wheel in the direction they choose.

Distinct features of SRL can be observed in social cognitive theory. Free from the radical determinism which dominates behaviourism, it adds a component that resonates with the fundamental ideas of SRL. This component is the agency. It posits that *“instead of being just shaped by environments or inner forces, individuals are self-developing, self-regulating, self-reflecting and proactive”* (Zhou & Brown, 2015, p. 21).

The founding father of the theory, Albert Bandura, described a unique interplay between three significant factors that determine the learning process: behaviour, personal and environmental factors (Griffin & McClish, 2011). These components were not new, and their previous understanding was not undermined but enriched by the new discoveries. However, a learner's awareness of their existence and realisation that they can be altered and adjusted to the needs can be considered a major step forward. The fact that a person can realise that an environmental change will lead to different behaviours and transform personal factors like cognition or affect has freed us from being hostages of the biological makeup and dependency on a favourable environment. The described above group of factors has been named triadic reciprocal determinism (Zhou & Brown, 2015). It indicates that the laws of causality remain to be, but now they serve to clarify changes agents will bring about by their activity. The term determinism, in this case, is not interpreted conventionally. It does not doom a learner to be a passive recipient of fate shaped by external factors. Conversely, it makes this learner shape and alter the environment, behaviours, and personal attributes through their realisation and conscious decision-making. Determinism

plays on their side, making consequences predictable and this way, letting a person devise a strategy that, if properly done, will lead to the expected outcome.

Being another component of social cognitive theory, outcome expectancies guarantee that learners will internalise causality laws, learn to formulate corollary and determine factors and their weight in the process. Without expected outcomes, the world would probably have no room for learning as only repeated and later anticipated consequences let us put schemata on the mental shelf. This idea of outcome expectancies is of paramount importance in SRL. Introspection, through which learners understand their ways of learning, benefits a lot from understanding the processes mentioned above. A student can realise that they are enjoying the learning process more while working in a group. It will become a belief and a strategy only if this conclusion is supported by a number of successful and pleasurable instances of learning. The learner will capitalise on introspection, as external observers do not always interpret overt cues correctly to give advice. So, the student left alone to cope with it will make a wiser decision about the suitable learning mode if all the stages that form outcome expectancies have been practised and understood by them.

By its turn agency, in theory, has been split into individual, proxy and collective (Zhou & Brown, 2015). This idea seems to be of great importance in SRL as a proxy agency can consciously be embodied by the teacher who, becoming a part of a reciprocal triadic cycle, is able to affect learners' types of goal setting, strategic planning and self-evaluation through design and implementation of intervention programs.

Another salient part of social cognitive theory as a whole and human agency in particular is self-regulation where emotions play a significant role. Dual processing self-regulation model explains how goals are activated concerning SRL (Boekaerts & Corno, 2005). It analyses diverse psychological frameworks and appears as a twofold phenomenon of mastery of learning mode and a coping or well-being mode (Panadero, 2017). The idea comes from "Achievement Goal Theory" where students' mastery goals and performance goals have already been described (Senko et al., 2011). However, the fact that they have been added to the model with several factors makes them operate differently as now they interplay with other components. Goal setting in the model hinges on self-regulation which

appears to be heavily dependent on self-efficacy. It is a crucial component of social cognitive theory. In many cases, it solely can determine whether a learner will try to avoid efforts and give up in the face of the slightest obstacle or wrestle with a task for longer supported by the belief that they can cope with it.

The concept of self-efficacy gives an insight into possible psychological hold back factors and a base to build successful classroom practices. Defined by Boekaerts and Corno (2005) two-goal pathways (well-being and mastery/growth) where students are driven either by their needs and values or try to prevent the self from being damaged (Boekaerts & Corno, 2005) propose classroom conditions and approaches like discovery learning.

In conclusion, it can be said that social cognitive theory exhibits a significant step forward in comparison with behaviourism in terms of elements that construct SRL. It acknowledges learning to be a complex construct, unlike behaviourism, where it is regulated by a few leavers that students can barely get a hold of. Albert Bandura's theory describes learning as an elaborate maze where a student, although taking cues from observation, navigates relatively independently exercising their agency and constructing meaning along the way. Learners not only follow well-trodden paths but are able to break or build walls realising consequences and repercussions this action will cause. The key elements that form Social Cognitive Theory like agency, self-regulation, self-efficacy, and outcome expectancy are all described and taken into consideration in SRL at various stages. They define the learning experience at the phase of forethought, performance, or self-evaluation.

Distinct components of SRL can be spotted in sociocultural theory. In terms of essence, it can be said that it is built on SRL as learners are in constant need to figure out their ways through the tasks. To succeed they need to consciously and to some extent independently break the activity into sub-goals, reflect on a discrepancy between the aim and the achieved so far outcome, adjust their conduct to live up to the bar set by themselves or by instructors. Observation of more experienced educators or more successful peers takes a lot of high order processing and introspection, which are integral parts of SRL. As the main instrument of the theory, scaffolding involves numerous aspects of SRL and builds on them. Being a part of those mentioned above reciprocal triadic determinism structures scaffolding mainly

targets environmental influence. The teacher is responsible for creating the proper educational situation with the appropriate task characteristics, social setting, emphasis on the potential gains and amelioration of probable failures. The thought-through decision at this stage on a par with minimal specific instruction will, as a result, influence learning motivation, one of the core constituents of SRL. However, Hheinberg, Vollmeyer and Burns (2000) once again stress that aspects of the situation do not have equal power over students and depend on individual motivational traits in terms of forming learning expectancies and incentives that the students will see as possible. So, scaffolding to target mass audiences in pure numbers enhances the learning process and develops specific skills, hopefully, volition and resilience. However, the individual variables come into play and benefit the process more than the others. The possible consequence of scaffolding application might be the fact that students themselves will internalise this technique, will learn it from the teacher and will be able to build a proper environment for themselves and if needed for others. They will validate different levels from the teacher that cognition, motivation and behaviour can be monitored, controlled and regulated.

Unlike previously described theories, sociocultural one puts a more considerable emphasis on the cultural and social factors. They are believed to determine learners but at the same time leave enough room to nurture agency, so the lessons learned are not identical and the learners themselves build up a way to them. In comparison with the social cognitive theory, it appears to have more determinism. A student can hardly avoid being shaped by the language, sociocultural, historical influences, and interaction with the immediate social circle. However, knowledge is not directly transferred. It is hinted at. Although a person can be invited to try rock climbing, given basic instructions, delivered to the foot of the rock, and given equipment, it will be their responsibility to figure out what needs to be done to reach the top without grabbing loose rocks, cutting ropes over sharp edges, or being paralysed by unexpected panic attacks. A group of experienced climbers, more gifted peers, or an instructor can serve as reliable role models to follow their lead. However, the learner will have to construct a lot of knowledge to reach the top successfully. Moreover, they will succeed in this endeavour only if a task is somewhere within the so-called zone of proximal development (hereinafter referred to as ZPD). ZPD was defined by

Lev Vygotsky, the founder of Sociocultural Theory, as the distance between the actual development level and the level of potential development under adult guidance or collaboration with more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978). It was a valuable contribution as no learning, including the self-regulated one is possible beyond it. Moreover, ZPD is a range with decreasing self-regulation put into learning. At the start of this range, a person can cope with a task relatively independently, but as the challenge increases the amount of instruction and guidance grows.

To sum up, such features of SRL as metacognition, reflection, behavioural and cognitive strategies are necessary for learners to cope with tasks. They are encouraged to structure the learning process taking cues from vicarious experience, observation, or even direct instructions. Although defined by a number of factors, they intensively make meaning of the processes they are emerged into. They have to reflect upon the progress, adjust their behaviour, and take a detached estimation of how their cognitive processes can be affected.

From a different angle, the embodiment of SRL aspects should be traced in Kolb's experiential learning theory (Kolb, 1984). Kolb's idea is to distinguish inherent learning inclinations and faculties in people to capitalise on them and help learners acquire knowledge in the easiest possible way. His four modes of approaching situations - concrete experience, active experiment, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation (Zhou, 2015) vary in the amount of SRL involved. Suppose the dominant *modus operandi* for a person is an active experiment or reflective observation. In that case, they from square one tend to be more conscious and able to reflect on their decisions and actions to self-regulate them. Meanwhile, people with initially different approaches are trained in taking a step back and producing a detached perspective on the situation.

Another important aspect of the theory is the stress on socially shared experience. An SRL model that analyses this particular dimension was put forward by Hadwin, Jarvela and Miller (2011 cited in Panadero, 2017) and sheds light on self-regulation in the context of collaborative learning (Panadero, 2017) models. Kolb's theory described certain learning situations that range from simulations and gaming to field course scenarios (Zhou, 2015). They pose additional challenges as they merge individual and group level objectives. Eventually merging into a social entity in a learning

process (Greeno & van de Sande, 2007) such activities split the structure into three levels: self-regulation, co-regulation, and shared regulation (Panadero, 2017). While the first of these levels has been widely explored, the second and third might be insightful in terms of affordances and hurdles. Adjustments and adaptations required from the learner as a group member can be with proper analysis revelatory about strengths and weak points. However, individuals with poor metacognition skills can misinterpret them, drawing fallible conclusions about their capabilities.

CONCLUSION

This paper's main aim has been to analyse self-regulated learning from the perspective of the fundamental learning theories. Following the defined aim, self-regulated learning has been discussed from the perspective of behaviourism, social cognitivism, sociocultural theory, and experiential learning theory.

In conclusion, SRL manifests itself differently but in growing proportion in most major learning theories. The empirical evidence of its influence cannot be overlooked. Despite drawing attention to different constituent parts, all theories but behaviorism build on an individuals' ability to deepen their understanding of the learning process. Instructional designers and teachers calculating integral parts of the process uncover the potential and added value of tasks and approaches that aim to meet the time demands. Nowadays, learning needs to be flexible to serve students' needs with their unique mental capabilities and mind. The additional pressure of the age to nurture wholesome people who can live to their potential and become independent lifelong learners gives rise to new techniques and paths to explore knowledge acquisition. Apart from the encouragement of this track of research, this paper aims to emphasize the solid theoretical grounding of SRL. The fact that constituents of SRL can be found in major learning theories bolsters the validity of this educational strategy. With a more solid theoretical underpinning it can be seen as a reliable and efficient component of learning. Broader implementation and encouragement of self-regulation in learning environments and beyond can increase, once the strategy proves to be stemming from respectful, time-tested theories.

Further study should identify which less researched elements of SRL can be singled out, properly studied to help address the aforementioned pressures and goals, as they might have some hidden potential or threats. Therefore, this paper leaves an open space for theoretical and empirical analysis for future researchers and critics. In addition to presenting new research challenges to future researchers, the paper leaves a framework for the analysis of various aspects of learning based on the above theories of education. The framework presented in this way opens the possibility of broad interdisciplinarity, but in that case, the need for its solid theoretical foundation from the perspective of a specific discipline, where it will be necessary to reach for other methodological paradigms and data sources.

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SAMOREGULIRANO UČENJE IZ PERSPEKTIVE TEMELJNIH TEORIJA UČENJA

SAŽETAK

Samoregulirano učenje je proces preuzimanja kontrole i vrednovanja vlastitog učenja i ponašanja. Može se koristiti za opisivanje učenja vođenog metakognicijom – razmišljanjem o svom razmišljanju; strateškog djelovanja - planiranja, praćenja i evaluacije napretka u odnosu na standard; i motivacije za učenje (Cazan, 2012). Samoregulirano učenje naglašava autonomiju i kontrolu pojedinca koji prati, usmjerava i regulira radnje prema ciljevima prikupljanja informacija, razvoju vlastite ekspertize i vlastitom razvoju.

Ovaj rad ima za cilj analizirati samoregulirano učenje iz perspektive temeljnih teorija učenja. O samoreguliranom učenju raspravljat će se iz perspektive biheviorističke, socijalno-kognitivističke, sociokulturalne i iskustvene teorije učenja.

Rad se prvenstveno temelji na teorijskoj raspravi i doprinosi daljnjim empirijskim i akademskim istraživanjima, prvenstveno u pedagogiji, obrazovnim znanostima i edukacijskoj psihologiji.

Ključne riječi: samoregulirano učenje, teorije učenja, bihevioristička teorija, socijalno-kognitivna teorija, sociokulturalna teorija

STRESSORS AND SUPPORT AS THE DETERMINANTS OF TEACHER DEVELOPMENT POTENTIAL

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed to determine how teachers cope with occupational stress, who they turn to for help, what the most effective forms of help for them would be, and whether they would choose the same career again if they could. Data from 538 participants (kindergarten, lower primary and subject teachers) were collected by the self-report method, and a qualitative methodology was used to analyse the data. The results show that more than half of the participants (66.4%) often and almost always successfully deal with stress and that 76.4% of them would often and almost always choose the same job again. In stressful situations, they turn to colleagues, family and friends for help, and much less often to expert associates and principals of the institution. They consider the following to be the most effective types of support: conversation and concrete advice, training, a more competent non-teaching expert staff and principal, legislation, better working conditions, and a more appropriate social status.

Keywords: effective support, occupational stress, teachers

INTRODUCTION

The role that teachers¹ play in the development of the education system at all levels (from early and preschool to the higher education level) is immeasurable. It is also one of the roles that is crucial not only for the healthy and harmonious growth of children and youth, but in the long run for the health of society as a whole. There is no education policy, idea or theory that a teacher cannot enforce, apply, and improve with his creative potential when doing one of the most socially responsible jobs.

There are many obstacles and challenges in the daily performance of pedagogical tasks, especially in difficult and demanding times of crisis that we are witnessing (pandemics and earthquakes). However, even in such times pedagogical workers give their maximum to successfully respond to their vocation. How individuals experience their own work (as a job, career, or vocation) depends on their perspective, so enthusiastic individuals feel a personal and emotional connection to the job they do and most often feel the harmony with who they are and what they do. Thus harmonized, they give their maximum to achieve positive goals, e.g. educate new generations of children and youth, and improve and develop the education system in general. When in the educational vertical individuals experience their pedagogical role as a vocation and identify with it, they grow and develop professionally and personally, simultaneously enabling the development of other stakeholders in the process (children, their parents, colleagues, the local community, etc.).

An individual can feel his job is his vocation only when he is satisfied with himself and the work he does, when he feels that he has sufficient competence to do it, when he feels he belongs to the institution in which he feels safe and where he is respected, when he fosters quality relationships with all the stakeholders, and when he can develop professionally. One of the potential ways to mitigate the effects of a teacher's job is to provide additional support to teachers and enable them to acquire skills through professional development. Sandilos et al. (2018: 282) emphasize that "High quality professional development (PD) can result in positive changes

1 The term teacher refers to teachers at all levels of the education system, from kindergarten and nursery teachers to higher education teachers, and is gender neutral.

in preschool teachers' instruction and improved outcomes for young children.”

Everyday life is very often far from ideal, so dissatisfaction that a teacher or other pedagogical worker experiences at his workplace, regardless of the source of that dissatisfaction (children/students, parents, management, time pressure, emotional status, insecurity, etc.), overflows to other spheres of his life and relationships, which over time makes him partially or completely dysfunctional. Therefore, it seems important to research the sources of stress in the professional environment (kindergarten/school) and understand them as risk factors that need to be/can be reduced and/or completely eliminated. At the same time, it is important to explore and raise awareness of protective factors (support factors) that can significantly reduce the negative impact of risk factors on the success and satisfaction of the pedagogical staff. The quality, improvement and development of the (education) system can be dealt with only by a teacher who is satisfied with himself and his working (and living) environment.

TEACHER STRESS AND ITS SOURCES

By definition, stress is a state of mental tension and worry caused by problems in a person's life, work, etc. (Parray et al., 2016) and is caused by various psychological and physiological pressures that individuals experience or feel in their lives. Everyone experiences stress in different spheres of life (family, work, society) but each individual copes with it in a unique way. In the contemporary society, stress is becoming an increasing problem. Stress-related complaints and stress-related effects, such as fatigue, anxiety, and depression, are common among teachers (Ramberg et al., 2020). Duggan (1997) pointed out that stress affects the individual teacher, but also the institution he works in and the entire education system. She studied the issue of teacher stress from a multifactorial perspective, defining teacher stress as a consequence of a range of interactive variables, including personal and organizational factors. Researching and solving teacher's stress-related problems requires a holistic approach and can be most successfully managed in a systemic context (Duggan, 1997).

A research by Harmsen et al. (2018) found that all five causes of stress (high psychological task demands, negative social aspects, negative

organizational aspects, lack of developmental opportunities, and negative student aspects) are positively and significantly related to one or more teacher responses to stress. However, when these causes of stress are assessed together, high psychological demands, negative student aspects, and negative social aspects are stronger and more stable predictors of teacher responses to stress. In addition, negative student aspects were also found to be significantly and positively related to tension, negative emotions, and dissatisfaction. Similar results were obtained by Ramberg et al. (2020) who pointed out that knowledge about the connections between the overall level of teacher stress in schools and individual student outcomes is still scarce. Therefore, any research contribution on this topic is significant. Sandilos et al. (2018) argue that teacher welfare crisis not only harms their workforce, but also affects their students. Studies have shown that teachers who report higher stress and burnout tend to provide lower quality emotional and instructional support, face increased teacher-student conflict, and their students achieve poorer academic and socio-emotional outcomes. At the same time, it is pointed out that improving the aspects of school ecology can improve teachers' sense of well-being (Sandilos & DiPerna, 2021).

Of all the activities that constitute the role of a teacher, enforcing classroom discipline is one of the most challenging ones. When establishing and maintaining classroom discipline, some teachers experience different levels of tension resulting from their desire to apply modern educational models (e.g., group work, collaborative learning, etc.) while at the same time quickly and skilfully gaining and maintaining order in the classroom (Lewis, 1999). Researches have highlighted an important fact for the teaching job, which indicates that the quality of the student-teacher relationship significantly affects the outcomes of teaching as a job, and consequently the level of stress experienced. Clunies-Ross et al. (2008) emphasize that teachers perceive the negative student aspects and high psychological demands as the most stressful elements in their job, and Kelly and Northrop (2015) directly link them to teacher "burnout".

It seems important to point out that the teaching process is stressful, especially for beginning teachers. This conclusion is consistent with a conducted qualitative study, which shows that negative emotions resulting from a tense relationship between a beginner and a mentor and a poor school climate can be so strong that they affect the teaching practice (Yuan &

Lee, 2016). Constant insecurity and pronounced emotionality of beginners is somewhat expected and understandable, and can be attributed to their professional learning in a certain structure and culture of an institution that has unique “emotional rules” embedded in school practice. Therefore, Yuan and Lee (2016) advocate for a greater respect for teachers’ feelings and their inclusion in students’, i.e. future teachers’ curricula.

SUPPORT AS AN IMPERATIVE

Almost all education reforms during the 2000s and later, in many countries, included new teacher accountability policies and placed increasing emphasis on teacher quality as the key to improving education (Kelly, 2012 according to Harmsen et al., 2018). Therefore, it is justified to ask what kind of support is provided to teachers in order to reduce the level of occupational stress and increase their efficiency. Recent research shows that teachers are three times more likely to be at lower risk of stress if their workload is reduced, if they can attend seminars, if they receive support from administrators (the management), have common planning time, and if they receive additional help more often, in comparison to teachers with more risk for stress (Fitchett et al., 2018 quoted in Harmsen et al., 2018).

Special attention in researches has been paid to socio-professional support to teachers and its role in decision-making - to stay or leave the teaching profession. A study by Harmsen et al. (2018) shows that negative social aspects are stronger and more stable predictors of teacher dissatisfaction leading them to give up the teaching profession, while high psychological demands have been found to be stronger predictors of tension. The results by Newberry and Allsop (2017 quoted in Harmsen et al., 2018) show that time and intensity of challenges such as high workload and poor student behaviour are important for teachers’ decision to stay or leave the profession, but the effects are mitigated by the strength of personal and professional relationships. Researchers claim that it is not the job challenge or individual characteristics that are crucial, but the structure of socio-professional support that determines whether teachers stay in or leave the profession. Similarly, Kelchtermans (2017) argues that basic professional relationships (e.g., relationships with students, colleagues, principal) can be a “double-edged sword” because they are the most important sources of, on

the one hand, positive outcomes (e.g., satisfaction and motivation), and on the other, the negative ones (e.g., stress, burnout). Therefore, Kelchtermans (2017) suggests a more effective teacher education that would better introduce them to the educational process and school development in general, and thus would successfully solve the challenge of keeping good teachers in teaching. The importance of social support to teachers is also emphasized by Ferguson et al. (2017). A study conducted on a sample of 264 teachers from northern Ontario (Canada) found that teachers rarely talk to their health professionals about stress caused by their professional role and are more likely to address family, friends, colleagues, and sometimes their principals. The frequency of teachers' access to different social support networks varied depending on the stressor (workload, student behaviour, professional relationships, societal attitudes and employment conditions). Teachers who talked more often with their friends about work stress were less committed to their careers. In addition, gender differences were also found among study participants as men talked less about work stress with different social support factors (Ferguson et al., 2017). An interesting fact of this research is that teachers are not comfortable to talk about work stress with their principals, especially about stress caused by troubled professional relationships. Higher levels of job satisfaction were demonstrated by teachers who were less likely to talk to friends and principals about stress. Ferguson et al. (2017) point out that it is very likely that these teachers use some other effective coping mechanisms in addition to social support.

SATISFACTION WITH (TEACHING) JOB AS A PREREQUISITE FOR THE DEVELOPMENT (OF THE INSTITUTION)

Job (dis)satisfaction is the subjective feeling of employees towards their job (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2014). If there is a compatibility of the need for employment on the one hand and the expectations are met on the other, it is very likely that the end result will be employee satisfaction. At the same time, a possible gap between them will result in job dissatisfaction (Demirdag, 2015) and possibly dissatisfaction with oneself. Important determinants of teacher job satisfaction include the quality of the relationships with

the management, the ability to achieve work goals, self-efficacy, working conditions, and support within the institution (Naz, 2017; Van den Berghe et al., 2014). Research shows that the teacher's productivity increases with increasing job satisfaction, while job dissatisfaction negatively affects the productivity of even those teachers who are (highly) qualified and very skilled in their work. A negative effect of job dissatisfaction is revealed in "burnout", absenteeism and frequent employee turnover (Naz, 2017), but also depression and anxiety (Mahan et al., 2010) and the feeling of being worn-out (Harmsen et al., 2018). Herzberg et al., (2011 quoted in Naz, 2017), report that prejudice, support and resistance in the work environment play a significant role in achieving the set goals and their development.

Although many educational and scientific institutions have recognized the negative effects of teacher stress and job dissatisfaction and tried to intervene to improve the environment in order to raise the quality of all the aspects of the institution, the results do not seem satisfactory (let us recall that each institution has its own Commission for Monitoring and Improving Quality). Akram et al. (2015 quoted in Naz, 2017) state that the reason behind this is the fact that most of these initiatives do not address teachers' basic problems. This finding was the impetus for this study, which aimed to investigate what the basic problems of teachers (at all levels) are so that the conclusions can be operationalized and possible effective solutions offered.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

122

The results presented in this paper are a part of an extensive study conducted in the Republic of Croatia in January 2021 that 538 participants took part in (teachers of early and preschool children, lower primary teachers and subject teachers), out of which 93.7% were women. The participants were between 24 to 63 years of age and had between 1 to 42 years of work experience. With regard to education, 0.6% of the participants had secondary school qualifications, 36.4% had a college degree and 60% had a university degree, 1.5% of the participants had a specialist university study degree and as many (1.5%) had a master's or a PhD degree.

The sample consists of 46.5% of early and preschool teachers, 36.4% of subject teachers, and 17.1% of lower primary teachers. Their institutions are located in: the city (78.4%), municipality (11%), in the countryside (34%), on the islands (3.3%), and on the mainland (0.9%).

Most participants, i.e. 82.9%, had a permanent job, 8.6% had a temporary job and 8.6% were substitute teachers for an absent employee. A total of 7.8% of research participants were completely satisfied with their monthly income, while 21.4% of them were completely dissatisfied. The vast majority of participants expressed their satisfaction with their monthly income (70.8%). Most participants were married (71%), 15.2% were single, 8.4% were in a life partnership, 24% were divorced, and 0.9% were widowed.

Research instrument

For the purpose of this paper, two questions were taken from the *Measures of Strengths, Supports, and Stressors for Teachers* questionnaire (MOST; Sandilos & DiPerna, 2021): *I successfully deal with work-related stress.* (question no. 57) and *If I were to choose my job again, I would be a teacher again.* (question no. 58). In addition, the authors of this paper also created two open-ended questions, which aimed to research: *who the teachers prefer to talk with when they feel stress at work* (question no. 59) and *what form of support they consider to be the most effective one* (question no. 60).

Answers to questions 57 and 58 were obtained using descriptive statistics, and the participants expressed their level of agreement with one of the five items on a Likert-type scale where 1 is never and 5 is almost always.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The participants assessed the level of *success in dealing with stress* as follows: almost half of the participants (47.4%) are often successful in dealing with stress, 19% of them are almost always successful, and 25.7% are sometimes successful in dealing with occupational stress. On the other hand, 6.7% of the participants rarely cope successfully with stress and 1.3% never successfully cope with occupational stress.

However, when asked *if they would choose their job again if they could* (question 58), more than half of the participants (52.8%) would almost

always choose it (5), 23.6% of them would do it often (4), and 11.9% of them would choose it sometimes (3). At the same time, 6.3% of participants would never (1) choose the same profession and 5.4% of them would rarely (2) do so.

It is clear that occupational stress is an integral part of the pedagogical profession and is immanent to teachers at all levels of the system - from kindergarten to high school, but more than half of the participants (66.4%) often or almost always cope with it well. Following these results, it is not surprising that 76.4% of the participants in this survey would almost always and often choose the same job if they could.

When asked *Who do you like to talk to the most when you feel stress at work* (question 59), most research participants stated colleagues (66.4%), followed by family members (52.8%), friends (38.3%), expert associates (11.2%), and the head of the institution (4.8%).

It is evident that the first social circle of support in stressful situations for teachers in our study consists of colleagues, most likely because they have the same or similar problems and challenges, so they understand each other best, and friendly relationships that are built in education institutions contribute to intimacy and openness among colleagues. This finding is contrary to what Ferguson et al. (2017) reported where one teacher-participant pointed out: "The greatest amount of stigma comes from other teachers. Often when teachers express stress, comments are made such as 'If you can't handle it, leave.' There is not a lot of support within the profession." Fortunately, in the Croatian context it seems like we can still rely on each other. The reason behind this might be that Croatian professional environment is less competitive, and teacher turnover is not high, so there is relatively enough time to build nurturing friendly relationships in a professional environment unlike in some Western cultures (Ryan et al. 2017; Klassen & Ming Chiu, 2011). We believe that it is the profession and experts who should provide the greatest and most direct support to the teachers who find it difficult to cope with occupational stress, because it is they who can best understand them.

As expected, family is actively involved in the lives of its members, which is also one of the characteristics of Croatian culture, so it quite logically lives through their unpleasant professional experiences providing them with support (Ferguson, et al. 2017; Hossen et al., 2018). In addition,

family most often also best knows the individual and by sharing with him the feelings of love, belonging and trust, and showing him a lot of empathy and understanding, it can provide the support that the individual needs at a given time.

More than a third of research participants find support among friends, which is not surprising, because friends are always ready to listen, understand and help. However, it is somewhat surprising (considering the education profession) that a very small number of participants turns to expert associates (11.2%) and especially to the principal (4.8%). These findings are consistent with the findings by Ferguson et al. (2017). Possible reasons for this are: a lack of a non-teaching expert team in the institution², distrust in them and their competencies, unavailability of expert associates as there are a few of them in the institution, etc. The role of non-teaching expert staff in providing support to teachers in dealing with occupational stress is expected to be more prominent.

A qualitative analysis of participants' answer to the question (60): *What form of support would be most effective / useful for you?* enabled the classification of processed answers into several categories related to:

1. Talking and giving concrete advice (for example: *"First, to talk more with colleagues...."*; *"That the colleagues I work with comfort me in stressful situations...."*; *"I get most support from colleagues and the principal and that is enough."*).
2. Trainings (for example: *"Numerous trainings of experts from different professions and views on the educational process and existing problems in the profession."*; *"Trainings aimed at the practical application of the news of reform and the profession in general."*; *"Various trainings for kindergartens on the island."*; *"Teams for reflections and planning."*; *"Useful trainings that will improve practice."*; *"Expert lectures with examples of good practice."*; *"Trainings in line with our real needs."*).
3. More competent non-teaching expert team and principal (for example: *"Support from the management and existence of a non-teaching expert team."*; *"Greater, timely and coordinated engagement of non-teaching expert team at school"*; *"That the non-teaching expert team works more with children / students."*; *"Concrete, professional and specific advice."*; *"A more competent principal who will encourage a positive culture of the institution, who will appreciate kindergarten teachers' efforts and work,*

2 Non-teaching expert team is a team of experts working in kindergartens and schools in Croatia that includes a pedagogue, a (child) psychologist, an educational rehabilitator, and a speech therapist.

solve problems on time, i.e. at least respond to the problems we encounter.”; “Discuss and exchange views with the non-teaching expert team. It would be much easier if the situations in the kindergarten could be viewed from two sides. Sometimes as a kindergarten teacher I feel very helpless, because I know that there is a situation when a pedagogue / psychologist could get involved in the work and help with a certain difficulty of the child. Often, however, it often ends up that we as kindergarten teachers, unfortunately, have to ‘pretend’ that the child does not have these difficulties.”; “Educating parents to help solve everyday difficulties”; “Non-teaching expert team should provide help when parents are unrealistic in assessing the situation and have too high expectations from us teachers to solve problems”; “I am deeply disappointed with the work of certain members of the non-teaching expert team who do not help teachers. Open, two-way communication would help, all for the benefit of children.”;” Physical presence of the non-teaching expert team and additional trainings.”; “Principal who supports kindergarten teachers and stands by them.”;” Support from the pedagogue and psychologist.”; “Supervision”; “Psychological support for the employees.”; “That there is a psychologist, pedagogue or psychotherapist in the school who provides free support to teachers. A person we can turn to for conversation, advice, support, even if we do not have severe mental difficulties.”).

4. Legislation (for example: *“Only that everyone does their job according to the rules of the profession and the law”; “That the Ministry clearly regulates the position of teachers and parents’ rights and obligations”; “Regulated schedule for all kindergartens of the City, that they are the same for everyone and that the principals cannot change it at their own discretion.”*).
5. Better working conditions (for example: *“Fewer children in the group”; “Third kindergarten teacher”; “Uniform forms and definition of the scope of administrative work”; “Respect for pedagogical standards”; “Greater availability of consumables and other accessories for working with children”; “Less bureaucracy!”; “ICT support and computers, speakers, projectors ...”*).
6. Appropriate status in the society (for example: *“Public support from ‘higher’ institutions, nationally raising awareness of the importance of education and socio-emotional development of children within the peer community”; “Respect for the profession, because the job of a teacher is very responsible and requires respect.”; “To appreciate the effort and work, and not the more you work the worse the situation towards the workers is”*).

The presented answers clearly show that research participants mostly have very concrete remarks and suggestions regarding the non-teaching expert team in the institution, from which, obviously, they have the

highest expectations. Moreover, they want to see expert associates (but also principals) as competent experts who will be able to respond to the growing challenges of everyday pedagogical practice and provide appropriate and timely support not only to teachers, but also to children / students and their parents. The difficulties that the participants point out in this regard is that there are few expert associates who are not as available as much as the practitioners really need them, and whose competencies the participants also occasionally question. Therefore, a better interaction between expert associates and pedagogical staff in the institution is suggested with the aim of better understanding and researching mutual expectations in order to (sometimes) reduce unrealistic expectations to a minimum. But, at the same time, it is necessary to improve the education curricula of expert associates (pedagogues, psychologists, educational rehabilitator) in order to make their competencies more appropriate to the needs of pedagogical practice.

The participants also, emphasize the need for additional training as they are obviously very aware of the necessity of lifelong learning. Education that is in line with the real needs of pedagogical practice and pedagogical staff is an appropriate way of providing support to teachers, and they perceive it as an important protective factor in the occurrence of occupational stress.

Although several participants (N=7) explicitly stated “finances” (“higher salary”), it seems that this form of support is not a priority for the participants in this research. The priorities are: a more appropriate social status, legal regulation of the system, better working conditions, and better relationship with work colleagues. This very aspect is very questionable in the current situation caused by the COVID pandemic, so it is not surprising that one participant commented: “Bringing back the teachers’ lounge as before COVID!”

It is obvious that having a physical contact, socializing, communicating directly and exchanging experiences are extremely important to all social beings and to teachers as well, and no modern technological achievements can adequately replace them.

CONCLUSION

- » “Teaching is a very noble profession that shapes the character, calibre, and future of an individual. If the people remember me as a good teacher, that will be the biggest honour for me.”

A. P. J. Abdul Kalam, Indian scientist and politician

Kalam's words were a kind of impetus for this research and it is very likely that these words also guide most of research participants in their professional life. We cannot influence the challenges that will befall us in our (professional) life, but we can influence how we deal with them. One such challenge is occupational stress, whose causes one should be aware of so that they can be successfully minimized or even eliminated.

The presented results show that teachers- research participants have a relatively clear idea of how to successfully deal with various occupational stresses and have provided specific suggestions which areas of their professional life and work need to be improved to be even more successful in their work.

Answering the question about the most appropriate form of support for teachers, one participant pointed out: *“Most of us, especially subject teachers, are not adequately educated on how to work with children of different profiles. Truth be told, when a young person starts working, he is thrown into the fire and manages there as he knows best. Of course, the experience does its thing, but that is why it is important that young people receive continuous support so that they do not have panic attacks, develop anxiety, fall into depression or develop many other disorders and diseases due to numerous negative experiences and stress.”*

128

It is this comment that is most binding for all who deal with the issue of prevention and effective response to teachers' occupational stress both first during their studies and preparation for pedagogical practice and later in the workplace. The task and responsibility of those called (out) is to enable future teachers to acquire necessary competencies and to thus empower them for future professional work and enable them to successfully cope with stress. There is a special responsibility at the faculties that conduct additional pedagogical-psychological-didactic-methodological training of subject teachers in order to successfully respond to their tasks and preserve

their own and the health of their students, and indirectly their parents. At the same time, the competent ministry and the local community (as the founder of most educational institutions) have their share of responsibility, which need to promote the teaching profession and protect teachers' dignity.

If teachers' capacities to deal more effectively with occupational stress are strengthened, and in particular, if support mechanisms are recognized, it can be expected that teachers will be significantly happier and more efficient and that they will focus most of their energy on development activities.

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STRESORI I POTPORA KAO DETERMINANTE RAZVOJNOG POTENCIJALA UČITELJA

SAŽETAK

Ovo istraživanje imalo je za cilj utvrditi kako se učitelji nose sa profesionalnim stresom, kome se obraćaju za pomoć, koji bi im bili najdjelotvorniji oblici pomoći te bi li ponovo izabrali svoj poziv kada bi to bilo moguće. Metodom samoiskaza prikupljeni su podaci 538 sudionika (odgojitelji u dječjim vrtićima, učitelji razredne nastave i predmetni nastavnici), a korištena je kvalitativna metodologija. Rezultati pokazuju kako je više od polovice sudionika često i gotovo uvijek uspješno u nošenju sa stresom (66,4%), a njih 76,4% bi često i gotovo uvijek ponovo izabrali isti posao. U stresnim situacijama za pomoć se obraćaju kolegama i kolegicama, obitelji te prijateljima, a znatno rjeđe stručnim suradnicima i ravnateljima ustanove. Najdjelotvornijom potporom smatraju: razgovor i konkretne savjete, edukacije, kompetentniji stručni tim i ravnatelja, zakonsku regulativu, bolje uvjete rada i primjereniji društveni status.

Ključne riječi: djelotvorna potpora, profesionalni stres, učitelji

PREGLEDNI
RADOVI

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REVIEW
PAPERS

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INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCES OF PRESCHOOL TEACHERS IN PROMOTING INTERCULTURALISM

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of the paper “Intercultural Competences of Preschool Teachers in Promoting Interculturalism” is reflected in the importance of preschool teachers¹ in transmitting and promoting not only new knowledge, but especially the value of interculturalism through various activities. Intercultural education in preschools is a priority for shaping the future of young generations who need to be raised in the spirit of diversity, mutual interaction, and dialogue, in order to understand and appreciate diversity as human capital. The aim of this research is to determine the level of intercultural competence of educators in preschool institutions. Based on the data obtained, we can conclude that preschool teachers have a good knowledge of interculturalism. Also, most of them agree that intercultural content should be an integral part of preschool programs as intercultural education should contribute, not only to a better knowledge of other cultures, but also to promote its values - equality, respect, openness, and acceptance.

Keywords: interculturalism, intercultural competence, intercultural education, preschool, educators

1 In this article which describes the state of the art in the Croatian educational system, terms “preschool teacher” and “educator” both indicate teaching staff at nursery, preschool and kindergartens who are responsible for the care and early education of children aged 0-6.

INTRODUCTION

In the globalized society, among the numerous threats which include pollution, consumerism, loneliness, according to Zygmunt Bauman (Portera, 2018, p. 5), “the most difficult challenge to face is cultural diversity. Educating for interculturality and citizenship in today’s society becomes a topic of wide-ranging discussion”. Interculturality is a way of life that we should know, understand, and make our own, as living in a multicultural society makes an appropriate educational intervention a minimum requirement. Its main objective shall be to develop intercultural competence to enable each person to cooperate and dialogue with other individuals without questioning his/her cultural diversity. Intercultural competence fights against discrimination, racism, xenophobia, prejudices, stereotypes, while promoting identity, diversity and the model of “open society” where intercultural education is the measure and the rule of social relationships and the ultimate goal for an - active citizenship.

Therefore, when we use the word culture in the context of interculturality, it is not correct to talk about cultures that meet, but about people who carry a certain culture and who meet (Aime, 2004). The interculturality emphasizes not the “cultures” that come into play and the supposed differences of the others, but the prefix *inter*, the space that lies in between, which is the territory of the encounter and the possibilities of interaction (Mantovani, 2004).

But what do we mean when we talk about intercultural education or intercultural competence? How can this goal be reached within various educational institutions, primarily preschool? How can we ensure that this educational approach becomes a fundamental and continuous practice in life of preschoolers (and not just preschoolers), capable of shaping young people of future from the earliest days able to recognize and respect the diversity, the “otherness”? How competent are the educators to convey these values and objectives?

These are the initial questions that motivated and solicited not only the theoretical part, but especially the research and to which we tried to give an answer in this paper.

THE INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE

The term “competence” got a foothold during the 90s of the twentieth century and it was closely linked to job market and professional training. It is more precisely described as “knowledge in action with cognitive, affective, social and material variables whose educational value is identified in the person’s ability to critically modulate them in different areas, times and contexts “ (Milani, 2019, p. 94).

A subject is competent when, faced with a particular task, he/she manages to modulate knowledge, skills and attitudes in an effective way; in the case of intercultural competence, the specific ‘task’ refers to the management of diversity. Although the intercultural competence has been discussed in Croatia only in the past twenty years, at the international level the debate about the intercultural competence has been lively for more than sixty years. According to Baiutti (2018, p. 10) “there are at least three reasons why it is difficult to reach an agreement on the definition and on a model of intercultural competence: the first is the terminological one as there are many synonyms; the second is the abundant presence of definitions; the third, closely related to the second, is the presence of many conceptual models”.

Intercultural competence is “the appropriate and effective management of the interaction that occurs between people who, in one way or another, present different or divergent affective, cognitive and behavioral orientations towards the world” (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009, p. 7). This definition, despite the plurality of terminologies and interpretations given by scientific literature (global competence, intercultural sensitivity, global citizenship education, intercultural communicative competence, etc.) (Arasaratnam-Smith, 2017; Baiutti, 2017; Deardorff, 2009; Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009), outlines five dimensions: 1) cognitive / metacognitive (knowledge; reflection); 2) affective (motivation); 3) behavioral (ways of behavior in certain situations and temporal and/or spatial contexts); 4) communicative (verbal and non-verbal); 5) ethical-values (personal values as well as moral ones; professional; (deontology) group/collective values; universal values - human rights) (Piršl, 2014). These dimensions interact with each other and influence our behavior, our way of thinking and of acting in situations that are culturally different from ours. Currently, among

the most widespread definitions and models of intercultural competence in the pedagogical literature, there are those defined by Darla K. Deardorff (2016). Thus, according to Deardorff (2004), intercultural competence is the ability to interact effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations and this ability is supported by specific emotional attitudes and peculiarities, as well as by (inter)cultural knowledge, skills and reflections, while for Fantini (2006) cultural competence is a set of skills necessary for effective interaction with people who are linguistically and culturally different from us.

THE INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE OF PRESCHOOL TEACHERS IN PROMOTING INTERCULTURALISM

When we talk about intercultural education, we consider its application in the educational establishment but more specifically in preschool. In fact, one of the places of intercultural learning, besides the family, associations, local institutions, schools, is the preschool. If we affirm that the preschool in the first place and, then in the second, the primary school have a key role in shaping new generations and therefore developing a nation, then this institution must not be static but flexible, ready to follow the continuous changes in society, to adapt to its needs. There is a need to carry out fundamental projects and objectives to enable children to live in a multicultural society (Piršl, 2003). The intercultural competences of a good educator are, in the first place, “the acceptance of cultural diversity, mutual respect, understanding, solidarity and the promotion of an open mind, capable of breaking out of one’s own cultural and mental schemes; the awareness that it is not possible to believe that one’s habits are right; attention to others and respect for their ways of being and living; intellectual curiosity towards the new and the foreign; the effort to understand the change without rejecting it a priori. These are particularly important objectives, but they cannot be achieved without a substantial renewal of the school” (Piršl, 2003, p. 107). The preschool teacher has a great responsibility and a primary role in this process. When educating to interculturality, it is sometimes not enough to be friendly and open to the otherness, but one must be very careful when selecting the contents, methods, educational styles and

interpersonal relationships in the classroom. When planning the contents and setting the objectives to be achieved in the preschool yearly program, the preschool teacher must consider the personal development aspects with cultural connotations, such as ways of learning, of expressing the emotions, differences in children's verbal and non-verbal communication.

In order to develop intercultural competence, it is important to promote educational projects and teaching methods that aim to this particular objective. Today, preschool should be reinterpreted as a space for dialogue and exercise of citizenship so to develop intercultural competence, which is one of the key competences needed to "live together and share equal conditions in democratic and culturally diverse societies" (Council of Europe, 2017). In conclusion, as stated in the Delors report, one of the imperatives of the educational systems is "teaching to live together". On a daily basis, experience shows us that living "together" is neither automatic nor devoid of complexity (Delors, 1997). However, intercultural education is not only a problem of the institutional, preschool, school, and university system, but of the whole community, indeed whole societies. "The school should create a sufficiently sensitive and open climate for all culturally diverse children and pupils as a positive resource for complex growth processes" (Piršl, 2003). Therefore, in addition to children, pupils and students, it is crucial that preschool teachers and teachers in training or already in-service question themselves, train and develop intercultural competence and, more generally, an intercultural ethos.

METHODOLOGY²

140

Research Aim and Tasks

Main purpose of the research was to prove:

1. the level of knowledge about the concept of interculturality by preschool teachers;
2. the skills needed for intercultural education in preschools;

2 This paper accompanied Serenela Krajcar's undergraduate thesis: "Le competenze dell'educatore per l'educazione all'interculturalità", discussed in 2019 at the Faculty of Educational Science.

3. the forms of professional update of preschool teachers most suitable for learning/teaching in the field of intercultural education;
4. the most frequent obstacles for the implementation of intercultural education in preschools;
5. the activities and contents that best promote intercultural education in preschools.

Research Instrument

For the purpose of this research, the questionnaire entitled “Education to intercultural competence” was created. The questionnaire was anonymous and included a total of 18 questions of which 11 closed, 3 open and 4 semi-closed questions which referred to the demographic data of the interviewed subjects as well as to the attitudes regarding the skills and knowledge necessary for educators to promote intercultural education in preschools. The questions regarding the understanding of the concept of intercultural education, the goal of intercultural education, the necessary skills of preschool teachers for the implementation of intercultural education, the form of professional updating best suited to teaching intercultural education, the implementing difficulties of intercultural education in preschool institutions, were structured in the form of a statement and the score for each statement was based on the Likert scale which ranged from “1” (“not at all”) to “5” (“very much”), while for the question about the most suitable activities to promote the contents of intercultural education in preschool institutions, the score for each statement ranged from “1” (“not at all”) to “4” (“very”). The research was conducted in the year 2019.

Participants

The subjects who participated in the research were the preschool teachers of the Italian preschool institutions in Umag and Buje. The questionnaire was submitted to a total of 40 subjects, all of whom were women, aged between 22 and 57 years ($M=37.73$). The average years of working experience of preschool teachers in preschools is 13.2 years (min = 1 year; max = 36 years).

As regards the level of education of the interviewed subjects, the

majority completed the three-year graduate studies (baccalaureate) 36% (N=14), then the two-year studies, i.e. the former pedagogical academy 28% (N=11), 23% (N=9) completed their graduate studies according to the pre-Bologna program (before the Bologna process), two of them (5%) have a master's degree, while two subjects (5%) are in possess of a high school , one of them is a student (3%), while one teacher did not provide an answer to this question.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

First of all, we wanted to know if preschool teachers are aware of the concept of “interculturality”. All the interviewed subjects (N=40) replied that they have encountered this term. The majority (N=38) indicated that they bumped into the concept of “interculturality” “in the media”, while two (N=2) of them responded negatively. 36 of the subjects replied that they encountered this term in the preschool institution during their work and specifically at Regional Professional Advisory Meetings, or at seminars organized by the Education and Teacher Training Agency, while for 4 subjects the preschool institution was not the place where they got acquainted with this term. Only 5 educators have encountered the term interculturality within non-governmental organizations, while (N=35) of them gave a negative answer. One of the reasons behind the large number of responses with the statement that non-governmental organizations were not the source where the encounter with term interculturality can occur, lies in the fact that preschool teachers are not included in the work of these organizations, or have not recognized practical work as the source of the indicated (theoretical) concept. It is interesting that the church is a source of knowledge about the concept of interculturality for 6 subjects, while 34 of them claim that they have not heard of this term in church. Perhaps one of the reasons behind the high number of negative affirmations may lie in the fact that most teachers do not go to church, or do not follow sermons. Probably, this concept is not used explicitly by priests, but it is interpreted as love and respect for the other regardless of gender, race, skin color, etc., therefore the values of intercultural education (empathy, peace, solidarity, dialogue, acceptance, availability, etc.). None of the interviewees indicated any other institution or source where the subjects might have heard of this

concept. Therefore, we can conclude that most preschool teachers indicated that the media and preschool institution (through Regional Professional Advisory Meetings and various seminars organized by the Education and Teacher Training Agency) are the first sources where they heard about interculturality, while the church and non-governmental organizations are institutions where little is heard about interculturality.

Regarding what determines the concept of interculturality, (N=38) of interviewed subjects indicate “acceptance and respect of differences”, while for 36 of them “active collaboration between two or more cultures in all life environments”. It is interesting to note that (N=32) of subjects understand the concept as “tolerance of differences”, and “presence of different cultures in a territory” (N=31). Surprisingly (N=21) of preschool teachers define “interculturality” as “assimilation of the minority culture into the culture of the majority”, while 16 of them describes it as “adaptation of the majority culture to the minority one”. From the results obtained, it can be concluded that although the majority of teachers indicated correctly the meaning of the concept “interculturality”, as “acceptance and respect of differences” and “active collaboration between two or more cultures”, more than half of them believe that “interculturality” means “assimilation of the minority culture into the culture of the majority” or “adaptation of the majority culture to the minority one”. One possible explanation could be that the terms “assimilation” and “adaptation” may seem similar, but they are surely not. While the concept of “assimilation” describes the process of “absorption” of minority cultures by the dominant culture denying the existing differences, the concept of “adaptation” designates a process in course of which an individual (or group) establishes a condition of equilibrium or lack of conflict with the social environment.

Intercultural training begins with preschool teachers who have an essential role in developing and promoting meaningful relationships in children, along with skills and knowledge. The promotion of democratic and intercultural principles and values largely depend on the goodwill of teachers, their skills, sensitivity, and motivation, as well as the support offered by education authorities. Therefore, we wanted to know which are the various forms and activities of professional life-long training, which according to the preschool teachers are more suitable or preferable for education/teaching in the field of intercultural education. Most of the

preschool teachers (N=31) indicated “seminars organized by the Education and Teacher Training Agency,” then the “Regional Professional Advisory Meetings” (N=24), followed by the “ self-training “ (N=26) and “seminars and workshops organized by faculty of master’s studies” (N=20). The lowest score in relation to all forms of professional life-long training indicated by the interviewed subjects obtained the answer “seminars of non-governmental organizations” (N=15). From the results obtained we can deduce that the forms considered most suitable for the professional life-long training of preschool teachers in the field of teaching and intercultural education are the seminars organized by the Education and Teacher Training Agency, as well as Regional Professional Advisory Meetings and self- training. Interestingly, according to the interviewees, the seminars and workshops organized by the faculty of master’s studies are not entirely suitable forms of professional life-long training for teachers in the field of intercultural education. The forms of professional life-long training for intercultural education should be of an active / interactive and participatory type in order to avoid fostering indifference and developing a simplistic mentality that favor the survival of negative stereotypes and prejudices.

To the question “to what extent are the following skills of the preschool teacher in intercultural education desirable”, it is interesting to note that five skills were evaluated with the same percentage (N=36) by the subjects, and these are: “knowing how to solve conflicts peacefully “; “be able to apply active teaching methods and strategies”; “being able to perceive problems from the point of view of children”; “be motivated to pursue life-long training and updating”; “being open to cultural diversity (intercultural sensitivity)”. However, the competences that are profoundly important in intercultural education are “being sensitive to discrimination” (N=37) and “knowing how to work in a team” (N=37). Preschool teachers value “communication skills” (N=35) as equally very important, as they represent a necessity of our time to overcome ethnic, religious, linguistic and national borders, and to prevent conflicts, but above all because a preschool teacher must possess the ability of mediation, interpretation, critical and analytical understanding of one’s own and others’ culture, moreover, possess a verbal and non-verbal communicative competence to promote the principles and values of intercultural education, but also of civic education. Interestingly, preschool teachers do not consider that “having a critical approach towards

social events” (N=28) is a competence of utmost importance, even if this competence is indicated in the Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council as of December 18th 2006, in the context of social and civic competences - “personal, interpersonal and intercultural competences that allow an individual to participate effectively, critically and constructively in social and working life”.

Moreover, we wanted to find out which obstacles occur during the implementation of intercultural education in preschools. The content that intercultural education aims to create is not implemented due to “insufficient motivation of preschool teachers to create intercultural education contents” (N=15), followed by “lack of relative professional bibliography” (N=13) and “absence of the obligation to implement intercultural education in quarterly planning” (N=10). We can conclude that one of major obstacles to the implementation of intercultural education in preschool institutions is the insufficient motivation of the educators to create contents of intercultural education. One of the possible causes could perhaps be the lack of relative professional bibliography, as evident from above, or insufficient training in this field because probably no seminars or activities are organized focusing on interculturality contents where preschool teachers would address certain topics on interculturality as creation, planning, design and how to them out with the children.

Finally, the preschool teachers were asked to indicate, according to their opinion and experience, the best activities that could be used to promote content on intercultural education. For most of subjects, intercultural education could start from “various recreational and social activities” (N=29) that take place daily in the group. No less important are also “practical activities with case studies” (direct contact between children belonging to different cultures or lifestyles) with which (N=27) of the interviewed teachers agree as well as “the various artistic-literary activities” (N=11). On the other hand, eleven (N=11) of the subjects consider “motor activities” important to be introduced in the educational practice for the implementation of intercultural education. It should be noted that according to Desinan (1997), motor activities, rhythmic games and various forms of direct physical contact should be promoted and supported in various ways to improve the knowledge about the “otherness”. However, we can conclude that it is through practical, play or motor activities that preschool teachers

try to make children acquainted with diversity and bring diversity closer to them in a practical and easily acceptable way. Indeed, “active methodologies favor the use of multiple intelligences and a balanced development of the individual activating the emotional and bodily sphere as well as the cognitive one” (Favaro & Luatti, 2009, p. 151).

CONCLUSION

The aim of the research was to verify preschool teachers' competences such as knowledge, opinions, attitudes towards intercultural education, and difficulties regarding the implementation of intercultural education in preschool institutions. Considering the data collected, it was concluded that for interviewed preschool teachers it is important to introduce intercultural education in preschool institutions since the values that intercultural education promotes are essential in developing the child's personality, but also of the adults who have the task of being sensitive and competent as far as the multicultural reality we live in is concerned. Therefore, intercultural education is essential for a democratic and culturally pluralistic culture, and the task of preschool teachers is to promote the values of diversity not only throughout the educational system but also and above all in everyday life.

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INTERKULTURALNE KOMPETENCIJE ODGOJITELJA U PROMICANJU INTERKULTURALIZMA

SAŽETAK

Glavni cilj rada “Interkulturalne kompetencije odgojitelja u promicanju interkulturalizma” ogleda se u važnosti odgojitelja u prenošenju i promicanju ne samo novih saznanja, već posebno vrijednosti interkulturalizma putem različitih aktivnosti. Interkulturalni odgoj u predškolskim ustanovama je od posebnog značaja za oblikovanje budućih mladih generacija koje trebaju biti odgojene u duhu različitosti, međusobne interakcije i dijaloga, kako bi različitost shvatile i cijenile kao ljudsko bogatstvo. Temeljni cilj istraživanja bio je utvrditi stupanj interkulturalne kompetencije odgojitelja u predškolskim ustanovama. Na temelju dobivenih podataka možemo zaključiti da su odgojiteljice dobro upoznate s pojmom, ciljevima i vrijednostima interkulturalizma. Isto tako, većina njih mišljenja je da bi interkulturalni sadržaji trebali biti sastavni dio programa predškolskih ustanova jer interkulturalni odgoj doprinosi ne samo boljem poznavanju drugih kultura, već je njegova vrijednost u promicanju jednakosti, uvažavanja, otvorenosti i prihvaćanja.

Ključne riječi: interkulturalizam, interkulturalna kompetencija, interkulturalni odgoj, vrtić, odgojiteljice

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KINDERGARTEN WEBSITES IN THE TIME OF COVID-19

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ABSTRACT

The COVID-19 virus has greatly altered life as we knew it. Closure of early childhood and preschool education institutions has resulted in utilizing potentials that have not been used so far. These institutions have been faced with new challenges and given the incentive to modernize and actively engage in the digital environment. One of the digital potentials are certainly kindergarten websites. Previous communication between the kindergarten administration and parents as secondary users took place via websites, which offered informative content. The primary users, children, were not at all involved in this communication. The COVID-19 virus made kindergartens rethink this process, and they have started devising new ways of using technology and kindergarten websites. The creation of web content is now involving kindergarten teachers and professional associates, but also parents, who are asked to send pictures of children's activities in the family home, as well as their art and other products of their creativity. The offered content has an educational significance and can be compared to online teaching content. Website administrators are creating a new theme that includes content for children. The content can be found under various names, of which *Kindergarten from Home*, is most frequent.

This paper provides an analysis of web content gathered from 60 kindergartens in the City of Zagreb and an overview of the pilot project of 3rd year Early Childhood and Preschool Education students at the Faculty of Teacher Education, Department of Petrinja.

Keywords: online learning, collaboration, digital competencies kindergarten teacher, preschool

INTRODUCTION

The Internet can be viewed through the prism of many areas and has a strong impact on our lifestyle and culture of living. Digital content is responsible for the positive as well as the negative context of the development of changes in society and has a direct and indirect impact on people and their lives (Kunštek, 2007). Access to all information about individual early childhood and preschool education institutions is provided through their websites. According to Burnett & Marshall (2003), websites are understood as new forms of informational progress of society which implies different types of work and knowledge. The appearance of the COVID-19 virus has caused major changes in the way work is organized in all areas, including education. Having recognized the importance and their responsibility towards the educational process in the current situation, UNESCO (2020) has provided a list of educational applications, platforms and resources aimed at helping parents, kindergarten, and other teachers to ensure interaction and social contacts during this period of isolation. Early childhood and preschool education are not mandatory in the Republic of Croatia, and it includes children from 6 months to 6 years of age. One year before the child starts school, he or she is obliged to attend preschool as a compulsory part of education. Children aged 6 and older who are not included in the regular program of early childhood and preschool education must enroll in education lasting 250 hours in the school year prior to starting primary school. The *Preschool* program is realized in early childhood and preschool education institutions, where kindergarten teachers are the educators in the above-mentioned program as per the National Curriculum for Early Childhood and Preschool Education (MZOS, 2014). In exceptional cases, the program can be realized in primary school classrooms with the teacher as the implementor of the program. This is most often the situation in rural areas, where there are no opportunities to organize the program within the early childhood and preschool education institutions. Regardless of the location, there is a need to consider including early childhood and preschool education into online learning.

The flexibility of the system becomes increasingly obvious in the current situation, and its ability to adapt is particularly visible in the acceptance of novelties, the inclusion, and use of existing resources in new ways.

WEBSITES FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD AND PRESCHOOL EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN THE CITY OF ZAGREB

All city institutions for early childhood and preschool education in the City of Zagreb had the obligation to register and activate their websites by 2014 (Grad Zagreb, 2014). Their purpose was to inform existing and future users of the institution's services. The role of websites was to provide information, including various documents, decisions, laws, menus, employee names, contacts, and other. This communication was one-way, with no possibility of user participation outside the domain of the administrator. The time lag brings supplementation of the content by the documentation of the education process, such as photography and children's art, as well as the advice of professional associates from various fields.

The situation caused by the COVID-19 virus has contributed to the increased use of institutional websites as a central place for providing information related to the organization of work (Anderson, 2020). On kindergarten websites, parents can find all information on the functioning of the systems prescribed by the Civil Protection Headquarters, the Ministry of Science and Education, the City Office for Early Childhood and Preschool Education as an employer of city kindergartens in the City of Zagreb, and the Kindergarten Administration. The closure of institutions made the communication between the institution and the parents more difficult, and which is why the kindergarten teachers are being motivated to use social networks and other communication services (Rogulj, 2018). The teachers are now registering new private profiles on Facebook, creating groups on WhatsApp and Viber, thus opening a new dimension in the development of a collaborative relationship (partnership) with parents. In this way, continuity and a social component is achieved, which is extremely important in maintaining the established relationship with parents. All of the above speaks in favour of the fact that kindergarten websites are exclusively parent-oriented and that children do not have the opportunity to participate in this process.

ICT IN EDUCATION

Educational institutions have a significant educational role in the childhood of each child. By being unable to attend these institutions, children are being deprived of their right to education, especially those children who have one year before they start primary school, since this year is mandatory and is counted as the zero year of compulsory education in the Republic of Croatia. With the cessation of regular work in institutions, a need arose to reorganize the educational process aimed at children (Luthra & MacKenzie, 2020). Digitalization of humanity unquestionably imposes the need for organization of online education in institutions, especially in times of the COVID-19 contagion.

There are two streams when it comes to digitalization in the education system; one stream represents digital technology idealistically (Prensky, 2005; Tapscott, 2011), while digital skeptics cite the negative effects of digital technology (Keen, 2010; Carr, 2011). However, the situation caused by the COVID-19 virus prioritizes online education.

The entire education system is turning to digital resources that make educational content accessible from home. The term *Kindergarten from Home* integrates the concepts of *kindergarten* and *home* into one whole, giving insight into the changing location where the educational process takes place. The relocation of kindergartens into the home environment imposes the need for flexible changes in the concept of educational work and the problematization of digitalization of activities for children of early and preschool age. The acquisition of new knowledge via web is based on asynchronous and synchronous learning models. In the current situation, the most common is the asynchronous model in which there is no contact between the kindergarten teachers and children. With their parents, children can download certain content from the website without the direct influence of the teacher in real time. According to Mayer (2005), this model of active acquisition of new knowledge includes directing attention to relevant information and integrating new knowledge with the previous knowledge.

The implementation of various multimedia in education is based on new information technologies, which, along with a quality infrastructure, requires development in digital competencies of kindergarten teachers (UNESCO, 2020). To create quality multimedia materials, besides

kindergarten teachers, programmers and designers are needed, because in addition to knowledge of technology, didactic and methodical design of content is crucial (Juric & Peša Pavlović, 2019). All of the above requires some preparation and planning, which has been hindered by the current pandemic. Therefore, the flexibility of teachers who turned to their digital competencies and reacted accordingly is invaluable.

ANALYSIS OF KINDERGARTEN WEBSITES

The City Office for Education, Culture and Sports, with the Professional Service of the Mayor (2014), merged the websites of all 60 kindergartens in the City of Zagreb from 16 city districts.

The aim of this research is to analyse the design and content of kindergarten websites during lockdown due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Special attention was directed to the analysis of content intended for children. The research was conducted using a content analysis methodology (Opić, 2016).

The design of a kindergarten website is a free choice of each individual kindergarten, and they could choose among four different interfaces. For the purposes of this paper, they were marked with A, B, C, and D, the difference being in the way the content is organized on the website, access to information, and visual identity. The design of website A is represented in 23 kindergartens, making it the most popular design choice (Figure 1). The second most frequently represented interface is interface B, represented in 20 kindergartens (Figure 2). Only 9 kindergartens opted for the option C (Figure 3), and only 8 kindergartens have a website as shown in Figure 4, or option D. The choice of interface itself can provide some information about the kindergarten management that is the administrator of the website and their view on the importance of design. Home pages of A and B websites have a modern design that allows clarity and easier access to information. C and D websites have a slightly worse and somewhat outdated interface, which is reflected in the lack of clarity and difficulty in browsing for information.

Figure 1. Website Design A

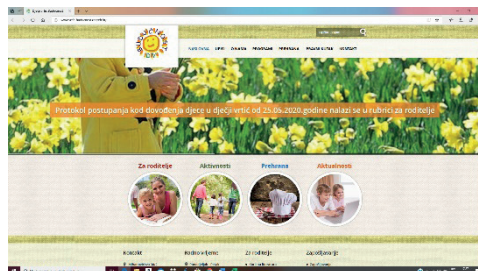


Figure 2. Website Design B

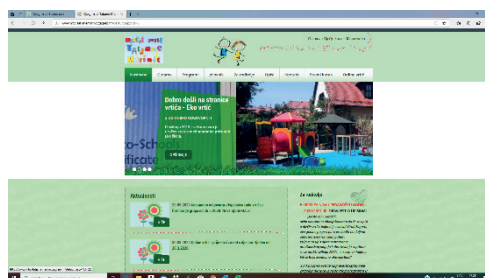


Figure 3. Website Design C

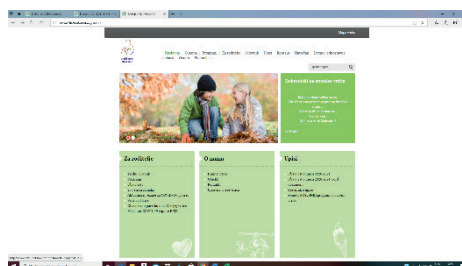
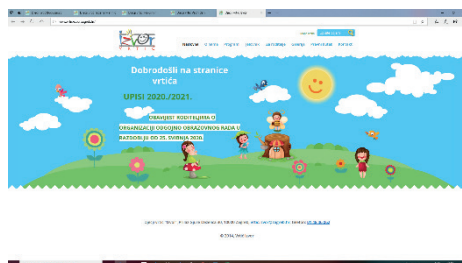


Figure 4. Website Design D



The aim of browsing the websites was to find COVID-19 related content. All kindergartens have published information regarding the organization of educational work, i.e., the suspension of regular activities and the organization of on-call duty. In addition to the current information, kindergartens have provided notifications from the services from the City Office for Education, the Ministry of Science and Education, and the Civil Protection Headquarters with the recommendations for conduct. In additions to the recommendations of organizations in charge, some kindergartens use their own professional associates to design various tips for parents and their actions in a crisis. In the initial phase of isolation, the information was parent-oriented and did not include content for children. The communication between parents and teachers is emphasized only on one kindergarten website where it is stated that it is possible to communicate via e-mail.

With the prolongation of the situation that conditions the isolation of the population in their homes, a need arises to organize online educational content for which the kindergarten websites are used. For this purpose, new spaces are being opened on websites, named in 25 different ways. The most commonly used name is *Kindergarten from Home* – 10 cases, then *Long Distance Kindergarten* – 4 kindergartens, *Kindergarten in the Home* was used by 3 kindergartens, *Online Kindergarten* also 3 kindergartens. Two kindergartens are using the name *Kindergarten at Home* and *Educational Work*. The remaining 35 kindergartens use one of the combinations which emphasize that this is where you can find content for the children, designed for the needs of the current situation caused by the virus. One kindergarten even personalized the name of the content according to the name of the kindergarten, so the content is located under the title *Sopot Kids at Home*.

158

The concept of content organization within a website differs from one kindergarten to another. Some kindergartens are oriented towards designing content for all children in one place N=23, or as per facilities or locations of the kindergarten N=18. The third most common concept refers to the placement of the content according to the age of children N=13, and the next concept of content organization is meant only for a certain group and teachers who work in the same group N=6. The time continuity of the additions to the new content does not appear to be a measurable element,

except for N=4 kindergartens that supplement their website with new content on a weekly basis.

Web content intended for children who attend the kindergarten in question is in N=59 cases written in a Word document, while one of the kindergartens does not have any children-related content. Word documents bring texts with ideas for different activities, which requires a great deal of parental involvement. In addition to the text itself, there are often (N=32) different links to specific pages that provide ideas for activities with children. Only in N=10 cases do kindergartens post recordings of activities that took place in previous years, such as *Let's Take a Child to the Theater*, recent recordings of teacher activities that tackle environmental issues, recycling, and reading picture books. In two cases there are PowerPoint presentations of child-friendly content. Several kindergartens use digital tools such as Word Wall, Jigsaw Planet, Padlet, Kahoot, Memory Game and Book Widgets. The content created using the above tools includes various games, puzzles that need to be solved, and other. This content is meant for children of a certain age, motivating them to sit in front of digital devices. This is very reminiscent of online teaching methods used for primary and secondary school children.

This brings up the problem of children attending regular 10-hour programs or children attending only the Preschool program. That one year before starting school is mandatory, thus facing institutions with an obligation to prepare the children for the process of transition from kindergarten to school. Only 50% of kindergartens (i.e., 30 of them) have a separate section for that population on their website. This content is largely reminiscent of *schoolification*. It requires the involvement of adults who need to read the task to the child, who will then approach its solving. There are a lot of pre-reading activities, activities for the development of fine motor skills, and hand-eye coordination, but mostly all of them include sitting a child in front of a computer. Because of the compulsory education system, it is important to consider how to define content that will, in specific conditions, ensure the best preparation for children starting school. The organization of online classes for this age group needs to be adjusted as much as possible to the developmental characteristics of that age group.

AN EXAMPLE OF GOOD PRACTICE

While reviewing the Zagreb kindergarten websites and their content, a question arose about how to realize methodological exercises of students of the Faculty of Teacher Education in the course Methodology of Learning About Environment 2. Third year students (Early Childhood and Preschool Education) have planned the activities in accordance with the National Curriculum and modern guidelines. These activities were based on developmental areas: cognitive, socio-emotional, creativity, rhetoric, and motor skills. After considering and respecting all the important guidelines, the students recorded and edited the content using various schools, to make the content as attractive as possible for the children. Using the recordings, the students addressed the children directly, guiding them through a certain activity. This way, children could, with clear instructions, prepare and realize an activity on their own, following the recording (Figures 5 and 6). This type of activity enabled the children to carry out the activities as if they were really in kindergarten, independently and without their parents who were busy working from home.

Figure 5. *Making modeling clay*

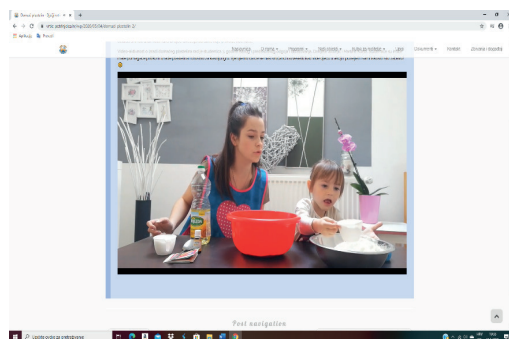
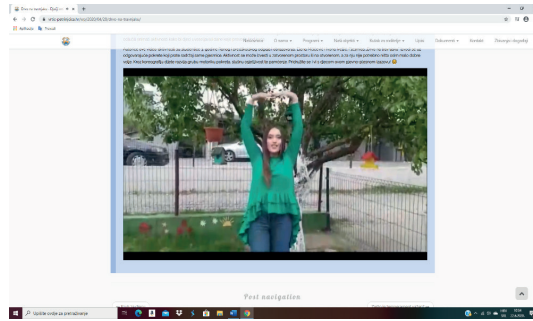


Figure 6. *Movement song A Tree on the Lawn*



Guided by the students via ICT, children were able to enjoy various activities that motivated them to move, encouraged their creativity, practical skills, and cognition. It is important to mention the realization of a secondary social contact between children and students, the only possible contact in the current situation, which is extremely important for the children. The activities planned and implemented in this way emphasize the importance of ICTs in enabling remote activities. Digital technology is a powerful tool and an intermediary between the content and its realization in real space.

The quality of students' implementation of activities encouraged a collaboration with the DV Petrinjčica (2020) Kindergarten, who readily accepted to post activity recordings on the kindergarten's website.

CONCLUSION

Institutions for early childhood and preschool education in the Zagreb have once again shown a great deal of flexibility, readiness, and motivation of kindergarten teachers in their professional work. When the regular work of institutions was stopped, kindergarten teachers recognized the need to expand the way they operate and include ICT in the system itself. The fact that, before the onset of COVID-19, ICT was not present in the regular work of teachers, emphasizes their adaptability as well as the ability to recognize and use the opportunities that digital technology provides in the communication and education.

Involving students in the creation of web content indicates the possibilities and potentials that need to be encouraged in new generations. Mutual collaboration of all participants in the educational process will

contribute to its modernization. The pilot project laid a quality foundation and a starting point for creating new web content. Project development can be a stimulus for new research that will have an impact on improving practice in the digital environment.

Thanks to ICTs, the kindergarten briefly entered children's homes, and in this way *kindergarten and home* became *Kindergarten from Home*.

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MREŽNE STRANICE DJEČJIH VRTIĆA U VRIJEME EPIDEMIJE COVID-19

SAŽETAK

Virus COVID-19 uvelike je izmijenio način života koji je bio poznati do sada. Zatvaranjem odgojno-obrazovnih ustanova za djecu rane i predškolske dobi za posljedicu je imalo aktiviranje potencijala koji nisu bili korišteni do sada. Pred ustanove postavljeni su novi izazovi te poticaj da krenu u osuvremenjivanje i aktivno uključivanje u digitalno okruženje. Jedan od digitalnih potencijala svakako su web portali dječjih vrtića. Dosadašnja komunikacija između uprave vrtića i roditelja kao sekundarnih korisnika odvijala se putem web portala, a njihov sadržaj bio je informativnog karaktera. U toj komunikaciji, primarni korisnici odnosno djeca nisu bili uključeni. Upravo virus COVID-19 donosi veliku promjenu te vrtići osmišljavaju nove načine korištenja digitalne tehnologije odnosno web stranica vrtića. Novonastala situacija ponukala je vrtiće da krenu u osmišljavanje sadržaja koji će djeci olakšati dane u izolaciji. U kreiranje web sadržaja uključili su se odgojitelji, stručni suradnici iz matičnih vrtića te su pozvali roditelje da participiraju u obogaćivanju sadržaja web stranice, slanjem snimkama aktivnosti djece u obiteljskom domu i dječjih radovima. Ponuđeni sadržaji imaju odgojno-obrazovni značaj te se mogu komparirati sa sadržajima online nastave. Administratori web portala kreiraju novu temu koja uključuje sadržaje za djecu. Sadržaji se mogu pronaći pod različitim nazivima, od kojih je *Vrtić od kuće*, najzastupljeniji. Ovaj rad donosi analizu sadržaja web stranica 60 dječjih vrtića Grada Zagreba te pregled pilot projekt studenata 3. godine RPOO Učiteljskog fakulteta Odsjeka u Petrinji.

THE CHALLENGES OF TRANSDISCIPLINARITY IN MITIGATING THE STIGMATIZATION OF STUDENTS WITH DEVELOPMENTAL DISABILITIES

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ABSTRACT

Our research results have shown that the reform of education, coupled with the introduction of inclusion in secondary schools for the purpose of full integration of children with developmental disabilities into peer groups, has led to certain difficulties, one of them being the stigmatization of students with developmental disabilities. The evidence of the existence of stigmatization is based on direct observations in the course of work with high school students.

The transdisciplinary approach implies integrative cooperation of several disciplines, which leads to qualitatively new knowledge. That knowledge may be used for solving relevant social issues, to which stigmatization certainly belongs.

The aim of this paper is to critically consider the possibilities of applying transdisciplinarity in reducing the stigmatization of students with disabilities and anticipating the challenges that may arise in the implementation of such an endeavor.

The conclusion is that transdisciplinarity offers the possibility of a complete understanding of the phenomenon of stigmatization and a chance to alleviate stigmatization, but that this approach also poses many challenges, such as a narrow disciplinary view of the problem, conceptual inconsistency, and disciplinary vanity.

Keywords: transdisciplinarity, stigmatization, education, inclusion, survey research

INITIAL CONSIDERATION

Starting from the assumption of a constant change in social circumstances, the requirements that scientific research must follow those changes are quite understandable. However, it seems that science is lagging behind those processes, one of the reasons being the prevailing tendency of scientific disciplines to blindly adhere to old approaches, entrenched dogmas, and authorities. The scientists generally remain resignedly entrenched in the frameworks of their own respective disciplines, piously committed to their principles and methods, unprepared to step outside the defined field. Due to the awareness of the gap between science and the world, a new theoretical perspective, called transdisciplinarity, arose in academic circles in the 1970s. The manifesto of this movement carries a messianic note imbued with strong optimism, according to which all the complexity of the world can be grasped through a new synthetic approach and many socially relevant issues resolved on the basis of this knowledge. On the other hand, a number of authors have wondered how much of this fervent faith is based on valid arguments, and to what extent it is merely an expression of the need for scientific achievements not to remain but useless deposits on the dusty shelves of university libraries. Even today, some 50 years after its conception, numerous debates on the real scope of this direction are still being raised in academic circles, in which authors with an idolatrous attitude still seem to take precedence. Although the practical applicability of transdisciplinarity seems indisputable, it is necessary to point out that a realistic picture of its scope can only be obtained through critical consideration.

SUBJECT AND GOAL OF THE PAPER

167

The aim of this paper is to consider the possibility of applying a transdisciplinary approach to reducing the stigmatization of students with disabilities, but also to consider possible difficulties in applying this approach.

METHODOLOGY

This paper is of theoretical nature and represents a kind of plan for the implementation of a concrete (practical) procedure for alleviating stigmatization. The methodological approach is based on critical consideration of the possibilities but above all of the challenges that may arise in the practical application of transdisciplinarity.

WORK STRUCTURE

The first part of the paper will define the concepts of transdisciplinarity, stigma, and stigmatization, the second part will present the author's personal observations on the stigmatization of students with disabilities, and the third will present possible challenges in trying a transdisciplinary approach to reduce the stigma of this category of students by their peers.

TRANSDISCIPLINARITY

Dealing with transdisciplinarity, we must inevitably look back at attempts to define it as precisely as possible. "Transdisciplinary learning is the research of a relevant issue or problem that integrates the perspectives of several disciplines (and sectors) in order to connect new knowledge and deeper understanding with real-life experiences." (Kompar, 2009, p. 1). Some authors state that "transdisciplinary orientations in research, education, and institutions try to overcome the mismatch between the production of knowledge in academia and the knowledge needed to solve social problems." (Hirsch & Hoffmann-Riem, 2008, p. 3). It is often defined as the involvement of non-academic stakeholders in the knowledge production process (Scholz & Steiner, 2015) or as a form of deep knowledge created by merging basic disciplinary knowledge with knowledge from the experiential world (Rogers & Berg, 2009).

Although this list of definitions could be expanded, it would still not be able to cover all the complexities of transdisciplinarity. We can freely say that any attempt to reduce transdisciplinarity to one definition or one perspective would render its basic reflective requirement meaningless – i.e. the need for constant re-examination and redefinition of concepts and phenomena of reality.

Although the distinction between the disciplinary and the transdisciplinarity approach is largely clear, it is often not easy to distinguish between transdisciplinarity and similar approaches: interdisciplinarity and multidisciplinarity. Distinguishing between transdisciplinarity and similar approaches, Sue L.T. Mc Gregor states that “multidisciplinary learning involves the participation of more than one discipline without integration, and interdisciplinary participation involves more than one discipline with integration” (Mc Gregor, 2013, p. 3). Klein J. and Newell W. define interdisciplinarity as “solving a problem or dealing with a topic that is too broad and complex for one discipline or profession to adequately address it” (Klein & Newell, 1998, p. 393–394). The definition of National Academies is largely similar: “Interdisciplinary research is a way of researching teams or individuals that integrates information, data (...), perspectives and theories from two or more disciplines with their specialized knowledge to advance fundamental understanding or problem-solving. disciplines or fields of research practice. Research is interdisciplinary when it is not just a combination of two disciplines to create one product, but the integration and synthesis of ideas and methods” (National Academy of Science, 2005, p. 26–27). It is often stated that interdisciplinarity is related to the engagement of non-academic parties in considering an issue or solving a social problem, while transdisciplinary has an interest in producing knowledge of academic nature and its practical implications (Repko & Szostak, 2020).

Unlike the interdisciplinary and the transdisciplinary approach, multidisciplinarity simply combines those insights without trying to integrate them. Multidisciplinarity is also less likely to critically assess the insights it relies on. As can be seen, this endeavor of conceptually separating transdisciplinarity and similar directions is not at all easy and there is every chance that there are no clear boundaries. It is evident, however, based on all of the above, that the transdisciplinary perspective is much closer to interdisciplinarity than to multidisciplinarity. In the literature, holism stands out as the *sui generis* determinant of the said perspective and refers not only to integration, but to overcoming, upgrading, and a qualitative substitution of knowledge. It integrates knowledge from different disciplines, thus creating a new property that is more than the arithmetic sum of the disciplines themselves.

Summarized in a few sentences, it can be said that transdisciplinary learning has four characteristics:

- a) it refers to socially relevant issues
- b) it transcends and integrates disciplinary paradigms
- c) it includes participatory research with those affected by a particular social problem
- e) it implies a deep need for unity of knowledge (Pohl, 2011).

STIGMA

The story of stigma dates back to antiquity. Stigma was known to the ancient Greeks as a mark, a brand, a body mark designed to emphasize what is bad in terms of the moral status of the marked person. The marks were cut or created by burning certain places on the body, thus showing that that person was to be avoided. For ancient Greeks, slaves, criminals, and traitors were such people (Gofman, 2009, p. 13). Unlike antiquity, there are no explicit indications of embarrassment today. Knowledge about stigma is formed in social interaction – based on the information that fluctuates in the social environment or visible signs indicating that a person possesses socially discrediting traits (disability, unusual behavior). In essence, stigma is an irrational view according to which the bearer of the stigma is a less valuable and unworthy person or, as Hoffman states, “a person with a stigma is not a human being” (Gofman, 2009, p. 17).

Although all societies are familiar with stigma, its content-related property differs among societies, cultures, and epochs. If we stick to this fact, it becomes clear that stigma is socially constructed. If we look at any human characteristic, we will notice that it is a potential subject to stigmatization depending on the spirit of the time and the dominant value system.

The problem with stigmatization is that it contains elements of stereotypes, prejudices, and discrimination. Perhaps the most socially harmful component is the discriminatory one. In stigmatization, it manifests itself as partial or complete avoidance of contact with the stigmatized person. The experiences of persons who have been exposed to such public treatment speak of devastating consequences on those persons' psycho-physical health (Major, Dovidio & Link, 2018). In this regard, stigma can

be viewed as an extremely antihumanist, undemocratic, and uncivilized phenomenon, because the human dignity and moral value of one person are completely neglected.

However, the problem of stigmatization becomes even greater when its “victims” are young people. In the context of secondary education, it is quite realistic to assume that these are students who deviate from the standard with their characteristics (cognitive or emotional). One should also bear in mind that although it may seem that in the era of tolerance heavily propagated by the media and the educational system the stigmatizing impulse has lost its power, that is not the case. Backward cultural forms are still firmly established (especially in the Balkans) in which diversity is not seen as a potential but as an occasion for condemnation and rejection or as a source of peril from which one should stay away.

INCLUSIVE EDUCATION AND STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES

The introduction of inclusive education in secondary schools has made progress in the integration of students with disabilities¹. Students from that group developed a sense of belonging and self-esteem and improved their communication skills. However, differences among students still exist and it is impossible to ignore them. It is difficult to hide lower extremity disability, deafness, or intellectual disabilities, all of which are reasons why this minority of students is exposed to stigmatization by their peers. The process of stigmatization implies subtle, sophisticated, barely noticeable indicators that are expressed in ambiguous comments, body language, and distancing.

The chances for mitigating stigmatization are in considering the sociological and psychological aspects of its occurrence, which calls for the transdisciplinary approach. The target group would consist of students who have daily social interactions with students with developmental disabilities. The transdisciplinary team would consist of professors of sociology, psychology, pedagogy, a pediatrician, and representatives of the non-

1 The data refers to schools in the Republic of Serbia

governmental sector. The role of the psychologist would be to help students enjoy the role of a stigmatized person and see all the social difficulties of stigmatization through emotional experience. It would be pointed out that certain physical characteristics of an individual have nothing to do with their intellectual abilities or moral qualities. The sociological approach would imply drawing attention to the strength of society's value attitudes and the tendency to accept them without critical re-examination. It would be emphasized that cultural patterns often encourage a negative emotional attitude towards certain categories of individuals. An emphasis would be placed on the socially constructed nature of stigma and the assumption that certain characteristics of individuals are subject to different interpretations depending on the prevailing discourse of a particular time. The role of the pediatrician would be to help students understand that many health conditions are the result of unexplained circumstances, parental negligence, or past illnesses that could not be influenced. From the point of view of pedagogy, it would be insisted on establishing better relations within the class as a benefit for each student individually. The role of the NGO representatives would be to use media content to point out the importance of tolerant relations within the department. In that way, the students would complete the mosaic picture of the phenomenon of stigma and stigmatization, understand their nature and create the possibility for its mitigation. However, what could be the obstacles to such an approach? In our opinion, they would stem from the very nature of transdisciplinarity – its symbiotic structure, which, no matter how valuable, can be a bulky work that slows down the achievement of desired goals.

CHALLENGES OF TRANSDISCIPLINARITY

172

In this section, we will identify and present the most basic challenges of applying transdisciplinarity.

One of the problems is the huge amount of theory with minimal layers of practice. Aristotle also saw the purpose of scientific research in the inner satisfaction of researchers (Aristotel, 1988). Although transdisciplinarity is defined as the use of theoretical knowledge to solve practical questions, it still seems that the ancient Aristotelian postulate “knowledge for knowledge's sake” does not lose its relevance and seduces researchers even today. The

theory is full of considerations with few practical attempts to draw clear conclusions about the application of transdisciplinarity.

Another difficulty is that the current literature does not offer a clear definition of what is meant by transdisciplinarity. Researchers are still pretty much in the dark in that regard, without a clear picture of the theoretical framework, methodological tools, and conceptual-terminological arsenal.

The impossibility of overcoming a narrow disciplinary worldview can also be a problem. "How to step out of the narrowly disciplinary perspective of observing reality?" is certainly one of the questions that arise. Disciplinary researchers think, speak, and act differently because they belong to different thought collectives (Fleck et al., 1986). This requires a reflexive insight into one's own philosophical perspectives. Everyone involved in a transdisciplinary project must ask themselves about the ontological value of their own perception of the problem, and that requires relativizing their own and accepting different perspectives as equally important. Only then can the process of true transdisciplinary communication begin.

There is also the issue of conceptual inconsistency. Each science has a number of specifically disciplinary terms that describe reality and its various aspects, and their meanings vary from one scientific discipline to another. The notion of epistemology can serve as an example. While in philosophy this is one of the fundamental terms, in psychology and sociology its meaning is too broad and is mostly used as a synonym for cognition. It is similar to many other concepts, such as the concepts of personality or individual, the difference being that psychology attaches the greatest importance to those concepts, while in sociology and philosophy they are peripheral.

A similar challenge can be the emergence of the so-called "mishmash of concepts". Each scientific discipline brings its own conceptual arsenal into teamwork, which can result in an overly extensive conceptual-terminological corpus. The solution is to use operational definitions or everyday language while avoiding scientific expressions. Unfortunately, that is not a perfect solution either, because everyday language is ambiguous and contextualized (Pohl & Hadorn, 2008). Therefore, the harmonization of common perspectives, terms, and concepts is one of the key requirements of transdisciplinarity.

Factors that could hinder full cooperation can also be of psychological nature: a possible lack of interest of certain members of the team to participate

in the work, but also the appearance of disciplinary vanity. Redefining and harmonizing concepts and accepting a different perspective would be difficult for some to accept despite the awareness that it is precisely what transdisciplinarity implies. Stepping out of a narrow, strictly disciplinary perspective of looking at the causes of a phenomenon can sometimes be too much for some of the participants.

The emergence of power relations on a micro-level could also be expected. The awareness that in one constellation of relationships a colleague has more knowledge, that they successfully impose their opinion or build a reputation within the team, can be a hindering factor.

CONCLUSION

Based on all of the above, it is clear that one of the key challenges of transdisciplinarity is the establishment of better relations within the team, the suppression of professional arrogance, and the harmonization of different perspectives into one harmonious whole. All this leads us to the conclusion that many more challenges await transdisciplinarity in the future. At the same time, it is indisputable that transdisciplinary synergy provides the possibility of resolving certain socially relevant issues. However, here we could ask a few questions about the real scope of transdisciplinarity, such as Does such a project of disciplinary integration really contribute to knowledge? What do we get as results and how much scientific weight do they have? Is the application of transdisciplinarity in all areas more fruitful than a “narrow disciplinary approach”? Perhaps more than anything, we have to ask ourselves whether this is not just an outgrowth of the modern scientific utopianism which, through demands for cooperation and respect for different points of view, erases disciplinary identities and creates a diluted methodological conglomerate. If the representatives of this movement are to be believed, the motives are indisputably humane – the desire to solve burning social and global challenges, but it is extremely questionable to what extent all those praises about transdisciplinarity are based on solid and realistic foundations.

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IZAZOVI TRANSDISCIPLINARNOSTI U UBLAŽAVANJU STIGMATIZACIJE UČENIKA SA SMETNJAMA U RAZVOJU

SAŽETAK

Rezultati našeg istraživanja pokazuju da su reforma obrazovanja i uvođenje inkluzije u srednje škole radi potpune integracije dece sa smetnjama u razvoju u vršnjačku grupu doveli do određenih poteškoća od kojih je jedna stigmatizacija učenika sa smetnjama u razvoju. Dokazi o postojanju stigmatizacije zasnovani su na direktnim opažanjima tokom rada sa srednjoškolcima.

Transdisciplinarni pristup podrazumeva integrativnu saradnju više disciplina, što dovodi do kvalitativno novih znanja. To znanje se može koristiti za rešavanje relevantnih društvenih pitanja, kojima stigmatizacija svakako pripada.

Cilj ovog rada je kritičko razmatranje mogućnosti primene transdisciplinarnosti u smanjenju stigmatizacije učenika sa smetnjama u razvoju i predviđanje izazova koji se mogu pojaviti pri takvom poduhvatu.

Zaključak je da transdisciplinarnost nudi mogućnost potpunog razumevanja fenomena stigmatizacije i šansu za njeno ublažavanje, ali da istovremeno otvara mnoge izazove, poput uskog disciplinarnog pogleda na problem, konceptualne nedoslednosti i disciplinarne taštine.

Ključne riječi: transdisciplinarnost, stigmatizacija, obrazovanje, inkluzija, anketno istraživanje

THE ROLE OF A SELF-REFLECTIVE DIARY IN STIMULATING PEDAGOGUES' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE DOMAIN OF COOPERATION WITH FAMILIES

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, a self-reflective diary refers to written documentation of one's own understandings of professional reality and activities in this reality, directed toward one's own self-education and upgrading the quality of one's personal pedagogical practice.

The objective of this paper is to describe the role a self-reflective diary can have in stimulating pedagogues' professional development in the domain of cooperation with families, done through the theoretical elaboration of the importance of self-reflection in the pedagogical profession and presentation of the original framework of a self-reflective diary focused on cooperation between pedagogues and families. The concluding part of the paper discusses the possibilities of wider application of the diary in the context of pedagogues' (self-)education for cooperation with families.

Keywords: reflective practice, (self-)education, professional development, a partnership between family and educational institution

INTRODUCTION: PREPARING PEDAGOGUES FOR THEIR COOPERATION WITH FAMILIES

Cooperation between the family and the educational institution is a complex relation defined by various cultural and contextual factors, one of which is societal expectations from the parental role. More than ever before, today's parents are being perceived to be responsible for intensive stimulation and coordination of their child's development, where just seemingly incompatible processes of familialization and institutionalization of childhood are at work, described in detail by Ule et al. (2015, pp. 331-332), pointing out the following:

- » Familialization means that children are understood as their parents' responsibility and are increasingly located as supervised sons and daughters in the home and conceptualized in terms of their familial dependency status (Edwards & Alldred, 2000; Qvortrup, 1995). As such, parents have become their children's confidants and advisers for psychological as well as educational problems. (...) A parallel process to familialization is institutionalization, which refers to the process by which children's lives are organized in 'separate and protected organized settings, supervised by professionals and often structured according to their age', where the focus is 'on their educational attainment and development' (Edwards, 2005; Edwards & Alldred, 2000, p. 436). Cooperation between the home and the school has become a forming part of the social construct of 'good parenting'.

Confronted with societal expectations regarding 'effective parenting', as well as with an increasing performative orientation of education systems (Lyotard, 2005) and the school's selective function (Maleš, 1996), the relation between the family and the educational institution is a relation of general contraposition, i.e. mutual surveillance (Crozier, 1998), in which schools, as a result of the penetrating discourse of parental rights, lose considerable parts of their once undisputed authority (Crozier, 1998). In practice, this means that pedagogues, as people primarily responsible for forming a culture of a partnership with parents at the institution, are exposed to theoretically articulated and often contextually blind imperatival

demands for nurturing partnership relations with families¹, while on the other hand, they work in conditions in which they face this contraposition of the family and the institution on a daily basis.

It is surprising that for such a complex task of cooperation aimed at individual children, yet in which its two sides have different foci, competencies, and responsibilities, education staff is unfortunately mostly not systematically prepared during their studies (Sewell, 2012). Focusing on the Croatian context, having analyzed the plans and programs of Croatian teacher education studies Ljubetić et al. (2008) conclude that preparing teachers for their cooperation with parents is of secondary interest, while Maleš et al. (2008) arrive at a similar conclusion after they have analyzed pre-school education studies programs. As for pedagogues, a similar 2010 analysis showed that a considerable number of future pedagogues finish their studies without having studied parts of the program which would deal with their competencies for cooperation with families (Maleš et al., 2010). Despite the fact that it would be worth examining how much the situation in the analyzed programs has changed in the last decade, a recent research study by Visković and Višnjic Jevtić (2017), conducted on a smaller sample of 78 female preschool teachers, showed that the participants estimate their competence for working with parents as moderate ($M=3,37$), claiming that they have acquired more competences on their own, through their personal work experience ($M=3,41$) than through formal education ($M=2,82$), while they hold continuous professional education to be a similarly relevant source of competences as personal work experience ($M=3,42$).

The fact that in the aforementioned research study the participants reckoned their personal experience and continuous education to be more relevant than the studies they completed points to the importance of the processes taking place upon the completion of formal education. In this paper, I scrutinize the potential of a *self-reflective diary*, which is an example of a systematic, focused, and externally created call for professional development, which, however, relies on pedagogues' self-activity and is continuously filled with contents they personally find relevant. Understood in this manner, a self-reflective diary finds its foundation in the long

1 About the problemativeness of insisting on the *partnership paradigm* see in Bartulović and Kušević (2016).

tradition of conceptualizing reflective practice as a constitutive part of the pedagogical activity.

A SELF-REFLECTIVE DIARY ON COOPERATION WITH FAMILIES AS A FORM OF PEDAGOGUES' REFLECTIVE PRACTICE

“The originator of thinking about reflection, John Dewey (1938) said, ‘We don’t learn from experience. We learn from reflecting on experience.’” (Sammaknejad & Marzban, 2016, p. 84). In practice reflection most often takes place in a couple of steps, which begin with a dilemma of the nature of the situation we are in, continuing with an interpretation of the meaning of that situation and contemplation of the possible consequences, then with a careful analysis of the problem and formation of suggestions on how to solve the problem, and finally with the establishment of an action plan (Dewey, 1973, pp. 494-506, as cited in van Manen, 2015). To an understanding of reflection as an analysis aimed at the enhanced future performance, it is necessary to add a critical component regarding the purpose of a particular practice and the posing of questions as to who established this purpose (Meierdirk, 2016), whereby reflection does not remain a mere mechanic analysis of what happened, motivated by professional responsibility of preventing replication of undesired experiences and consequences in the pedagogical practice, but rather a form of deconstructing and reconstructing entrenched ways of thinking (Betts, 2004, as cited in Senediak, 2014).

As a form of such deconstruction and reconstruction, in this paper, I analyze the potential of a *self-reflective diary*, which refers to written documentation of one’s own understandings of professional reality and activities in this reality, directed toward one’s own self-education and upgrading the quality of one’s personal pedagogical practice. Various authors (Allwright, 1988, Bailey, 1990, Long, 1983; all cited in Lally & Veleba, 2000) view diary studies as the most spread form of ethnographic research, whose specific quality is the fact that the research object of the person who keeps a diary is that same person, with any observation by another person being eliminated (Allwright, 1988, as cited in Lally & Veleba, 2000). Griffiths (1995) emphasizes that personal records have become well

established in research studies on education², with the focus having shifted from the *outcome/result* of particular actions to the contemplation of the *process* itself (Rolfe, Freshwater & Jasper, 2001, Loo & Thorpe, 2002; both cited in Travers, 2011, emphasis added).

The benefits of such a type of (self-)research are manifold: it enables theory reinterpretation in the light of professional experience (and vice versa; Griffiths, 1995), it can help “release feelings about experiences, see different truths in a situation, and increase observational skills” (Callister, 1993, as cited in Travers, 2011, p. 205), as well as it can help with perspective taking and motivation to try new strategies for problem-solving (Travers, 2011). There are three fundamental mechanisms through which diaries promote learning: “(a) They can increase the effectiveness of interventions by promoting the transfer of the learned content. (b) They can promote self-regulation by activating monitoring processes. (c) They can enhance motivation since even the smallest progress is visible” (Schmitz, Klug, & Schmidt, 2011, as cited in Klug, Gerich & Schmitz, 2016, p. 190). In the first point, something worth noticing is the potential for behavioral changes to occur, where self-monitoring, i.e. “deliberate focusing of attention on one specific aspect of one’s own behavior” (Lan, 1996, as cited in Klug, Gerich & Schmitz, 2016, p. 190), is the mechanism that directs the behavioral change. Moreover, Cooper and Heck (1995, as cited in Black, Sileo & Prater, 2000) point out that keeping a diary facilitates noticing one’s personal values, which are also relevant for professional activity. Along with these benefits, what seems to be yet another potential of a self-reflective diary is its suitability for self-analysis with a certain time lag, and the fact that its value does not have to be utilized only in self-analysis should also be kept in mind. Nevertheless, in research studies conducted with the purpose of diary analysis by a person who has not kept the diary, it should be taken into account that the fact of another person reading the diary can influence the way this diary will be written, whereby “the very notion of a diary as a safe personal space where one can write freely by, and for oneself” is potentially ruined (Travers, 2011, p. 215).

2 For an overview of research studies in education which used diaries see Travers (2011); in this paper see the research study by Klug, Gerich and Schmitz (2016).

THE OPERATING FRAMEWORK OF A SELF-REFLECTIVE DIARY ON COOPERATION WITH FAMILIES

The self-reflective diary presented in this paper was created during 2018, as a product of the contemplation of the possibilities for improving the quality of cooperation with families by relying on pedagogues' self-educating capacities. Many parts of the diary, more precisely the questions it poses and the contemplation guidelines it provides³, along with the accompanying texts for reading, have been tried out during my work with pedagogy students in the context of the course *Partnership between the family and the educational institution*. The series of questions and impulses have been created to stimulate reflection, to which the person keeping the diary can respond with the content, style, and scope they find appropriate. The diary represents a written form of intensive continuous contemplation of one's own experiences, emotions, positions, knowledge, skills, and activities in the domain of cooperation between families and the educational institution, and its keeping is based on general openness to looking into one's own pedagogical practice by means of the creative processes of retrospection and introspection.

The diary's framework is broken down into 11 weeks, during which one should at least once a week write a diary entry. Moreover, during five weeks one should engage in reading texts determined beforehand and thematically connected to the unit a particular week addresses. Each unit consists of a smaller number of open-ended questions or contemplation guidelines, and introductory notes on the ethical aspects of keeping a diary also accompany the diary. The topic of the *ethics of cooperation with families*, considering the fact that the ethics of pedagogical activity in Croatia are almost entirely uncodified, as well as the fact that this topic is neglected in the Croatian scientific space, was an important part of the diary. The diary's units according to the weeks it is divided into are shown in Table 1.

3 Klug, Gerich and Schmitz (2016) find open-ended questions to be more appropriate for stimulating reflection.

Table 1. *The thematic units of a self-reflective diary on cooperation with families*

Week	Unit name	Unit description	Accompanying text
1.	Who am I?	An analysis of the relevance of personal identity markers for professional activity.	NO
2.	My definition of quality cooperation between families and the educational institution	Reflection on the characteristics of quality cooperation with families and on the distribution of responsibility for it between experts and family members.	NO
3.	Deliberating over personal experiences	The determinateness of understanding quality cooperation between families and the educational institution by the experiences from my own primary family and other personal experiences. Contemplation of the relation between the personal and the professional in pedagogues' activity.	YES
4.	Knowledge and skills needed for quality cooperation with families	An analysis of the (in)sufficiency of current knowledge and skills needed for cooperation with families and addressing the actors responsible for their development.	NO
5.	School well disposed to different families	An analysis of diversity markers taken into account in cooperation with families.	YES
6.	Cooperation with families – current challenges	An analysis of the current quality of personal cooperation with families.	NO
7.	Group forms of working with parents and other family members	An analysis of the current quality of group forms of working with parents and other family members and of the supportive role in practicing these cooperation forms directed at the institution staff. Detection of cognitive dissonance related to cooperation with families.	NO
8.	Individual forms of working with parents and other family members	Analysis of the current quality of individual forms of working with parents and other family members and of the supportive role in practicing these cooperation forms directed at the institution staff.	YES

9.	Documenting and enhancing the quality of cooperation with families	An analysis of personal techniques and instruments for documenting the quality of cooperation with families at the institution.	YES
10.	Ethical dilemmas in cooperation with families	An analysis of different ethical dilemmas present in cooperation with families.	YES
11.	The role of a self-reflective diary in pedagogues' professional development	Metalevel consideration of the undertaken process of self-reflection and contemplation of the role of a self-reflective diary in personal professional development.	NO
/	Conclusion	List of plans related to enhancing cooperation with families (to be completed continuously during all the 11 weeks).	NO

My initial plan was to conduct a rather extensive research study with the pedagogues who would keep this diary using the research method of a semi-structured interview after the diary completion. The goal of that research study would be to pilot the diary and describe what kind of a role it can have in stimulating pedagogues' professional development in the domain of cooperation with families. For that research study, I obtained a permit from the *Croatian Ministry of Science and Education*, after which I sent out requests for participation in the research study to a number of email addresses of primary and secondary schools. In spite of the fact that after a couple of cycles several pedagogues agreed to take part in the research study, only one participant took part in the final interview⁴. Although the initial plan for this paper was to present his/her experience of keeping the diary, holding it to be instructive for adapting the operating framework of the diary as well as for reflecting on the obstacles of conducting long-term

4 Before starting to keep the diary, the pedagogue signed a consent for participating in the process, in which (s)he confirmed informedness about the goal and the procedure of the research study, voluntary participation in the research study, informedness about the right to withdraw from the research study, familiarity with the ethical aspects of keeping a diary, informedness about my availability for communication related to any dilemmas arising during the process of keeping the diary, informedness about the final interview being recorded with a voice recorder and about the fact that only I would have access to the recording and the transcript, and consent that particular parts of the interview would be cited/paraphrased in the scientific paper. Furthermore, the pedagogue received the text in order to "verify" it before this paper was published (see something similar in e.g. Browne, 2005).

qualitative research, after receiving the reviewer's comments and after the careful reflection on the ethics of the research process (especially the fact that this pedagogue did not agree to participate in a case study in the first place, but in a qualitative interview that was planned with other pedagogues too), I eventually decided not to present that interview in any other way than as an illustration of concluding thoughts of this paper.

CONCLUSION

Based on theoretical and empirical accounts on the role of self-reflection in facilitating the professional development of teachers/pedagogues, presented in the first part of this paper, as well as having in mind one pedagogue's stimulating experience with keeping a self-reflective diary on cooperation with families, it seems that the presented developmental framework of the diary *might have a potential* of stimulating reflection processes important for the quality of cooperation with families. The realization of that potential depends, however, on a number of contextual factors, among which the lack of pedagogues' time for keeping this diary seems to be the most significant obstacle to deep self-reflection, which not only the pedagogue's comments but also the problems with gathering a larger number of pedagogues who would be willing to keep this diary point to. Despite the possibility that the pedagogues were interested in keeping the diary independently, yet were not interested in formally participating in the research study, intensive time- and energy-consuming engagement the diary requires seems to be its biggest challenge.

Furthermore, there is the question as to whether all pedagogues have a referential framework for keeping the diary, i.e. whether they are familiar with the theoretical base behind particular diary units. The enhancement of the perceived diary's potential is possibly achievable through *educating for self-reflection*, i.e. through a stronger focus of the pedagogy studies on the self-educating potential of self-reflection. However, before doing so the argumentation about the importance of such a turn should be empirically confirmed by investigating the impact of self-reflection on actual competencies of pedagogues (generally/specifically in cooperation with families), i.e. on the self-assessment of those competencies. In relation to this paper's topic, this would be possible to achieve by means of an

experimental design with two groups of pedagogues involved in some program of professional development in the domain of cooperation with families, of which one program would include some form of continuing self-reflection as well (see a similar concept in Klug, Gerich & Schmitz, 2016; on hybrid research, techniques using qualitative research methods within the classic experimental design see in Robinson & Mendelson, 2012). Certainly, such a research design, if based on a self-assessment of the competence, would not address adequately the problem Lally and Veleba (2000) warn about, pointing out the uncertain transfer of self-reflection into the actual activity of future teachers.

If however empirical evidence on the efficiency of such forms of reflection is gathered, the problem of the support provided to pedagogues during the potentially emotionally demanding realization of their own cognitive dissonance, professional oversights, and/or limited competencies remains unresolved. Travers (2011) emphasizes the importance of the possibility to withdraw from a research study or of leaning on researchers at any moment, as well as the importance of *debriefing*, as protective mechanisms of the process of intensively working on oneself in the research context. Such suggestions make fundamentals of research ethics in social sciences, however, they complicate the contemplation of the way in which in the self-reflection process support can be provided to experts who would use a diary as a self-educating tool, regardless of the person who created it and who cannot be a source of support to all the practitioners who make use of that tool. This dilemma may be addressed by using the diary in the first year of work, which is sensible not only because the profession's theoretical outlining articulated during the studies is still fresh to a person but also because the mentor could act as a support to trainee pedagogues in the described self-reflective journey.

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ULOGA AUTOREFLEKSIVNOGA DNEVNIKA U STIMULIRANJU PROFESIONALNOGA RAZVOJA PEDAGOGA U DOMENI SURADNJE S OBITELJIMA

SAŽETAK

Autorefleksivnim se dnevnikom u ovome radu smatra pisano dokumentiranje svojih razumijevanja profesionalne zbilje i vlastitih djelovanja u njoj, usmjereno k samoobrazovanju i unapređivanju kvalitete svoje pedagoške prakse.

Cilj je rada opisati ulogu koju autorefleksivni dnevnik može imati u stimuliranju profesionalnoga razvoja pedagoga u domeni suradnje s obiteljima, što se čini teorijskom elaboracijom važnosti autorefleksije u pedagoškoj profesiji i predstavljanjem autorskoga okvira autorefleksivnoga dnevnika fokusiranoga na suradnju pedagoga s obiteljima.

Zaključni dio rada raspravlja o mogućnostima šire primjene dnevnika u kontekstu (samo)obrazovanja pedagoga za suradnju s obiteljima.

Ključne riječi: refleksivna praksa, (samo)obrazovanje, profesionalni razvoj, partnerstvo obitelji i odgojno-obrazovne ustanove

ASPIRATIONS FOR TEACHING MUSIC CULTURE IN OLD AND NEW CURRICULUM FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL

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ABSTRACT

The new curricula as part of Comprehensive curricular reform have brought changes to the Croatian education system, which regulates the new curricula. According to curricula of the subject Music Culture, teaching content is realized in three domains: Listening and introduction to music, Expressing using music and with music and Music in context. Outcomes are described in detail in curricula, where the teacher chooses specific teaching materials and teaching methods. Most new changes tend to develop competencies for the 21st century. This qualitative research used the analysis matrix method to compare the new curriculum from the subject Music Culture for primary school students (MZO, 2019) and the previous curriculum for Music Culture (MZO, 2006). The goal of the new curriculum is the development of modern competencies in primary school students and encouragement for students to be more actively involved in teaching and music, and to develop creativity, critical thinking, and interculturalism.

Keywords: Music culture, interculturality, competencies, curriculum

INTRODUCTION

Since music has always been a very important part of human culture, it must have its place in general upbringing and education. This is necessary for the harmonious and holistic development of each individual. From an early age, children encounter music by singing and listening to music. Therefore, it is of great importance in the first years of schooling that children get musical education. Musical education helps children to develop a sense of beauty and to lay the foundations for the development of their own musical taste. In a child's primary school age, Music Culture should be taught in a way that encourages and positively influences a child (Manasteriotti, 1981; Šuletić Begić, 2013; Senjan, 2018). This can be achieved by using proper teaching methods and a personal approach to music itself and Music Culture as a school subject. Music Culture as a school subject does not only teach students some general musical facts, but it also provides the opportunity for developing a number of competencies which are necessary for a modern young man and it is important to develop these competencies from the earliest age of students. Comprehensive curricular reform brings significant changes to the music culture curriculum.

The aim of teaching Music Culture in primary school is to acquaint students with Music Culture and basic elements of the language of music, develop musical creativity, and adopt criteria for independent (critical and aesthetic) assessment of music (MZO [Ministry of science and education], 2006). However, according to the Curriculum of subjects Musical culture and Musical art for primary schools and gymnasiums, (MZO, 2019), the goal is not only the acquisition of musical knowledge, development of critical thinking, development of musical taste and ability to assess and participate in discussions, building a sense of identity but also the development of interculturality and similar competencies that will teach students how to respond to various life challenges. It is prescribed that music is taught within the compulsory school subject of Music Culture with a total of 35 hours per year, ie. one school hour per week. The timetable of music teaching can be extended by including students in extracurricular music activities. The Music Culture teaching program for the first three grades of primary school is based on the musical areas of singing, playing, listening to music and musical creativity (Svalina, 2015).

ANALYSIS AND COMPARISON OF THE OLD AND NEW CURRICULUM

According to Svalina (2015), singing is an activity that is mostly carried out in Music Culture teaching at the primary level of education. The teaching area of singing enables the development of a sense of correct intonation and rhythm, musical memory, and the development of self-confidence in students. Singing involves the continuous performance of songs without the obligatory memorization of lyrics. In the first three grades of primary school, students learn to sing by ear by repeating a sung phrase after the teacher. The song demonstrated in class enables artistic expression and the development of students' creative potential. It can also become a vocal-technical exercise that enables the development of the voice. Using a didactical approach and vocal-technical aspects can lead to the development of students singing skills which is the goal of singing (Vidulin & Cingula, 2016).

Since singing is an important element of teaching Music Culture, it contributes to the development of students' musical abilities, musical hearing, sense of rhythm, and musical memory (Vidulin-Orbanić & Terzić, 2011). It is also interesting to point out that according to the research of Šulentić Begić (2009), singing is the most favorite activity in Music Culture teaching (Šulentić Begić, Begić & Pušić, 2020).

Playing music develops a sense of rhythm, meter, precise coordination, and cooperation. In primary schools, students can play music occurs in two ways - playing in Music Culture classes and playing in an ensemble/orchestra as a part of extracurricular activities. Playing music was first introduced in Croatian general education schools with the adoption of curriculum from the year of 1958 (Svalina, 2015). Rojko (2012) states that there are two reasons that speak in favor of playing, and that is that the child wants to be active and that playing music in a group is a pleasant activity. Vidulin (2013) highlights that the goal of playing music is not to play a musical instrument perfectly, but the active involvement of students in the teaching process that will make them aware of the musical components and better understanding of musical works. What is more, teaching music should be interesting. The aim of listening to and getting to know music

as one of the newest areas of teaching music is to develop the ability of auditory concentration, to hear and distinguish specific sounds and colors of different voices and instruments while listening to music, to analyze the performed work and establish criteria for evaluating music. By listening to music one is being introduced to it and develops a musical taste (Rojko, 2012). Listening to music, according to Campbell (2005), is considered the heart and soul of music education, and analytical listening enables a better understanding and understanding of music. McAnally (2007) talks about the importance of motivating students to listen to a song and while listening students should notice the musical components and determine the form of the song listening music. According to these authors, the teacher and his engagement are of great importance for listening to music (Svalina, 2015). Listening to musical pieces is divided into three parts. The first part creates the atmosphere and mood for listening to music, the second part follows the experience of the musical piece and in the third part, the interpretation of the musical piece, experiences, impressions, and defining the performer, melody and other components of the musical work take place. Regarding the fact that listening to music evokes emotions, in recent years special importance is given to cognitive-emotional listening of music in teaching.

The teaching area of musical creativity sharpens musical abilities, encourages the imagination of musical expression and self-confidence in presenting new ideas (MZO, 2006). The notion of creativity has two meanings. First, that creativity is defined with new ideas and inventions, and secondly, that creativity is a property or set of qualities that enable, provoke creativity, ie. productivity (Čudina-Obradović, 1990). It has been proven that certain learning strategies develop far more creative students. Therefore, a creative teacher is important for creating creative educational situations. This enables creative learning which, through mutual interaction between teachers and students, influences the development of creative potentials in students (Balazević, 2010). According to Rojko (2012), the terms creativity and productivity are used as synonyms and improvisation in the music-psychological literature.

AREAS OF TEACHING MUSIC CULTURE IN PRIMARY SCHOOL

The subject curriculum of the subject Music Culture is regulated by the purpose and description of the subject, educational goals, structure divided into three domains, educational outcomes to be achieved, cross-curricular topics, learning, and teaching subjects, and evaluating the adoption of educational outcomes (MZO, 2019). Three domains are: domain A called *Listening and introduction to music*; domain B called *Expressing using music and with music*, and domain C called *Music in context*. Domain A refers to components and organization of musical pieces and critical and aesthetical evaluation. Domain B refers to singing, playing instruments, musical games, creativity, and motion with music. Domain C refers to different functions of music, types of music, social, historical, and cultural context of music.

Given that education tends to rise to an even higher level in which students will develop lifelong competencies and learn, not only for assessment and school but for life as well, educational subjects such as Music Culture certainly open space for achieving such educational outcomes. Teaching Music Culture develops aesthetic thinking, encourages students' creativity in all areas, arouses interest in music and other arts, develops the world of cultural and national identity, and prepares them for life in a multicultural environment. Evaluation is carried out according to three student-centered approaches: evaluation for learning, evaluation as learning, and evaluation of what has been learned (MZO, 2019).

The first educational cycle includes the Music Culture of the first and second grades of primary school. The aim of this outcome is to introduce and bring music closer to students, introducing them to different musical genres. The goal is to bring a musical experience to each student. The second educational cycle refers to the third, fourth, and fifth grades of primary school. The remaining cycles refer to higher grades of primary schools and gymnasiums so they will not be specially described. Students are introduced to a number of musical components, instruments of basic musical forms, auditory recognition, musical analysis, etc. (MZO, 2019).

DEVELOPMENT OF COMPETENCIES IN TEACHING MUSIC CULTURE

Competence is defined as recognized expertise or ability that someone has (Anić, 2000). Therefore, the European Union has defined eight key competencies of the concept of lifelong learning, namely: communication in the mother tongue, communication in foreign languages, mathematical competence and basic competencies in science and technology, digital competence, learn how to learn, social and civic competence, initiative and entrepreneurship, cultural awareness and expression in the field of culture (Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council, 2010). Activities carried out in classes of Musical culture develop not only musical competencies but the whole array of competencies that can be applied in every field of students' life.

Teachers often face problems in class, such as reticence, mockery by their peers because of "bad" singing or idea, stage fright, etc. Jurčić (2014) points to an appropriate way and approach to solving problems in the classroom. An appropriate joke reduces the awkwardness and embarrassment in such situations, where special care should be taken of the student's character. A positive attitude is certainly desirable, it strengthens the students' confidence in their own abilities and success. Especially in Music Culture when the development of certain skills can only be influenced by the long-term process of working on a particular musical skill. Arnold (2008) also emphasizes emotional competence, described as the ability of an individual to become aware of their own and others' emotions and the ability to control their own emotions. Emotions affect students' cognitive development. Learning is achieved if the individual is willing to learn (Chabot & Chabot, 2009), which contributes to the stimulating performance of teachers. Music Culture can again be seen as a special example in which emotional competence is evident, bearing in mind that the emotional approach and development of teachers towards the art of music is also transmitted to students.

METHODOLOGY

The research methodology consists of an analysis matrix (Table 1) of the new Curriculum of subjects Musical culture and Musical art for primary schools and gymnasiums (MZO, 2019) and the previous Plan and program for teaching (MZO, 2006) (Table 2). This qualitative research brings a comparison of the goals, outcomes, and development of competencies and ways of performing and organizing the teaching of Music Culture in the classroom with the aim of analyzing the progress achieved by the new curriculum. The main goal of the research is to comparatively show the components of the old and new curriculum, to define aspirations for the teaching of Musical culture, and to define eventual progress in teaching regarding the outcomes of a new curriculum.

Table 1. *Matrix of Music Culture Curriculum Analysis*

EDUCATIONAL OUTCOMES				
CLASSES	DOMAIN A <i>Listening and introduction to music</i>	DOMAIN B <i>Expressing using music and with music</i>	DOMAIN C <i>Music in context</i>	ANALYSIS OF TEACHING ASPIRATIONS
1 st CLASS	The student knows a number of music pieces. Based on listening, the student distinguishes individual musical-expressive components.	The student participates in a joint performance of music. The student sings/performs songs and counters. The student performs musical games with singing, listening to music, and movement with music. The student creates/improvises melodic and rhythmic units, and plays with songs/counters that he performs.	The student recognizes different roles of music based on listening to music and active music-making.	The student gets acquainted with a number of a music pieces that introduces him to the analytical world of music, from which he/she learns to distinguish the basic musical-expressive components. The student participates in performing music and creates music. He recognizes the different roles of music that are also a mirror of the differences in the world where he lives.

2nd CLASS	The student knows a number of music pieces. Based on listening, the student distinguishes individual musical-expressive components.	The student participates in a joint performance of music. The student sings/ performs songs and counters. The student performs musical games with singing, listening to music, and movement with music. The student creates/ improvises melodic and rhythmic units and plays with songs/counters that he performs.	The student recognizes different roles of music based on listening to music and active music-making.	The student expands his knowledge to an even greater number of musical pieces and musical-expressive components. The student participates in performing music with his own expression - in this way he accepts the ideas of other students and creates his own ideas. The student recognizes and distinguishes the different roles of music.
3rd CLASS	The student knows a number of music pieces. Based on listening, the student distinguishes individual musical-expressive components.	The student participates in a joint performance of music. The student sings/ performs songs and counters. The student performs musical games with singing, listening to music, and movement with music. The student creates/ improvises melodic and rhythmic units and plays with songs/counters that he performs.	The student recognizes different roles of music based on listening to music and active music-making.	The student expands musical knowledge compared to the previous two grades. participates in performing music. recognizes the role of music.

4th CLASS	The student knows a number of music pieces. Based on listening, the student distinguishes individual musical-expressive components, basic groups of musical instruments and singing voices, and the colors of male and female singing voices.	The student participates in a joint performance of music. The student sings original and traditional songs from Croatia and the world. The student performs musical games with singing, listening to music, and movement with music. The student performs artistic, traditional, popular, or his own music by playing or moving. The student participates in various musical games and musical creation activities.	The student recognizes different roles of music based on listening to music and active music-making. Based on listening, singing and dancing/movement, the student gets to know the characteristics of Croatian traditional music in his own environment (local community).	In addition to the extended material from previous classes, the student understands and analyzes music pieces according to a much larger number of musical-expressive components. He understands Croatian traditional music, realizes the importance of national identity and culture, and the importance of respecting other cultures.
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Table 2. *Matrix of Music Culture Plan and program for teaching*

Tasks of teaching Music culture	1st-grade Teaching areas	2nd grade Teaching areas	3rd grade Teaching areas	4th-grade Teaching areas
The student will be introduced (methodically guided listening) to various musical works.	Singing Educational achievements: To sing expressively and clearly pronounce the lyrics of the processed songs; perceive and perform songs loudly and quietly, slowly and quickly, pitch (higher and lower tone), follow the direction of melody movement (ascending, descending).	Singing Educational achievements: To sing expressively and clearly pronounce the lyrics of processed songs, perceive and perform songs loudly and quietly, slowly and quickly, aurally distinguish songs of different tempo and dynamics, perceive the pitch and duration of tones.	Singing Educational achievements: To sing expressively and clearly pronounce the lyrics of processed songs, perceive, perform and aurally distinguish songs at different tempos and dynamics, perceive pitches and durations of tones.	Singing Educational achievements: The knowledge of 15 songs; beautiful, expressive singing, clear pronunciation and comprehension of the text; in songs distinguish melody, meter, rhythm, tempo, dynamics. The student will be introduced to the basic elements of musical language.
The student will be introduced to the basic elements of musical language.	Playing Educational achievements: To aurally perceive the musically expressive components of the composition (perceive the performance composition, tempo, dynamics, atmosphere)	Playing Educational achievements: To play and distinguish the rhythm and ages of processed coloring books and songs.	Playing Educational achievements: To perform the rhythm and ages of learned songs; distinguish rhythm and age. Music performance and music letter	Music performance and music letter Educational achievements: The knowledge of sound, musical characteristics of folk music of Hrvatsko Zagorje and Medimurje; at least some of the terms at the level of direct recognition on a musical example.

Encouraging students to do independent activities.	Listening music Educational achievements: To aurally perceive the musically expressive components of the composition (perceive the performance composition, tempo, dynamics, atmosphere)	Listening music Educational achievements: To aurally perceive the musically expressive components of the composition (performance composition, tempo, dynamics, atmosphere)	Listening music Educational achievements: To aurally perceive the musically expressive components of the composition (performance composition, tempo, dynamics, atmosphere, and musical form). Listening to and getting to know music	Listening to and getting to know music Educational achievements: The knowledge of 5-10 new songs; recognition of compositions (according to individual abilities of students); know the name of the composer and the composition; recognize musical instruments. Musical terms are derived from the nature of the musical work (names of performing groups, names of individual instruments, marks for tempo, dynamics, etc.) - at the level of recognition Elements of musical creativity
202	Elements of musical creativity Educational achievements: To invent small rhythmic/ melodic units, realize them with voice, percussion,	Elements of musical creativity Educational achievements: To improvise and perform small rhythmic/ melodic/ eurythmic units with voice,	Elements of musical creativity Educational achievements: To improvise and perform small rhythmic/ melodic / eurythmic units with voice,	Musical game Educational achievements: The activity is important; competencies are relative and individually different.

and movement; mark individual words and phrases with the sound of some instruments of the student's choice.	percussion, and movement; imitate sounds by free improvisation.	percussion and movement; mark individual words and phrases with the sound of some instruments of the student's choice; imitate sounds by free improvisation of the Musical Game
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DISCUSSION

After the first year of learning and listening to Music Culture, students get to know and finally recognize at least ten music pieces, observe meter, tempo, dynamics, pitch, tone and timbre, melody and sing and play at least 15 songs, distinguish musical components, participate in musical games, express their own opinion on the music pieces. In the second grade, students expand their knowledge of everything they have learned until now to different areas of music or types of music. The concepts of music theory are expanding (stressed and unstressed beats, more complex rhythms, etc.). Just like after the second grade, in the third grade, they expand the material learned in the second grade (two-part and three-part music form, melody). In the fourth grade, the student applies the learned music-theoretical material on specific examples, performs music pieces and compares them to others, actively participates in playing and singing, and improvises rhythmic units (MZO, 2019). The ultimate goal of Music Culture stated in the Educational Plan and Program (MZO, 2006) in the classroom refers primarily to musical skills and musical (critical) expression. Students should distinguish higher and lower tones, determine the duration, dynamics, and tempo of a music piece, develop intonation and rhythmic abilities, develop musical memory, distinguish instrumental, vocal, and vocal-instrumental music, develop musical expression, critical musical attitude, taste in music. Although it is planned in the curriculum, it is disputable if it is really achievable in practice. The fourth grade in this case belongs to the subject of teaching (MZO 2006). Music Culture should be much more than repeating verses. As the name itself suggests, this subject is called Music Culture and

this means that it is an educational subject where students adopt much more than just education about the subject. It gives each student space to emphasize their specific qualities. In this subject, students should learn how to express themselves musically, start to think creatively and learn to express it (I like the song because ...). In addition to the educational part there is an important educational part, which stands out - learn to listen, seek, research, communicate, listen to others, learn that not everyone is the same. Learn that we all have different interests, opportunities, accept teachers' advice, do not compare with others, monitor and notice their own progress, accept ourselves as we are, etc. Music Culture class must provide students with a stimulating environment. Music Culture teachers must design workshops and activities, engage in research of educational problems encountered in practice. It is desirable that the primary school teacher cooperates with music pedagogues in school who could guide him towards what he wants to achieve in class (Gortan-Carlin & Močinić, 2017).

The upbringing and education of children and young people so that they could experience a good life quality in the 21st century is directed towards the development of competencies that are different from those that prevailed in the past (Vrkić Dimić, 2013).

According to the Croatian Qualifications Framework (Dželalija et al., 2009), competencies are defined as knowledge and skills belonging to independence and responsibility, which can be considered optimal, understandable, and measurable structures. Competences mean a complete set of everything that an individual can acquire through learning. According to Domazet (2009) competencies relate to the fulfillment of complex tasks, the solution of complex problems, and the satisfaction of complex external conditions. They consist of cognitive and non-cognitive aspects and are not hereditary but can be learned. We can distinguish between "fundamental" and "specific" competencies. "Specific" competencies refer to specific areas of knowledge and are more easily adaptable to the formal education system. There are overlaps between them, ie common core values. According to Opić and Jurčević-Lozančić (2008), competence is described as the ability to enter into transactions with a changing and challenging environment and is a consequence of this development and maturation of the individual. Competencies include the following: knowledge and understanding, and includes theoretical knowledge in the academic field, capacity for cognition

and understanding. Then knowledge of how to act, and that to understand the practical application of knowledge in certain situations. Knowledge of how to be, and what includes the values of living with others in a social context. According to Vizek Vidović (2009), competencies represent a combination of these characteristics and describe the level or degree to which they are individually able to use.

Musical knowledge and skills, ie musical competencies are related to musicality or musical hearing. Acquired musical competence is required to acquire musical competencies. Musical knowledge and skills, ie competencies, should be in accordance with the goal and tasks of the primary school music curriculum.

The tasks of primary school music teaching are:

- to acquaint students (methodically guided listening) with different musical pieces
- to acquaint students with the basic elements of musical language
- encourage students to independent musical activity (singing, playing)
- The task of singing songs is primarily singing, not only learning the song
- The task of playing is to play and not only learn a specific piece of music
- The task of listening is to develop musical taste, but also to get to know specific musical pieces and fragments
- The task of music literacy is to acquire only basic information about the musical notation
- the task of processing musical types and forms is primarily active listening to music; the forms and types themselves are in the background and the verbal knowledge about them in principle does not go beyond what can be detected by hearing on a musical example (Plan and program for teaching, 2006; Šulentić Begić, 2013).

All the listed musical competencies that students need to acquire during the teaching of music culture should also be possessed by primary education teachers. (Šulentić Begić, 2013). According to Bilić (2000), teacher competence has an important effect on student work and success.

The teaching of Music Culture puts the student's musical activity in the central position aiming to prepare the student for life and lifelong learning and for an active role in society and thus enable the student to find answers to their future questions. In Music Culture, the teacher mirrors the behavior and acceptance of diversity. With every word he says, he actually educates the students. Analytical competence can be described as the ability to analyze and evaluate one's own work and achieve educational outcomes (Juul, 2013). Intercultural competence is also evident in the very name of Music Culture. It is inevitable to emphasize the importance of intercultural education, which develops awareness of the cultural identity of the individual, but also of the group, and contributes to getting to know and understand different groups and other cultures. Intercultural education helps one acquire intercultural competence which then helps us to become aware of the existence of different cultures. By doing so one nurtures the acceptance of other cultures and builds the foundations for successful communication, sensitivity for others (Šulentić Begić, 2015). According to Hrvatić & Piršl (2007), intercultural education provides insight into other people's perspectives, their thoughts, and personal impression of the world. It is possible to connect it with music that is present in all spheres of society. 'Intercultural music education is a process in which students not only get to know the music of other cultures but through music experience the diversity of human experiences in different cultures' (Kelly, 2004, according to Šulentić Begić, 2015, p. 2).

CONCLUSION

206 Music Culture is associated with all school subjects with the aim of achieving learning that will accompany the student throughout life. In the field of the Croatian language, the student connects the meaning of words, the connection between language and music, and experiences music as a non-verbal form of communication. Art and Music Culture are linked in the understanding of art and diversity within one or more arts. Students are also educated in Computer Science, getting to know different information and communication technologies that help them to actively listen to and process music. They develop empathy and solidarity, learn about music in a historical context and intercultural rights. In the field of Physical Education,

they link the importance of physical and mental health. Nature teaches the importance of preserving the environment, the work of art, the relationship between man and art.

Contemporary Music teaching in the first four grades of primary school has offered progress with the new curriculum compared to previous curricula. The new curriculum has introduced teaching according to domains that contribute to putting the student more at the central position of the educational process. Students are involved in the analytical world of music and are involved in creating and performing music. For students, this kind of active learning is important in order to get to know the music as much as possible, but also themselves. Students will understand the role of music in their lives and the world around them better and they will develop the competencies needed in modern society, especially intercultural and social competencies. The new curriculum, however, is moving away from the old one and making greater progress towards developing the competencies that students need for the 21st century. The greatest progress can be seen in the development of critical thinking and creativity and greater emphasis on the development of competencies and connecting teaching materials with real life.

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RAZVOJ KOMPETENCIJA UČENIKA RAZREDNE NASTAVE NOVIM KURIKULOM GLAZBENE KULTURE

SAŽETAK

Novi kurikulumi u sklopu Cjelovite kurikularne reforme unijeli su promjene u hrvatski obrazovni sustav koji regulira nove kurikulume. Prema kurikulumima predmeta Glazbena kultura, nastavni se sadržaj realizira u 3 domene, čiji su ishodi detaljno opisani u kurikulumima, gdje nastavnik bira određene nastavne materijale i nastavne metode. Većina novih promjena teži razvoju kompetencija za 21. stoljeće. Ovo kvalitativno istraživanje koristilo je metodu matrične analize za usporedbu novog kurikulumu iz predmeta Glazbena kultura za učenike osnovnih škola (MZO, 2019) i prethodnog kurikulumu za glazbenu kulturu (MZO, 2006), cilj novog kurikulumu je razvoj suvremenih kompetencija kod učenika osnovnih škola i poticanje učenika na aktivnije uključivanje u nastavu i glazbu te razvoj kreativnosti, kritičkog mišljenja i interkulturalizma. Međutim, u mnogim školama neki od tih ciljeva i dalje se zanemaruju.

Ključne riječi: Glazbena kultura, interkulturalnost, kompetencije, kurikulum

ERASMUS + PROJECTS: ACTIVITIES AT SCHOOL, LOCAL AND INTERNATIONAL LEVEL DURING AND AFTER THE PROJECT COMPLETION

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ABSTRACT

The Erasmus + project *Love Life* promotes the importance of emotional intelligence, and was initiated due to the fact that today's young generations are finding it increasingly difficult to define and develop values that would allow them to make progress in society. The project deals with emotional intelligence through five modules and promotes social, emotional, physical, mental and spiritual wellbeing in all participants.

In February 2020, we were very successful hosts to students and teachers of partner schools from Germany, Poland, Greece and Italy. Under my coordination, our school was in charge of the results of the module "Love your Mind" and we prepared various workshops for guests on the topic of mental and emotional wellbeing. We would like to demonstrate the organization of an Erasmus+ international event at school and participation at local and international levels.

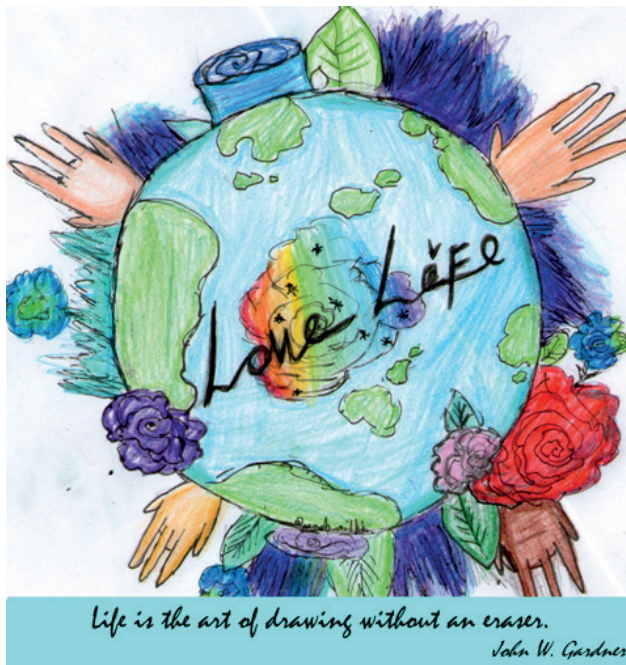
Thanks to numerous projects and participation in international Erasmus+ projects P.L.A.C.E.S. and "Love Life", the book *U zagrljaju mora - Riječi. Beside. Riči* was printed and presented to the local community. The author is Aurika Matković, primary school teacher.

Keywords: Erasmus+ project, emotional intelligence, social, emotional, physical, mental and spiritual wellbeing

INTRODUCTION: ABOUT THE PROJECT “LOVE LIFE”

English teacher and Alenka Banić Juričić was the school coordinator of the two-year Erasmus+ project „Love Life“. Elementary School Marije i Line Umag was in a school-to-school partnership with other European schools from Germany, Poland, Italy and Greece. The chief coordinator was a teacher from the German school. The project was funded by the European Union, in the total amount of 180,000 euros and divided into six modules that focused on emotional, social, physical, mental and spiritual wellbeing. It started in September 2018 and ended in September 2020. About 1,000 students and some 90-100 teachers from five European schools were involved in the project. In the Croatian school we presently have an Erasmus+ team of twenty teachers who mentor about 200 students from grades 3 - 7. Apart from the German and Croatian schools, there were other three school coordinators from other partner countries.

Image 1. Common logo and slogan of the project



PROJECT GOALS AND ACTIVITIES

The purpose of the project was to raise students' awareness on the importance of emotional intelligence for social, emotional, physical, mental and spiritual wellbeing through a number of targeted activities that were carried out through six modules.

Emotional intelligence means the ability to recognize and identify feelings, as well as the ability to understand and control them and to express thoughts clearly. Accordingly, a person of high emotional intelligence is determined by confidence in their own actions, good coping with stress, openness to new challenges and faith in themselves and their values. Such a person is generally more successful both privately and in business, because such an attitude results in a satisfied and complete personality. What significantly distinguishes EQ from IQ is the fact that emotional intelligence can be developed, that is, it can be worked on throughout life.

The following is a summary of each of the six work modules:

- Module 1 *Love the World* dealt with social wellbeing and develops a positive attitude towards the world, successful communication and relationships with others. The Italian school was in charge of this module.
- Module 2 *Love Yourself* dealt with emotional wellbeing and mastering your emotions in order to develop a positive attitude towards life and successfully cope with stress and life problems.
- Module 3 *Love your Body* dealt with physical wellbeing and promotes a healthy life through sports and recreation, eating habits and the prevention of various addictions. The Greek school was in charge of this module.
- Module 4 *Love your Mind* dealt with mental wellbeing and creative use of the mind to unleash its potentials. It encourages critical thinking, develops curiosity, leads to problem solving, lifelong learning and positive direction of intellectual possibilities. Our Croatian school was in charge of the results of this module.
- Module 5 *Love your Spiritual Self* engaged in spiritual wellbeing, values and beliefs, encourages tolerance for other cultures, gratitude, forgiveness, gender equality, human

rights and condemnation of violence. This module was the responsibility of the Polish school.

- The sixth Module - *We share emotions, knowledge and experiences* covered everything we learned in the project, the final evaluation and evaluation of our work at the final meeting in Germany.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE FOR A HAPPIER LIFE

Today's generations find it increasingly difficult to find meanings in their lives and independently develop values that enable them to be active and productive participants in society. Aware of this fact, teachers from five European schools have devised a joint project *Love Life* which promotes the importance of emotional intelligence. The coordination of the project was taken over by a school from Bad Ems, Germany, and in addition to the Croatian school, Poland, Italy and Greece were also in partnership between the schools.

Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ is a 1995 book by Daniel Goleman. In this book, Goleman says that emotional intelligence is as important as IQ for success, including in academic, professional, social, and interpersonal aspects of one's life. Goleman posits that emotional intelligence is a skill that can be taught and cultivated, and outlines methods for incorporating emotional skills training in school curricula. Dr. Goleman described emotional intelligence as a person's ability to manage his feelings so that those feelings are expressed appropriately and effectively. According to Goleman, emotional intelligence is the largest single predictor of success in the workplace. Therefore, a person of high emotional intelligence is determined by confidence in their own actions, good coping with stress, openness to new challenges and faith in themselves and their values. Such a person is generally more successful, both privately and in business, because such an attitude results in a satisfied and complete personality. Emotional intelligence can be developed and improved through lifelong learning and working on oneself.

LEARNING, TEACHING AND TRAINING ACTIVITIES WITHIN PROJECT MODULES

During the mobility to Italy, Greece and Croatia, through three project weeks in partner schools, participating students and teachers were involved in diverse, dynamic and innovative learning, teaching and training activities, in schools and beyond, based on the above stated dimensions of social, emotional, physical and mental health and wellbeing. Unfortunately, due to the COVID19 coronavirus pandemic, mobility to Poland and Germany could not be realized.

In the first module “Love the World”, students, through creative workshops and with the help of digital tools, expressed a positive attitude towards the world around them, with special emphasis on successful communication and relationships with others. We presented the project results in Monopoli, a city in the province of Apulia, in the south of Italy.

Image 2. *Representatives of the Croatian school at the City Library in Monopoli, Italy*



The second module “Love Yourself” includes work through thematically related psychological workshops “Think Positive, Feel Good”. Participants learned the importance of mental and physical relaxation in nature, listening to its sounds and absorbing the scents that surround us. They tried to successfully control their emotions and deal with stressful situations. This module was supposed to be presented in Great Britain, but

the British school left the project right after it had been approved by our National Agencies for Mobilities and EU Programmes.

The third module, “Love your Body”, was conducted in Marousi, the suburb of Athens. Greece, the cradle of ancient Olympic Games, was an ideal place to realize the importance of healthy eating and sports for physical and mental wellbeing. We translated the results into digital e-booklets and interactive presentations, which was presented in Greece in teams.

Image 3. *Participants from all partner schools at the Parthenon in Athens, Greece*



LEARNING, TEACHING AND TRAINING ACTIVITIES AT THE CROATIAN SCHOOL

The Croatian school was in charge of the fourth module “Love your Mind” and it was carried out very successfully and dynamically in February last year, involving guest students and teachers from partner schools in numerous project activities aimed at developing mental abilities and concentration. On that occasion, 23 students and 13 teachers came to our Umag school, who, through work in the module, had the opportunity to get to know our city, our school, educational system, history, culture and language and gain lasting friendships.

Our school Erasmus+ team organized a series of workshops whose authors and leaders were our teachers, school psychologists, librarians and external collaborators. We would like to single out the following workshops: CSI Umag, BrainGym, competitions in playing chess and sudoku, Music and dancing to mental health and wellbeing, getting to know the old Croatian Glagolitic Alphabet, ICT workshops, physical and mental relaxation workshops, “Clouds of Feelings”, “Wisdom of Colored Mirrors” and others. We offered teachers various professional lectures: the school psychologist gave a lecture on Gardner’s Theory of Multiple Intelligences and the Advantages and Disadvantages of Computer and Video Games, and drew conclusions from a series of workshops that she held in the Croatian school - “Think Positive - Feel Good”; the school coordinator pointed out to the benefits of learning through the lecture Project Based Learning, a prominent expert in early child development Dr. Ranko Rajović gave a lecture “NTC Access for Gifted Children”. His methodology of work emphasizes logical and critical thinking and solving problem tasks, in accordance with the recommendations of the Croatian school reform. A renowned professor and a Croatian expert on emotional intelligence, Vladimir Takšić, Professor Emeritus, Ph.D., gave a lecture to teachers on emotional intelligence at the Faculty of Philosophy in Rijeka - Department of Psychology. In addition to visiting the Faculty, a tour of Opatija and Rijeka, the European Capital of Culture for 2020, was organized for the guests, with an interactive workshop and a visit to the Planetarium at the Astronomy Center. We also organized a visit to the Umag City Hall, where our guests were welcomed by the Deputy Mayor of the City of Umag, Ivan Belušić and his associates. He introduced them to Umag through a video projection and presented the representatives of the visiting schools with the Monograph of the City of Umag. School representatives also presented him with gifts from their regions as a sign of remembrance of our project. We ended the working week by celebrating Valentine’s Day, at the Italian Cultural Center “Fulvio Tomizza” and after that, visited the Italian Elementary School “Galileo Galilei”, rode on a tourist train to the tourist resort of Katoro in Umag and, later in the evening, socialized at the school canteen with parents who had been hosting foreign students for a week.

During the workshops, students and teachers used a number of modern digital web 2.0 tools, such as: Kahoot, Wordwall, Learningapps, QR

codes, Storyjumper, Canva, Mentimer and others.

Image 4. *Brain Gym at our school library*



AGENDA OF THE PROJECT ACTIVITIES AT THE CROATIAN SCHOOL

Sunday, February 9th

Arrivals of partner school representatives.

Monday, February 10th

We started the Erasmus+ Love Life work week at our school. The first day work program consisted of the following activities:

For the introduction, we asked all participants how they felt, through the “Cloud of Feelings” activities in Mentimer tool, we played an interactive game “Love Life: Brain Gym” in the Wordwall tool, followed by workshops for students: “Trusting you, Trusting me”, Brain Power”, “Mental Wellbeing - The Wisdom of Color Mirrors”. It was followed by the school psychologist’s lecture for teachers: “Gardner’s Theory of Multiple Intelligences”, ICT workshops for teachers: “How to Use Canva, Storyjumper, Mentimer

and Wordwall”. After the lunch break, and a guided tour around Umag, a reception in the Town Hall was organized for all project participants and a guided tour of Umag.

Tuesday, February 11th

The second day’s work program included the following:

For teachers we organized a round table: “Learning Café and PBL Learning”, a lecture “For and Against Playing Computer Video Games”, a workshop for mental well-being “Wisdom of Color Mirrors”, for all participants - a workshop “Exploring our City - CSI Umag”, and only for students, a dance workshop “Dancing to Mental Health” and a music workshop: “Mozart’s Eine Kleine Mind Musik”, followed by BrainGym: Chess and Sudoku Competition and International Cultural and Social Evening. Teachers socialized at the Erasmus dinner in the traditional Istrian restaurant.

Wednesday, February 12th

The work program of the third day was conceived as follows:

We organized a workshop for students: “Discovering the Glagolitic Alphabet” in three parts. The first part consisted of an introduction to Glagolitic Alphabet and a Kahoot quiz, in the second part the students had fun through a memory game, and during the third part, students made bracelets with their names in Glagolitic. Between this series of workshops, students could relax a bit through a volleyball match, and simultaneously, there were workshops for the teachers: “Mental Wellbeing - Tips and Tricks” (conclusions from a series of workshops held at the Croatian school “Think Positive - Feel Good”), “Mental Relaxation and Welfare” and after lunch break, the lecture “NTC Learning Approach for Gifted Students”. According to many, the highlight of the event was the above-mentioned lecture delivered by a prominent pedagogist, Dr. Ranko Rajović, “Approach to Learning and Teaching Gifted Children”, a world renowned expert on early childhood mental development and the founder of the NTC learning system (Nurturing Talented Children). In the evening, a film screening was organized for the students in the city cinema, under the auspices of the city of Umag and its agency for cultural events “Festum”.

Thursday, February 13th

On the fourth day, all-day field classes in Opatija and Rijeka were organized for all visiting teachers and students, as well as for the host students. At the Faculty of Philosophy, University of Rijeka - Department of Psychology, teachers had a lecture “Emotional Intelligence”, and students a workshop “Mental Wellbeing”. After sightseeing of Rijeka, we visited the Planetarium at the Center for Astronomy where everyone participated in an interactive workshop.

Friday, February 14th

Since the last day of our working week fell on Valentine’s Day, we took the opportunity to celebrate it in the hall of the Italian Community „F. Tomizza“ in Umag, through reading poems in acrostic and mesostics, anagrams and puzzles on the theme of love. The organization of the event was taken over by the School Library. The program was as follows: Music program, “My Sweet Valentine”, followed by reading the best works dedicated to various types of love (songs in acrostic and mesostic; puzzles, anagrams, puzzles). After the program, we visited the Italian Elementary School “Galileo Galilei”, and the whole week was rounded up with the gathering of visiting and host teachers and students with their host parents at our school canteen, where some local, homemade snacks were offered to the visiting students and teachers.

Saturday, February 15th

Departure of partner school representatives.

DISSEMINATION AND FOLLOW UP

Dissemination activities are a key factor in disseminating project news in Erasmus+ projects. To disseminate successfully, articles about the mobility in Umag were published on the school website, official website of the City of Umag, official website of the project, eTwinning platform, YouTubechannel, official Facebook page of the project, Pinterest platform, in the local and regional press, on numerous local web portals, social networks and newspapers for educators. An article about the project was also

published on Wikipedia, the results were posted on the EU dissemination platform and published on the official website of the Council of Europe.

We were praised by the main project coordinator from Germany and all partner schools for the organization, logistics and well-structured and interesting work programs for students and teachers. Pupils and host parents also picked up words of praise from the visiting students. One Greek student said on her departure that this was the most memorable week of her life. Foreign teachers were delighted with the interactive lecture delivered by Dr. Rajović. After the departure of the representatives of foreign schools, we received articles published in newspapers and portals in Italy and Germany in which the experience in our city was discussed in superlatives. Meeting different cultures and newly acquired friendships gave a special contribution to this project and provided everyone with an unforgettable experience.

Link to the Elementary School Marije i Line Umag school website:

http://www.os-marijeiline-umag.skole.hr/skola/erasmus_love_life

Link to the official website of the project “Love Life” and the Croatian module „Love your Mind“ : <https://lovelifemodule4.blogspot.com>

Links to platforms in the “Padlet” tool that contain Croatian results for the Love your Mind module: <https://padlet.com/rsben/BrainGamesCroatiaLL><https://padlet.com/rsben/LLBrainWeek>

Evaluation of the Croatian mobility by all participants:

<https://www.yumpu.com/xx/document/view/63132154/evaluation>

On February 28, 2020, a book published by the Branch of *Matrix Croatica* was presented in the Blue Hall of our School, entitled *U zagrljaju mora - Riječi. Riči. Beside. Parole.*

224

It is actually a collection of student literary and artistic works and photographs gathered in twelve school years, students' generations 2005 to 2017 in the Subschool of Petrovija, which shows the involvement of students in various activities, workshops, competitions and festivals, involvement in Comenius and Erasmus+ projects, Native teaching and all other implemented school subjects, to show the contents realized in classroom and outside of it. The aim is to develop students' interest, curiosity, and encourage them to research and popularize their homeland.

The author also wanted to show life in a multicultural society that

imposes the need to rethink the role of homeland and valorization of homeland values and the preservation of cultural heritage through the education system. To love one's homeland means to love the people, nature, history and future not only of one's birthplace, village, city, but also beyond, preserving one's regional wealth and our regional uniqueness. With this book, a collection of students' works, the intention is to encourage the assessment of native values and preservation of cultural and historical heritage of the region, to encourage other students and adults to experience and become aware of the complexity, diversity and interconnectedness of all factors operating in human natural and social environment, to develop a proper attitude towards people and events and to develop personal, national and homeland identity, and at the same time to preserve the identity of the minorities and of the majority, which contributes to the development of sensitivity and intercultural dialogue, as well as multiculturalism.

The author would like to emphasize the unselfish cooperation of all teachers, but also of the external stakeholders, like the residents of Petrovija, members of the local community and students' parents to whom she is immensely grateful for their support in the finalization of this wonderful collection.

In fact, that magical environment she was surrounded with - the students and people she used to work with, greatly encouraged her to create this book.

The book was printed in 200 copies, and there was so much interest in it that not a single copy was left in a few days. We therefore hope that more sponsors will be found who will enable its printing and thus enable the children of Umag, and other interested parties, to enjoy reading it, and be embraced by the sea. The fortunate fact was that we managed to finalize everything just before the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic.

This is the link of the book in pdf form: <https://edutorij.e-skole.hr/share/page/document-details?nodeRef=workspace://SpacesStore/af432915-ead7-4ae5-848b-f20c9c9c7c8b>

Image 5. *Presentation of the book at our school*



Image 6. *Presentation of the book*



CONCLUSION

Our main goal was to convince young people that they can do a lot to feel fulfilled and happy and help them develop life skills and self-confidence. We strongly believe that the project *Love Life* was a successful one and that it helped the participating students and teachers to be motivated and achieve some useful skills and competences which will help them in their future studies and careers.

This way of learning through project work is very motivating for all. Of a number of benefits, I would highlight the development of communication and language skills, critical thinking and problem solving, teamwork and respect for other cultures, which will one day make our young participants full citizens of Europe.

To conclude, this video made by the German team in Croatia speaks more than a thousand words: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=O_W1ryhXw8Y&t=11s

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PROJEKTI ERASMUS+: AKTIVNOSTI NA ŠKOLSKOJ, LOKALNOJ I MEĐUNARODNOJ RAZINI ZA VRIJEME I NAKON ZAVRŠETKA PROJEKTA

SAŽETAK

Erasmus+ Projekt „Love Life“ promiče važnost emocionalne inteligencije, a nastao je spoznajom da je današnjim generacijama sve teže pronaći sebe i razvijati vrijednosti koje im omogućuju napredak u društvu. Projekt se bavi emocionalnom inteligencijom kroz pet modula i potiče društveno, emocionalno, fizičko, mentalno i duhovno blagostanje kod svih sudionika.

U veljači 2020. bili smo vrlo uspješni domaćini učenicima i učiteljima partnerskih škola iz Njemačke, Poljske, Grčke i Italije. Naša škola je u projektu bila zadužena za rezultate modula „Love your Mind“ (Voli svoj um) te smo za goste pripremili raznovrsne radionice na temu mentalnog i emocionalnog blagostanja. Želja nam je predstaviti način organizacije ovakvog Erasmus+ međunarodnog događanja na školskoj te sudjelovanje na lokalnoj i međunarodnoj razini.

Zahvaljujući mnogobrojnim projektima te sudjelovanju u međunarodnim Erasmus+ projektima P.L.A.C.E.S. i „Love Life“ tiskana je i lokalnoj zajednici predstavljena knjiga *“U zagrljaju mora – Riječi. Beside. Riči. Parole*, učiteljice razredne nastave i mentorice Aurike Matković.

Ključne riječi: Erasmus+ projekt, emocionalna inteligencija, društveno, tjelesno, mentalno i duhovno blagostanje

INTERPRETATION OF THE LEXICAL- SEMANTIC LAYER OF THREE POMET'S MONOLOGUES

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ABSTRACT

The language of literary works of 16th century Shtokavian Dubrovnik authors had been changing in accordance with societal and political changes. Everyday commingling of various languages, cultures and customs painted the linguistic picture of Dubrovnik's streets, and this peculiar form of street speech was embraced and turned into an authentic literary expression by Marin Držić.

Držić's works reflect the interference of speech characteristics of Dubrovnik's urban settings of the time with local idioms of rural surroundings. In such a way Držić affirmed the common language of the people, i.e. vernacular, and created a particular but recognisable language and dramatic expression understandable to all tiers of society of the time. To a young reader, the language of Držić's works is archaic, so difficulty in its understanding is not surprising.

This paper offers interpretation of the lexical-semantics of three Pomet's monologues from the comedy *Dundo Maroje*, explains the lexemes unintelligible to the today's reader and encourages care for literary cultural heritage.

Keywords: 16th century, Dubrovnik, language, Marin Držić, lexical-semantics

INTRODUCTION

Language is a social phenomenon and as such cannot be separated from societal influences as every greater shift in society brings transformation in the respective language and culture. Language conforms to life; it changes and adjusts to the society's needs as a living organism. Some words become obsolete and are forgotten; others remain and gain completely new meanings.

The language of the 16th century Dubrovnik entails characteristics of archaic western Shtokavian which gradually transformed into new Shtokavian, although in speech and writing it still remained present for a long time. However, apart from the old Shtokavian system, other various influences were merged in Dubrovnik. As Dubrovnik was the economic and cultural centre, apart from the common city speech spoken in its streets, one could hear the speech of peasants from surrounding areas commingled with the speech of Montenegrins, Herzegovinians, Italians and other foreigners.

The subject of this paper is interpretation of the lexical-semantic layer parts of three Pomet's monologues from Držić's *Dundo Maroje*. The paper singles out the lexis unknown to the standard language. The main reason for reflection on the topic is desire to find possible ways of motivating high school students for reading the works of Marin Držić, as they have all the necessary features of becoming close to the students regarding the world view- if only they could understand them. It is important to note that the singled out archaisms and obsolete words mostly do not belong to the standard Croatian language, but to the Dubrovnik idiom.

THE LANGUAGE OF MARIN DRŽIĆ'S WORKS

Marin Držić (1508 – 1567) is the most renowned Croatian Renaissance literary author and surely the greatest Croatian playwright/comediographer. Apart from comedies, his literary work entails poems, pastorals, one tragedy and non-literary texts, wherein the most known are probably his political texts, i.e. conspiracy letters addressed to Duke Cosimo de Medici (Čale, 1971). Držić's works can be studied from many different aspects, and one of them is language.

As early as a child, Marin Držić spoke Italian along with Croatian, and at that time the comedies of Plautus were read in the Latin original. Držić later encountered German, Turkish and various South Slavic idioms on his journeys, and to a certain degree he also used Greek, Albanian and Arabic. His works bear numerous evidence of this, wherein he skilfully intertwines various Croatian idioms with foreign languages. He frequently uses distorted Latin language, commonly called Macaronic Latin, which he takes in a changed form from some other language, most often Italian.

Although he was fluent in various Italian dialects, in his works Držić uses Venetian and southern Italian dialectalisms more than the Florentine speech. Držić also uses language as the main means of characterisation of his protagonists: the mixture of Croatian and dialectal Italian or Italian language spoken with German accent are only some examples of the impressive presentation of his characters' multilingualism (Lisac, 2007). In only five of his comedies (*Dundo Maroje*, *Skup*, *Arkulin*, *Tripče de Utolče*, *Pjerin*), about ninety characters speak various languages and dialects (Josić, 2017).

Držić broke from the literary tradition based on Petrarchan discourse and used Dubrovnik city speech to form a particular literary language. Besides the speech of the city, he included into his comedies the speech of peasants from Dubrovnik's outback, so it is clear such language could not have been homogenous (Lisac, 2007). This linguistic diversity of Dubrovnik's streets was unified in the particular language expression which became an integral part of Držić's unique drama language.

INTERPRETATION OF THE LEXICAL-SEMANTIC LAYER PARTS OF THREE POMET'S MONOLOGUES¹

234

The renowned Pomet's monologues from the comedy *Dundo Maroje* were chosen for interpretation: monologue *O hrani* (*About Food*), monologue *O pacijenciji* (*About Patience*) and monologue *O Fortuni* (*About Fortune*). In the mentioned texts, archaic words are interpreted, i.e. lexemes which cannot be revitalised in the active lexis because they have been

1 The research described in this paper is part of a study conducted in the process of writing the first author's graduation thesis.

replaced with the appropriate synonyms. We singled out the Latinisms and Italianisms, i.e. loanwords and borrowings, but at the same time a couple of lexemes which survived half a century and remained in use till today as regionalisms. According to the National Curriculum (2006) and the Curriculum for the Subject Croatian Language (2019), Držić's work *Dundo Maroje* is assigned for fragmentary interpretation in the second grade of grammar and vocational secondary schools.

INTERPRETATION OF THE LEXICAL-SEMANTIC LAYER OF THE MONOLOGUE "ABOUT FOOD"

Table 1 presents the lexemes from Pomet's monologue *About Food*, from the first scene of the second act of *Dundo Maroje* (Dončević, 1964, p. 222), which are not part of the standard language of today and are more difficult for the reader to understand. The lexemes are interpreted in order they appear in the text, and the used sources for interpretation are M. Ratković's *Dictionary in The Five Centuries of Croatian Literature* (Dončević, 1964, p. 321), the online *Dictionary* of Držić's works published on the Carnet's portal *e-Required Reading* (<https://lektire.skole.hr>) and *Etimology Dictionary of Serbo-Croatian Lanugage* by Petar Skoko (Skok, 1971).

Table 1. Interpretation of the lexis from Pomet's monologue "About Food" (Korošec, 2020, p. 28)

Lexeme	Semantic determinant
<i>namuran</i> (Ital. <i>innamorarsi</i>)	in love
<i>tko je namuran nije sam</i>	the one in love is not himself
<i>nut, nuti</i>	see, lo, behold
<i>judicijo</i> (Lat. <i>iudicium</i> , Ital. <i>giudizio</i>)	brain, wit
<i>trpeza</i> (Gr. <i>trápeza</i>)	dining table
<i>pjat</i> (Ital. <i>piatto</i>)	plate
<i>kapun</i> (Ital. <i>cappone</i>)	capon, neutered rooster
<i>prigati</i> (Lat. <i>frigere</i>)	fry
<i>isprigan</i>	fried
<i>hrusta</i> (Ital. <i>crosta</i>)	crust on a roast
<i>oblahan</i>	rounded, diminutive from <i>obao</i>
<i>uresiti</i>	decorate, embellish
<i>peča</i> (Ital. <i>pezzo</i>)	piece
<i>vitelje meso</i> (Ital. <i>vitello</i>)	veal
<i>peča vitelja mesa od mlijeka</i>	piece of meat from a young calf still sucking milk
<i>larad, lardo</i> (gen. <i>larda</i> , Ital. <i>lardo</i>)	bacon
<i>lardica</i>	slice of bacon, diminutive from <i>larad</i>
<i>nazadijevan</i>	stuffed, filled
<i>garofalić</i> (Ital. <i>chiodo di garofano</i>)	clove, type of spice
<i>prolitje</i>	spring
<i>plitica</i>	bowl, plate
<i>kosović</i>	blackbird
<i>turdus inter avibus</i> (Lat. <i>turdus inter aves</i>)	thrush (among birds)
<i>parati</i> (Ital. <i>parere</i>)	to seem, to appear
<i>uhititi</i>	catch
<i>veras</i> (gen. <i>versa</i> , Ital. <i>verso, versetto</i>)	verse
<i>pjeti</i> (prez. <i>pojem</i>)	sing
<i>kontemplacijon</i> (Ital. <i>contemplazione</i>)	observation, consideration, contemplation
<i>stati u kontemplaciji</i>	to reflect, to contemplate
<i>delicije</i> (Lat. <i>deliciae</i> , Ital. <i>delizia</i>)	enjoyment, delight, rapture
<i>in estasis</i> (Lat.)	in ecstasy

By analysing the lexemes from Pomet's monologue *About Food*, it was established that from the today's perspective the presented lexemes belong to non-standard lexis among which almost half are Italianisms and Latinisms.

Amongst the native non-standard lexis are the following: adjectives *oblahan*, *nazadijevan*; nouns *plitica*, *kosović*, *prolitje*; verb *uhititi* and particle *nut*.

Amongst the Italianisms and Latinisms are: adjectives *isprigan*, *namuran*; nouns *hrusta*, *peča*, *judicijo*, *pjat*, *kapun*, *vitelje meso*, *lardica*, *garofalić*, *veras*, *kontemplacijon*, *delicije*; verb *parati*; phraseme *turdus inter avibus* and syntagma *in estasis*.

Lexeme *trpeza* („dining table“) is of Greek origin. It denotes the table at which dining takes place, where not only main meals are served but also all that is offered for eating or drinking; holiday dining table is usually richer than the everyday's. It is important to note that the lexeme also provided an origin for the name of the central character in the comedy *Dundo Maroje*, and it has additionally emphasised the characterization of Pomet *Trpeza* as a man of insatiable appetite *ki kao metlom mete bokune s trapeze* („who clears morsels off the dining table as with a broom“²) (Bačmaga, 2011).

The verb *uhititi* („arrest“), whose initial meaning was „catch“, exists in today's standard language in a somewhat changed, but still similar semantic respect which signifies „taking a person's freedom for penal-legal reasons“.

It is important to single out the lexemes which remained in use even today in some regional dialects, most frequently of the Chakavian idiom. These are nouns *pjat*, *hrusta*, *delicije*, and adjective *isprigan*.

INTERPRETATION OF THE LEXICAL-SEMANTIC LAYER IN THE MONOLOGUE “ABOUT PATIENCE”

237

Table 2 presents the lexemes from Pomet's monologue *About Patience*, from the first scene of the second act of *Dundo Maroje* (Dončević, 1964, pp. 223-224). The lexemes are interpreted in the order they appear in the text.

2 „who clears morsels off the dining table as with a broom“ is literal translation of the line from the comedy, for which the English idiom is „eat like a horse“.

As sources for interpretation we used M. Ratković's *Dictionary in Five Centuries of Croatian Literature*, Book 6, edited by I. Dončević (Dončević, 1964, p. 321), the online *Dictionary of Marin Držić's works* published on the Carnet's portal *e-Required Reading* (<https://lektire.skole.hr>) and *Etimology Dictionary of Serbo-Croatian Language* by Petar Skok (Skok, 1971).

Table 2. Interpretation of the lexis from *Pomet's monologue "About Patience"* (Korošec, 2020, p. 30)

Lexeme	Semantic determinant
<i>ma</i> (Ital. <i>ma</i>)	but
<i>brijeme</i> (gen. <i>brjemena</i> i <i>bremena</i>)	time
<i>akomodavati se, akomodati se</i> (Ital. <i>accomodare</i>)	to adjust, manage, deal, settle, accommodate, make oneself comfortable
<i>ma se je trijeba s brjemenom akomodavat vjertuož</i> (Lat. <i>virtuosus</i> , Ital. <i>virtuoso</i>)	but one should adjust to the times artist, resourceful, capable, endowed virtuous, chaste,
<i>renjati</i> (Ital. <i>regnare</i>)	to rule, reign
<i>dinar</i>	money, small silver coins
<i>nije ga imat dinâr</i>	it is not enough to only have money
<i>potišten</i>	supressed, rejected, oppressed, common
<i>doktur</i> (Lat. <i>doctor</i>)	scholar, wise man, teacher
<i>brigata</i> (Ital. <i>brigata</i>)	company, fellowship
<i>fantastik</i> (Ital. <i>fantastico</i>)	fantastic, strange, weird, unusual; weirdo
<i>večekrat, večkrat</i>	more times, often
<i>oriti</i>	to demolish
<i>pijer</i>	feast, wedding
<i>operati</i> (Ital. <i>operare</i>)	to operate, work, act
<i>operati koga</i>	to use someone, dispose
<i>bastah</i> (Lat. <i>bastasius</i>)	carrier
<i>iždeniti</i>	driven away by force
<i>mužik</i> (Ital. <i>musico</i>)	musician, singer
<i>tizijeh, tizijem</i>	(from) these, (to) these
<i>er tizijeh družu čine pjet</i>	because they are forced to sing by others
<i>pacijent</i> (Ital. <i>paziente</i>)	patient (adj.)
<i>ugoditi zlu brjemenu</i>	to adjust to trouble, manage in adversity
<i>kami</i>	stone
<i>svakijem kami</i>	with everyone (always conduct yourself according to the situation)
<i>bareta</i> (Ital. <i>berretta</i>)	cap
<i>čijera</i> (Ital. <i>cera</i>)	facial appearance, facial expression
<i>volentijero</i> (Ital. <i>volentieri</i>)	gladly (comp. <i>volentjerije</i>)
<i>opraviti</i>	to do, perform, arrange, fix
<i>konselj</i> (Ital. <i>consiglio</i>)	advice, counsel
<i>meritati</i> (Ital. <i>meritare</i>)	to deserve, merit
<i>profuman</i> (Ital. <i>profumato</i>)	scented, perfumed
<i>galantarija</i> (Ital. <i>galanteria</i>)	decency, courtesy, kindness, servility, refinement, decoration
<i>dispos</i> (f.g. <i>disposta</i> , Ital. <i>disposto</i>)	joyful, ready, prepared, disposed

In the analysis of the lexemes from the second monologue, it was established that the non-standard lexis encompasses more than a half of Italianisms and Latinisms.

Amongst the unknown lexis in the second monologue are: nouns *brijeme*, *pijer*, *kami*; adjective *potišten*; adverb *većekrat*; verbs *oriti*, *iždeniti* and *opraviti*.

Lexeme *pijer* (standardly *pir*) is singled out because it could probably be unknown to some students although it is not a lexical but a phonological characteristic.

Italianisms and Latinisms are: verbs *akomodavati*, *renjati*, *operati*, *meritati*; nouns *vjertuoz*, *doktur*, *brigata*, *bastah*, *mužik*, *bareta*, *čijera*, *konselj*, *galantarija*; adjectives *fantastik*, *pacijent*, *profuman*, *dispos*, linking word *ma* and adverb *volentijero*.

The lexemes we hear today in local and regional speech are nouns *dinar* and *doktur*.

The obsolete word *dinar* appeared and disappeared several times throughout history and nowadays it is used in many areas across Croatia as a substitute word for „money“.

The expression *er tizijeh druzi čine pjat* contains the non-standard form of a numerical adjective *druzi*. Although in itself it is not lexically special, the phonological phenomenon that makes it different from the standard version is confirmed in it. Clearly, it is second palatalization.

The demonstrative pronoun *tizijeh* (*tizijem*) is also found in the previous monologue as a version of *tjezijeh* (*tjezijem*). It is a demonstrative pronoun in which a phonological change occurred reflecting the vowel *yat* as Ijekavian, as opposed to the standard language in which it reflects as Ikavian, and alongside this, the lexeme entails the inserted phoneme *z*. In the same way we interpret the negative verb form *nijesu* (*nisu* in the standard language) from the previous monologue, which is also an example of the Ijekavian reflex of *yat*.

The lexemes used in standard language today, although in an entirely changed semantic respect, are *potišten*, *oriti* and *pacijent*. The adjective *potišten* originally signified the attribute of suppression, rejection or subordination. The verb *oriti* has changed its original meaning over time from „demolish“ to „spread, resonate, echo“. Lexeme *pacijent* has transformed, along with the change in meaning, to another word type: adjective *pacijent*,

with its original meaning „patient“, functions in the today's standard as a noun having no common semantic characteristics with the archaism. We remark that in the Italian language (as in English: patient) the same word denotes “strpljiv” and “pacijent” (*paziente*).

INTERPRETATION OF THE LEXICAL-SEMANTIC LAYER IN THE MONOLOGUE “ABOUT FORTUNE”

Table 3 presents the lexemes from Pomet's monologue *About Fortune*, from the third scene of the fourth act of *Dudo Maroje* (Dončević, 1964, pp. 286-287). The lexemes are once again interpreted in the order they appear in the text.

As before, the sources of interpretation were M. Ratković's *Dictionary in Five Centuries of Croatian Literature*, Book 6, edited by I. Dončević (Dončević, 1964, p. 321), the online *Dictionary* of Marin Držić's works published on the Carnet's portal *e-Required Reading* (<https://lektire.skole.hr>) and *Etymology Dictionary of Serbo-Croatian Language* by Petar Skok (Skok, 1971).

Table 3. Interpretation of the lexis from Pomet's monologue "About Fortune" (Korošec, 2020, p. 32)

Lexeme	Semantic determinant
<i>fortuna</i> (Lat. <i>fortuna</i> , Ital. <i>fortuna</i>) <i>fortunu pišu ženom</i> čas	fortune, destiny, accident, tempest fortune is painted as a woman honour, feasting
<i>karecati</i> (Ital. <i>carezzare</i>) <i>scijeniti</i> <i>aposta</i> (Ital. <i>apposta</i>)	to stroke, caress to appreciate, think, hold, consider, respect on purpose, deliberately, precisely
<i>prosperitat</i> (Lat. <i>prosper</i> , Ital. <i>prosperità</i>) <i>već, veće</i> <i>bandeškati</i> (Ital. <i>bandire</i> , <i>bandisco</i>) <i>jeda</i> <i>bilj</i> <i>nazbilj</i> <i>vivanda</i> (Ital. <i>vivanda</i>) <i>mana</i> (Gr. <i>mánna</i> , Lat. <i>manna</i> , Heb. <i>mānā</i>) <i>pucati na nešto</i> <i>konsolati se</i> (Ital. <i>consolare</i>) <i>pacijencija</i> (Lat. <i>patientia</i> , Ital. <i>pazienza</i>) <i>primiti pacijenciju</i> <i>odsela</i> <i>pasati se</i> (Ital. <i>passare</i>)	prosperity more to chase off, forbid yes, oh yes reality, truth; indeed, truly (adv.) really, surely meal, food meal to smack one's lips from wanting something to console, calm oneself patience to bear with patience from now on to pass, be at peace with something, to satisfy oneself
<i>smanje</i> <i>meni se ne more smanje</i> <i>galant</i> (Ital. <i>galante</i>) <i>travaľja</i> (Ital. <i>travaglia</i>) <i>mrnar</i> (Lat. <i>marinarius</i>) <i>octika</i> (Lat. <i>acetum</i>) <i>octičica</i> <i>napinuti se</i> <i>provati</i> (Ital. <i>provare</i>)	different cannot do differently, have no other choice gallant, kind, polite, honest anguish, sorrow, accident, adversity, trouble sailor vinegar diminutive from <i>octika</i> to get tipsy to try out, taste, try, test, suffer, feel
<i>mavasija</i> (Ital. <i>malvasia</i>) <i>mavasijica</i> <i>ukrop</i> <i>gustati</i> (Ital. <i>gustare</i>) <i>gustati što</i> <i>fadžan</i> (Ital. <i>fagiano</i>) <i>adversitat</i> (Ital. <i>adversità</i>) <i>onorati</i> (Ital. <i>onorare</i>) <i>ne čine ga se vidjet</i> <i>tenereca</i> (Ital. <i>tenerazza</i>) <i>pateškati</i> (Ital. <i>patire</i> , <i>patisco</i>) <i>kigodi</i>	Malvazija, type of white wine diminutive from <i>mavasija</i> cabbage or brine soup enjoy to enjoy something, relish pheasant misfortune, adversity honour, appreciate they pretend not to see him compassion, tenderness, gentleness suffer whoever, whichever, some, someone

<i>speranca</i> (Ital. <i>speranza</i>)	hope
<i>kako</i>	as, how
<i>dunižati, dunižati</i> (Ital. <i>donneggiare</i> , <i>corteggiare donne</i>)	to court, sigh, kiss, make out, love someone I kissed, I made out with, I courted
<i>njeka koju dunižah</i>	to make a nice face, pretend
<i>činiti dobru čijeru</i>	to welcome someone with signs of benevolence (repulsion)
<i>činiti komu dobru (zlu) čijeru</i>	one moment they show a cheerful, the other an evil face
<i>sad mi dobru čijeru činjaše a sad zlu</i>	to laugh (at something)
<i>smijejati se (od čega)</i>	as I am concerned
<i>koliko za mene</i>	spirit, soul, courage, heartiness
<i>animo</i> (Ital. <i>animo</i>)	companion (meaning stomach)
<i>kompanj</i> (Ital. <i>compagno</i>)	to slander, defame, smear
<i>napanjkati</i>	when, right after, just, as soon as
<i>kom, kome</i>	traitors, run away from my house
<i>traditor, fuggir casa mia</i> (Ital. <i>traditore</i> , <i>fuggi da casa mia</i>)	you stand, you watch
<i>ti štar, ti quartar</i> (Ital. <i>tu sta, tu guarda</i>)	large knife, sword, sabre
<i>korda</i> (Lat. <i>chorda</i> , Ital. <i>corda</i>)	augmentative from <i>korda</i>
<i>kordetina</i>	German
<i>tudeški</i> (Ital. <i>tedesco</i>)	the German way
<i>na tudešku</i>	hand over
<i>prjedati</i>	to rush, hurry
<i>prjedati nogama</i>	great Catholic fast from Shrove Tuesday till Easter
<i>korizma</i> (Lat. <i>quadragesima</i>)	Two have threatened my life with guns today.
<i>Dvojica mi se je danaska oružjem života</i> <i>hitala.</i>	fiend, robber, rascal
<i>ribalad</i> (gen. <i>ribaoda</i> , Ital. <i>ribaldo</i>)	all are thieves here
<i>ovdi ide od ribaoda do ribaoda</i>	there
<i>ovo</i>	run away
<i>škvati</i> (Ital. <i>schivare</i>)	

Somewhat more than a half of non-standard linguistic lexemes from the third monologue are Italianisms and Latinisms.

242 Native non-standard lexis includes the following: nouns *čas*, *ukrop*; verbs *scijeniti*, *napinuti se*, *smijejati se*, *napanjkati*, *prjedati*; adverbs *veće*, *bilj*, *nazbilj*, *odesela*, *smanje*, *kom*; indefinite pronoun *kigodi*, particle *ovo* and phrasemes *pucati na nešto* and *prjedati nogama*.

It is important to point out that the lexeme *čas* also belongs to the standard language, but the form is different because the ending is truncated, which leads to the conclusion of this not being a lexical, but phonetic change always confirmed in the Dubrovnik speech in case of such endings (-*st*).

The Italianisms and Latinisms are: nouns *mrnar*, *octičica*, *mavasijica*, *kordetina*, *fortuna*, *prosperitat*, *vivanda*, *mana*, *pacijencija*, *travalja*, *fadžan*,

adversitat, tenereca, speranca, animo, kompanj, ribalad; verbs *šktivati, karecati, bandeškati, konsolati se, pasati se, provati, onorati, pateškati, dunižati*; adjectives *galant* and *tudeški* and adverb *aposta*.

It is interesting how the loanword *mrnar* is confirmed in Dubrovnik speech precisely without the middle vowel (as opposed to the standard *mornar*).

Examples *traditor, fuggir casa mia* (Ital. *traditore, fuggi da casa mia*) and *ti štar, ti quartar* (Ital. *tu sta, tu guarda*), are examples of foreign sentences, not Italianisms. It is a case of transferring codes.

In the Biblical sense, lexeme *mana* marked miraculous food falling from the sky to feed the Jews during their refuge in Sinai Desert, while generally *mana nebeska* („heavenly food“) delineates „something unexpected coming at the best time“ (Hjp.novi-liber.hr, 2021).

CONCLUSION

In order to observe the changes in language, we should know what our language was like before the changes occurred. Renaissance Shtokavian writers paved the way to the development of literary language, and very soon the first signs of standardisation started to emerge. Marin Držić played a major role in the history of Croatian language. He is the classic of our literature, the author of comedies touring theatres worldwide, a man far ahead of his time, never acknowledged deservedly.

As a polyglot, Držić was extremely prone to languages and shaped his literary language so it was intelligible to all tiers of society. In the texts written in the mother language of Dubrovnik, he competently included not only various Croatian idioms but also other languages. With colourful language freed from refinement and careful choice of linguistic means, Držić skilfully painted the character of his protagonists through dialogues and monologues. His world view, portrayed through the eyes of a servant, was visible precisely in the ingenious choice of lexemes.

This work deals with interpretation of the lexical-semantic layer parts of three Pomet's monologues from Držić's *Dundo Maroje*.

The interpretation of three Pomet's monologues from *Dundo Maroje* has explained, viewed from the today's perspective, the lexemes unintelligible to the contemporary speaker. Once more from the present

day's perspective, it was ascertained that the studied lexemes were mostly archaisms, but Italianisms and Latinisms were also present. Furthermore, the lexemes were singled out which are still alive today in some regional and local languages, and the ones used in the standard language today, but in an entirely altered semantic regard.

Contemplation on the topic has raised many interesting questions, among others the question of whether high school students would like Držić's works which have all the necessary prerequisites of becoming close to them regarding the world view, if only they had no difficulties in understanding the text. It is possible that this would happen, but we cannot know the answer without implementing research that would offer students the translation of a work by Držić and examine their attitudes towards the read text.

However, there is a realistic fear that the works would lose their authenticity in translation and thereby their value, leaving readers deprived of a wealthy experience of the original Držić's Dubrovnik. For the real, authentic experience of the work, it should nevertheless be read in the original. In that case we should endeavour to preserve and care for this archaic language which is a moment away from oblivion.

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INTERPRETACIJA LEKSIČKO-SEMANTIČKOGA SLOJA TRIJU POMETOVIH MONOLOGA

SAŽETAK

Jezik književnih djela štokavskih dubrovačkih autora 16. stoljeća mijenjao se u skladu s društveno-političkim promjenama. Svakodnevno miješanje različitih jezika, kultura i običaja utjecalo je na jezičnu sliku dubrovačkih ulica, a taj osebujan govor ulice prigrlio je Marin Držić pretvorivši ga u autentičan književni izraz.

U Držićevim djelima uočljiva je interferencija govora ondašnje dubrovačke, urbane sredine s lokalnim idiomima ruralne okoline. Na taj je način afirmirao narodni jezik te stvorio osebujan, ali i prepoznatljiv jezični i dramski izričaj, razumljiv svim slojevima tadašnjega društva. Jezik Držićevih djela suvremenom mladom čitatelju je arhaičan i razumljive su poteškoće pri razumijevanju njegovih djela.

U radu se nudi interpretacija leksičko-semantičkoga sloja triju Pometovih monologa iz komedije Dundo Maroje, tumače se leksemi nerazumljivi današnjemu čitatelju i potiče se na skrb o književnoj kulturnoj baštini.

Ključne riječi: 16. stoljeće, Dubrovnik, jezik, Marin Držić, leksičko-semantički sloj

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KANT AND ROUSSEAU – FOUNDATIONAL THINKERS OF COSMOPOLITAN EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Although cosmopolitanism as a political idea has been given serious consideration in modern political philosophy and political theory, the same cannot be said regarding cosmopolitan education, which is oftentimes understood as a non-essential addition to cosmopolitan theory. This paper argues that such a viewpoint is strongly mistaken, as cosmopolitan education is an essential part of the “cosmopolitical project”, which will be evidenced by providing the accounts of important early cosmopolitan thinkers such as Kant and Rousseau. In the final part, the paper will compare and analyze their views on cosmopolitanism and education, which were a strong influence on the entire Enlightenment period, in order to provide direction on how cosmopolitan education can still promote the “perfectability of the human race” and become the foundation of the global cosmopolitical project that is based on peace, justice, and democracy.

Keywords: cosmopolitan education, cosmopolitics, Kant, Rousseau, cosmopolitanism

It is no mystery that the world we are living in is rapidly changing. The year 2020 could so far be the strongest evidence of the social phenomenon we call globalization – a continuous “shrinkage” of our world by a myriad of different forces such as economy, technology, transport... Yet globalization also has another important characteristic, and that is the increasing awareness of our mutual interconnectedness. Globalization is at the same time a blessing and a curse. All those forces have the capacity of making our lives better, but as was recently evidenced by the rapid spread of the pandemic, also much worse.

We could certainly argue that globalization is not a new phenomenon. People have traveled across the world and come into contact with each other from the dawn of time, but the significant change appeared in more recent times, as the awareness of global connectivity became more clearly formulated in the second half of the twentieth century, when terms such as “globalism”, “globality” or “globalization” began to be used to describe it. The concept itself gained momentum in academic circles during the 1980s and became increasingly present even in public discourse during the 1990s. The current proliferation of globalization debates is more than a passing fashion. The popularity of the term itself clearly points to the widespread intuition that the social relations of our time have taken on a significant new characteristic.

Parallel with the development of globalization theory, another interesting thing happened – the philosophical idea of cosmopolitanism was revived. Here it should briefly be noted that the cosmopolitan idea itself is not recent. Its roots are over two thousand years old, whose starting points can be found in Ancient Greece with Diogenes’ defiant refusal to obey the laws of the ancient polis,¹ and also in the later development of ethical teachings of the Stoic philosophical school. The history of cosmopolitanism is long and varied, full of ups and downs, intense periods of research and debate and periods of oblivion, but also filled with prominent philosophical names who have dealt with this idea of human solidarity across imposed borders.

Nevertheless, this paper will focus on the period of the last thirty years, which has experienced an unprecedented interest in cosmopolitanism.

1 Diogenes Laertius, *Lives of the Eminent Philosophers*, Oxford University Press, 2018.

The parallel rise of cosmopolitan and globalization theory came about as theorists reflecting on the effects of globalization saw the growing need to philosophically answer new questions on global human connectedness, to which a concept that called for world unity two millennia ago seemed most appropriate. Therefore, we should be aware that renewed scientific interest in the idea of cosmopolitanism is perhaps only an attempt to ideologically justify, that is, to give a theoretical basis to the process of globalization. Still, with the historical changes that led to the end of bipolar global politics, this idea had significant influence in the political arena. An increasing number of not just scholars but representatives of civil society and governments started “dreaming aloud” about the new phase in the political development of our world, a phase of global democracy.

Cosmopolitics, or the project of democratic governance of the world, is often faced with the question – is there, owing to the increasing globalization and associated cosmopolitanization of society, a basis for establishing a cosmopolitan political community? Have the technological advances in communication, means of transport and international trade succeeded in creating a material basis for a global society? And if there is already a global society, is its sense of solidarity strong enough to build on this basis not just international, but true world institutions?

From our position, cosmopolitics still seems to be a utopian project, not just because of the lack in the development of the global society, but also due to the lack of confidence in the existing models of democracy. The growing decline of nation-state importance and the diminishing of their sovereign decision-making power are making this issue increasingly politically important. Is it possible to transfer civil rights from the national to the supranational (like the European Union) and consequently to the entire cosmopolitan community? Will that political community be liberal and democratic, or will it be a dictatorship?

Therefore, proponents of cosmopolitan democracy call for a rethinking of democratic theory and restructuring of the institutional world organization along democratic lines. Democratic procedures and decision making should permeate the global economic and political systems, so that individuals could act as world citizens and hold accountable those institutions that affect their lives. Cosmopolitical theorists have already provided a series of declarations and proposals for the establishment of

this form of government and we could say that they are now “just waiting” for the birth of a cosmopolitan political public that could accomplish these proposals.

To better understand this contemporary “cosmopolitan renaissance”, it is necessary to give some historical context. The starting point for political cosmopolitanism is Immanuel Kant and the teachings he presented in his political essays “Perpetual Peace: A Philosophical Sketch”², and “Idea for Universal History with Cosmopolitan Purpose”³. Kant not only provided a turning point in the cosmopolitan thinking of his time, but he also very clearly pointed out the problem that cosmopolitanism still faces today: “*The greatest problem for the human species, the solution of which nature compels him to seek, is that of attaining a civil society which can administer justice universally.*”⁴

Kant’s aspiration to establish a “civil society governed by common law”, that is, a cosmopolitan society organized according to what he calls cosmopolitan law, is fueled by the belief that only by cultivating our global environment can individuals achieve all their natural potentials. Although the Enlightenment ideals advocated by Kant have somewhat lost their luster in an age that likes to think of itself as postmodern, his proposition could still be considered as valid. Even if we remove morality from our judgment and approach this problem from a purely pragmatic standpoint, it is frightening to think how much humanity loses every year just because more than two billion people live in “unhappier” places around the globe and their main concern is not science, art or the wellbeing of others, but rather mere survival on the brink of poverty and hunger.

The political cosmopolitanism of our time can be found primarily in the theory of international relations, which seeks to separate this aspect from its political-philosophical, and in Kant’s case certainly from the moral-philosophical basis, and turn it into a science dealing with the technique of governing power, or global governance. Contemporary authors who approach this problem from a philosophical point of view generally try to

2 Immanuel Kant, “Perpetual Peace: A Philosophical Sketch”, *Political Writings*, Cambridge University Press, 1991.

3 Immanuel Kant, “Idea for Universal History with Cosmopolitan Purpose”, *Political Writings*, Cambridge University Press, 1991.

4 Ibid, p. 45

point to the roots of this discipline, although there are significant differences between them. A portion of political cosmopolitans advocate some type of centralized world state, while others favor a federal system with a globally encompassing body of limited power. Yet others would like more limited international political institutions that focus on strictly defined issues, such as the UN Millennium Development Goals. Prominent philosophical discussions of the international political order continue Kant's legacy, as do the works of Jürgen Habermas, John Rawls, and Thomas Pogge, for example, and they also include strong proponents of cosmopolitan democracy such as David Held and Daniel Archibugi.

Indeed, it is difficult to ignore that Kant had a tremendous influence on contemporary cosmopolitanism, as he was the first philosopher to provide consideration of the ethical aspect of cosmopolitanism, and then apply the principles he set forth in that consideration to the questions of international relations of his time. But concentrating on his thoughts on the establishment of a global civic society (as contemporary cosmopolitics does) separates it from the complex unity of Kant's cosmopolitan thinking and gives us an incomplete view of the subject. In the end, that type of account influences contemporary cosmopolitanism in a certain restricted way, which was certainly not Kant's intention. For Kant, cosmopolitanism is more than politics, it is a moral compass that directs us toward a system in which all the original endowments of human race could be fully developed.

To understand this development and current domination of political aspect of cosmopolitanism over all other aspects, we should again try to provide a historical perspective, comparing the works of Immanuel Kant and Jean-Jacques Rousseau. But one does not need to go into a careful study of the history of philosophy to see the connection between the two greatest thinkers of the Enlightenment period. Even high school students will remember the anecdote related to Kant being such a systematically organized person that he went out for a walk at the same time daily. This was true for all the days of his mature life except one – when he indulged in reading Rousseau's work "Emile". The truth of this anecdote is difficult to verify, but the influence of Rousseau on Kant is undeniable. Indeed, already in "Emile" we see the outlines of what Kant will formulate in the second form of his categorical imperative, and in the discussion on general will from "The Social Contract" we see the third formulation of the categorical

imperative. Rousseau's influence can also be found in Kant's thinking on the conjunction of history, as well as in his political writings on the topic of eternal peace.

At first glance, the very connection between these two authors seems unlikely to say the least. The differences between Rousseau and Kant are considerable, not only in their works and the ways in which they are presented, but also in their lifestyles. Rousseau, in addition to philosophy, tried his hand at many literary genres, wrote several works on music theory and composed an opera. As he states in his "Confessions" near the end of his life, all his works were created in flashes of inspiration, and although no one can dispute their significance, they often lack theoretical systematicity.⁵ Also, both in the attitudes expressed in them and in his own conduct, Rousseau often went against the established customs of French society of his time, which resulted in a tumultuous private life. He moved frequently (oftentimes unwillingly), and as much as he sought the attention of an audience to listen to his ideas on social order, religion and education, at the same time he fled from it into solitude.

Immanuel Kant, on the other hand, was the complete opposite. Extremely systematic and analytical, his three critiques that pose important questions – "What can I know?", "What should I do?", and "What can I hope for?" – attempted to provide a complete answer as to the nature of man and his life. Such systematicity was also reflected in his private life. Kant, a professor at the University of Königsberg, also his hometown, was known to have never left its vicinity. With a strange irony of fate, despite his unwillingness to travel, Kant laid the foundations of the modern understanding of cosmopolitanism, an idea that is still best accepted by world travelers, by elaborating on *ius cosmopolitanicum*, or cosmopolitan law.

Even more astonishing are their opposing views of freedom. And while Kant's exaltation of freedom as the only innate right of the individual has become one of the pillars of liberalism, Rousseau's preference for the "general will" of a community that can never be wrong and that forces the individual to "be free" puts him in another camp, which we can call communitarian. Also, because of his understanding of freedom, Kant is the mainstay of the modern, political aspect of cosmopolitanism, while

5 Jean-Jacques Rousseau, *Confessions*, Oxford University Press, 2008.

Rousseau is often placed on the opposite, nationalistic pole. It is also well known that he condemned cosmopolitanism in the Geneva version of the “The Social Contract” – individuals “who, justifying their love for the fatherland by their love for mankind, boast of loving everyone in order to have the right to love no one”.⁶ Despite this, both of them in their works showed an interest for the advancement of man, and through this humanity as a whole, which was one of the basic features of the Enlightenment. But in addition to the need for the moral advancement of the individual, they also felt the need for a political arrangement that would be conducive to this development, that is, both were interested in proposals for the establishment of lasting peace among nations.

We should certainly note that neither Rousseau nor Kant are isolated examples in their proposals for the establishment of peaceful international relations. The bloodshed of the religious wars fought in seventeenth century Europe, the end of which was marked by the signing of the Westphalia Peace Treaties, undoubtedly had an impact on the thinkers of the time, which is why a series of proposals for world peace were presented in the eighteenth century. In addition to philosophers, this issue was dealt with by statesmen, priests, and generally learned people of the time. Thus, the names of John Bellers, Abbé de Saint-Pierre, King James III, Cardinal Gulio Alberoni or Pierre André Gargaz may not mean much to those who primarily deal with philosophy, but their works have undoubtedly contributed to the development of themes that will culminate in these two authors.⁷

The historical context of the eighteenth century also indicates why the Enlightenment was such a fruitful period for the development of the idea of cosmopolitanism. It was a time of growth of industry and world trade, of advances in natural sciences and geographical discoveries that made them possible, of renewed interest in Hellenistic philosophy, and of the first glimmers of the idea of human rights, as well as a time of general focus on capabilities of human reason. Influenced by the events of American Revolution, and especially by the first years of the French Revolution, the idea of cosmopolitanism gained a strong impetus. The Declaration of the

6 Jean-Jacques Rousseau, *The Social Contract and Other Later Political Writings*, Cambridge University Press 1997, p. 158

7 Esref Aksu (ed.), *Early Notions of Global Governance, Selected Eighteenth-Century Proposals of 'Perpetual Peace'*, Wales University Press, 2008.

Rights of Man and Citizen and the American Declaration of Independence grew out of cosmopolitan forms of thinking and in turn strengthened those same thoughts.

Yet in that period, the terms “cosmopolitanism” and “world citizenship” were often used not as designations for certain philosophical theories, but rather to indicate an attitude of openness and impartiality. Thus, a cosmopolitan was a person who was not a subject of a particular political or religious authority, someone who was not bound by limited attachments or cultural prejudices. Moreover, the term is sometimes used to refer to a person who has led an urban life, or who likes to travel, maintains a network of international contacts, or who feels at home everywhere. Although authors such as Montesquieu, Voltaire, Diderot, Addison, Hume, and Jefferson have identified themselves as cosmopolitans in one or more of these forms, their use of this term is not of much philosophical interest.

Rousseau arrived at that specific literary form indirectly, by presenting a reevaluation of Abbe Saint-Pierre’s peace project in two essays, “Statement of St. Pierre’s Project” and “Criticism of St. Pierre’s Project” which form an unusual mixture of the views of the two authors.⁸ Also, there is no clear thematic division between excerpt and critique. The first essay already presents critiques of the Saint-Pierre project, while the second is much less critical than one would expect from the title. In his presentation, Rousseau starts from the same position as Saint-Pierre, that a natural state among nations exists, which results in a war of all against all, that is also the greatest enemy of humanity, and therefore it should be completely eradicated. Both Saint-Pierre and Rousseau agree with the way this should be done. The solution is Hobbesian, a supranational sovereign should be installed who would have coercive powers. If we put these proposals within the framework of the modern theory of international relations, we could say that they belong to the “realistic” camp, which holds that power and its possession are a key feature of these relations.

Unlike Saint-Pierre, who expected that the rulers themselves would see the benefits of his peace proposal, we could say that Rousseau was more realistic. He believed, and this is obviously the target of his criticism, and

8 Jean-Jacques Rousseau, *A Lasting Peace through the Federation of Europe and The State of War*, Constable and Company Limited, 1917.

not Saint-Pierre's work, that rulers do not want to see the benefits of peace because they consider war more profitable than peace. He maintained that they are not interested in anything other than expanding their own power outside the state and strengthening it within it. In the end, Rousseau rejects the idea of a European federation that Saint-Pierre advocated, as he considers it unattainable precisely because of the weakness and selfishness of the rulers. Therefore, Rousseau's essay ends on an almost pessimistic note.

Immanuel Kant takes a different path in his famous essay "Perpetual Peace". Although in relation to his work on Critique, his political and legal essays have long been considered his "minor works", in recent times there has been an increasing number of dissenting opinions. For example, Pauline Kleingeld holds that this short essay, written near the end of Kant's life, actually represents the culmination of his thinking on ethical and legal issues.⁹ Whether or not we agree with her view, the fact is that this essay on international relations is impossible to view in isolation without linking it to an interpretation of cosmopolitan law and putting it in correlation with Kant's moral philosophy. Kant's vision is, as David Heater observes, truly holistic.¹⁰ Some authors, such as George Cavallar, even believe that if these connections are not made, his entire cosmopolitan project may be misunderstood.¹¹

Thus, the existence of the state itself is for Kant a means of ensuring the greatest possible freedom of the individual, which according to him is the only innate right. States, on the other hand, coexist in conditions of antagonism that must be limited in order for human capabilities to develop. Without order among states, constant preparations for war will deplete state resources. Moreover, a state of war will encourage hostile attitudes towards members of other states and thus distort the moral character of the people. This external legal order is so important that Kant holds that the internal organization of states depends on it. Therefore, local justice depends on international justice, hence the necessity of establishing an international system that will provide this.

9 Pauline Kleingeld, *Kant and Cosmopolitanism, The Philosophical Ideal of World Citizenship*, Cambridge University Press, 2011.

10 Derek Heater, *World Citizenship – Cosmopolitan Thinking and Its Opponents*, Continuum, 2002.

11 Georg Cavallar, *Kant's Embedded Cosmopolitanism – History, Philosophy, and Education for World Citizens*, De Gruyter, 2017.

In his essays “Perpetual Peace” and “Idea for Universal History with Cosmopolitan Purpose”, Kant considers cosmopolitanism from the position of the highest political good. For a full understanding of Kant’s cosmopolitanism, it is necessary to say something about, as Georg Cavallar states, the other two highest goods which are related with the future of humanity. The first of these is the establishment of a global ethical community that is the highest moral good. Kant, in “Groundwork of the Metaphysics of Morals”¹², argues that all rational beings, regardless of their race, are ends in themselves and self-legislating members of the universal kingdom of ends. This ethical community encompasses the entire human race and is different from the notion of political community. The kingdom of ends is a universal republic based on the laws of virtue. As only an omnipotent and omniscient being can ensure the highest good, harmony of morality and deserved happiness, this community has a god as its founder. God and men seek to accomplish this together – people by promoting and preparing this ethical community, and God offering its fulfillment. Since the object of such a community is not individual moral perfection, but the complete unity of the human race according to the laws of virtue, the duty to promote this community is different from other duties. Kant claims that this duty is *sui generis*, not from people to people, but from the human race to itself.

Finally, Cavallar argues that in Kant’s cosmopolitanism there is a third, highest good proper, which coincides with the kingdom of God. There is a difference between the ethical community on the one hand, and the transcendent kingdom of God in which nature and morality are in harmony on the other, as this is impossible to achieve on Earth. Cavallar argues that, despite some opposing secularist interpretations, Kant never abandoned this distinction. The two cannot unite, they are only weakly bound to each other, since the ethical community is designed to promote or preserve morality and thus oppose evil, and not to make, in Kant’s opinion, necessary connection between morality and appropriate happiness, which kingdom of God does. According to this interpretation, both the legal and the moral community are only preliminary steps towards the real, religious goal of world history, which lies beyond history. Kant thus expresses the

12 Immanuel Kant, *Groundwork for the Metaphysics of Morals*, Cambridge University Press, 2012.

hope that true faith, naturally shaped by the model of the Christianity of his time, will spread throughout the world in such a way that the invisible kingdom of God on Earth will ultimately encompass and unite all human beings. This religious moment, which is crucial to the whole of Kant's philosophical work, is often neglected by the followers and commentators of his cosmopolitan theory.

Although Kant is a significant, if not decisive, influence on modern political cosmopolitanism, his work on its educational aspects is severely neglected. The likely reason for this kind of neglect is that Kant, even though he provided significant influence on educational thinkers such as Pestalozzi and Herbart, never published a systematic work on the subject. The short book titled "On Education" that was published after his death, is a compendium collected by his student F.T. Rink, and consists of what is believed to be Kant's lectures on the subject from 1770 to 1780.¹³ Nowadays, the prevalent opinion is that Rink's compendium is a collection of paraphrases and misquotations from Kant's other works, which he organized in an effort to give them some semblance of order. For that reason, it is not an easy task to find out Kant's true thoughts on education, as those views are scattered through his myriad works on politics, history, and ethics.

Of course, Kant is in many ways indebted to Rousseau's thought, which is also evident in his views on education. The faculty of autonomy is important for Kant's moral philosophy, especially as Kant separates the sphere of nature from the sphere of morality, but considers education as the process that links the two. For example, education leads children from a state of compulsion produced by a natural desire to a state of moral reason – performing the right act through understanding that it is the right act. Therefore, according to Kant's view, the final goal of education should be the formation of moral character. As Kant sees rationality a necessary condition of morality, he considers children neither naturally good nor evil, but rather naturally non-rational and therefore non-moral. Children are not born with the capacity for autonomy, they must develop that faculty through the process of education. Therefore, all education must be aimed at leading children to think for themselves and become autonomous individuals capable of moral action.

13 Immanuel Kant, *On Education*, Dover Publications Inc, 2003.

Kant does not attempt to offer concrete proposals for educational reform, but he did note that Rousseau's "Emile" held interesting suggestions. He considered that the educational practices of his time were mostly useless as they supported conformity rather than autonomy. For that reason, he supported the establishment of experimental schools influenced by Rousseau's teachings (especially the "Philanthropinum" school in Dessau founded by Johann Bernhard Basedow). Kant's main educational aim was that through development of the moral character of the individual this would bring about development of the ideal political community. Furthermore, Kant draws a parallel between the development of human beings, from the state of infancy to adulthood, with the development of the human race. Therefore, education in Kant's view has an enormous task, not just of developing the morals of the individual, but also the task of perfecting the human race.

As was mentioned earlier, Rousseau influenced Kant not just with his (cosmo)political writings, but provided a strong influence on him with "Emile, or On Education".¹⁴ And this is understandable, as "Emile" presented something entirely new in the history of education. Of course, Rousseau did not come to "Emile" out of thin air, since in his "Discourse on the Origin and Foundations of Inequality Among Men"¹⁵ as well as in "The Social Contract"¹⁶ Rousseau claimed that man by nature is a good creature, but that society with its civilizing forces is what corrupts him. This, of course, not only angered "civilized" people of his time, it also strongly denied the Christian concept of "original sin", which provoked considerable religious outrage in Paris (and later in his birthplace of Geneva). This outrage resulted in his books being burned and he was forced to live in exile for several years.

Therefore, the main aim of the educational project in "Emile" was vindication of Rousseau's concept of "natural man". His didactic novel intended to show that it is possible to raise an autonomous individual, even in the corrupted society we live in. And he intended to do that through what he called "negative education", which does not consist in teaching of virtue

14 Jean-Jacques Rousseau, *Emile, or on Education*, Basic Books, 1979.

15 Jean-Jacques Rousseau, "Discourse on the Origin and Foundations of Inequality Among Men", *The Discourses and Other Early Political Writings*, Cambridge University Press, 1997.

16 Jean-Jacques Rousseau, *The Social Contract and Other Later Political Writings*, Cambridge University Press, 1997.

or truth, but in securing the hearts of young ones from vice and minds from error. Eventually, negative education is replaced with a positive one, but only at adolescence. At that time, Rousseau's natural man, his Emile, enters the moral world and develops an *amour-propre*. This is a proper type of love, or self-love that involves reflection and approval of others, and contrasts with *amour de soi*, self-love that leads to corruption and vice that are prevalent in modern society.

Rousseau also held that children are incapable of moral behavior until they reach puberty (which is also the reason behind negative education), but that does not mean that children are naturally cruel, as they can treat other human beings with compassion. But only later, through attaining *amour-propre* and the use of their moral reasoning do they recognize others as beings with inherent rights who are deserving of justice. Still, it should be noted that Rousseau would most likely have argued that the educational system presented in "Emile" was only applicable in a corrupt society, while a different, democratic educational system would be the one that is appropriate for an ideal democratic order.

Considering these ideas, we could affirm that Rousseau was not a Romantic, a claim that is oftentimes attached to him because he endorsed the concept of natural man as opposed to civilized man. He had no desire for humanity to return to a pre-societal stage of development, that is, to a state of nature before the establishment of the societal contract. He was revolutionary, not reactionary, he wanted to change the world. And in order to do so, he chose education as the best possible weapon. His educational goal was not to create good citizens, but good humans.

Following this line of thinking, is our understanding of cosmopolitan education completely wrong? Are we just using it instrumentally to create citizens for the establishment of a cosmopolitical society? Should we be more interested in making cosmo-humans and not cosmo-citizens? Contemporary cosmopolitan education theory recognizes this difficulty. Authors such as Nussbaum¹⁷ and Hansen¹⁸ are aware that educating good human beings is significantly more important than creating good

17 Martha C. Nussbaum, *Cultivating Humanity – A Classical Defense of Reform in Liberal Education*, Harvard University Press, 1997.

18 David T. Hansen, *The Teacher and the World – A Study of Cosmopolitanism as Education*, Routledge, 2011.

cosmopolitan citizens. Truly, the latter should follow from the former, and not the other way around. By ignoring the teachings of Kant and Rousseau, we run into the danger of creating a cosmopolitical society which will not be a realm of freedom, but a most tyrannical state of all, as it will encompass the entire globe.

It seems that cosmopolitan change lies ahead of us. This may not come through cosmopolitan ethics but through cosmopolitan political institutions, which, unfortunately, do not necessarily have to be legitimized by moral values. Perhaps, as something similar has already happened to the people of 19th and 20th century during the formation of nation-states, we will all become citizens of a world state way before we begin to identify with the term and accept our duties toward our fellow citizens. Still, this seems to be the wrong path to the right goal, especially if we diminish the role of cosmopolitan education in the overall cosmopolitical project. Maybe we do need the *kosmopolites* to create a just global system, but it also seems that we have an even greater need for *kosmoanthropos* to arrive beforehand.

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KANT I ROUSSEAU – TEMELJNI MISLIOCI KOZMOPOLITSKE EDUKACIJE

SAŽETAK

Iako je kozmopolitizam kao politička ideja ozbiljno razmatran u modernoj političkoj filozofiji i političkoj teoriji, isto se ne može reći za kozmopolitsku edukaciju koje se često shvaća kao nebitni dodatak kozmopolitskoj teoriji. Ovaj rad tvrdi kako je takvo stajalište iznimno pogrešno, budući da kozmopolitska edukacija predstavlja esencijalni dio “kozmpolitičkog projekta”, što će i biti pokazano razradom učenja znamenitih ranih kozmopolitskih mislilaca kao što su Kant i Rousseau. U svom završnom dijelu, rad će usporediti i analizirati njihove poglede na kozmopolitizam i edukaciju koji su snažno utjecali na čitavo razdoblje prosvjetiteljstva, s nakanom da damo smjernice o tome kako kozmopolitska edukacija još uvijek i danas može promicati „usavršivost ljudske rase”, te postati temelj globalnog kozmpolitičkog projekta koji se temelji na miru, pravdi i demokraciji.

Ključne riječi: kozmopolitska edukacija, kozmopolitika, Kant, Rousseau, kozmopolitizam

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